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ERRATA.

Page 7, col. iii., lines 41, 42. For "M. Eugène Ritter" read "President Bouvier."

Page 59, col. i., line 28. For "amorphous" read "anthropomorphous."

Page 104, col. iii., line 30. Omit rest of sentence after "completed."

Page 268, col. iii., line 9. For "toxic" read "tonic."

Page 331, col. i., line 39. For "Capella" read "Cappella." Line 5 from bottom. For "regia" read "regina." Line 3 from bottom. For "Pisola" read "l'isola." Col. ii., line 34. For "lalla" read "dalla." Line 36. For "Cina" read "Cino."

Page 381, col. ii., lines 12, 14. For "feet" read "metres."

Page 450, col. ii., line 9. For "year" read "years."

THE EIGHTY-SECOND AND LAST INDEX TO "THE NATION" (1865-1906)
PREPARED BY THE HAND OF W. P. G.

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The Week.

A member of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations rather cruelly exposes the way in which President Roosevelt's innocence may be taken advantage of by the wily Dominicans. This Senator shows why the President's course, which he thought so surely preventive of a revolution in Santo Domingo, was in reality provocative of one. Because, argued Mr. Roosevelt in the goodness of his heart, Dominican revolutionists "usually have as their real aim the obtaining possession of the custom-houses," and because we now have Americans collecting the revenue, therefore there will be no more revolutions. It was a beautiful Q. E. D. But along comes the Senator to pick flaws in the logic. He remarks that it was always the money, not the custom-houses, of which Dominican revolutionists wished to obtain possession. Consequently, when they were informed by President Roosevelt that a million dollars or so was lying in bank in New York, "for equitable division, in case the treaty shall be ratified, among the various creditors," their fingers naturally itched to get hold of it. The method was obviously to seize the Government, tear up the treaty, terminate President Roosevelt's "arrangement," and call for the delivery of that $1,000,000. The money undoubtedly belongs to the Dominican Government; and if Jimenez or Cáceres or any other enterprising gentleman turns up as the *de facto* Government, he will be entitled to demand it. It appears, therefore, that what President Roosevelt fondly imagined would be a prize for peace, was really a premium for revolution.

We can hardly credit the report that James F. Smith, or Gen. "Jim" Smith, as he is familiarly known, is to succeed Luke E. Wright as Governor-General of the Philippines. That Mr. Wright would not return to Manila has been the accepted belief in Washington, notwithstanding repeated official denials. The chief objection to him seems to be his Southern point of view in his treatment of the Filipinos, in accordance with which he has kept himself aloof from social relations with them. Gen. Smith, who is a prominent Catholic, is about forty-six years of age, and first went to the Philippines as colonel of the First California Volunteers, giving up his law practice to do so. In April, 1899, he was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, and as such he was Governor of Negros. In 1900 he served as collector of customs at Manila, and a year later became associate justice of the insular Supreme Court. On October 13, 1902, he was appointed a member of the Philippine Commission, succeeding Prof. Bernard Moses. In the three years he has held this position he has been largely engaged in the task of forcing the English language upon the natives, as head of the Department of Public Instruction. He has also had under him the Bureau of Public Printing, the Bureau of Archives, the Bureau of Census, etc. We cannot feel, however, that Gen. Smith is of the proper calibre to warrant his being made head of the Government. It was a step downward from Taft to Wright, as a result of which there is a wider cleft between Filipinos and Americans than ever before, as Mr. Taft discovered last summer. It would be a step downward from Wright to Smith. The Governor-General ought, for one thing, to be widely known to the people of the United States and to possess their confidence.

We sympathize with the bronze founders who have petitioned Secretary Taft to see to it that all statuary commissioned by the Government be cast in American shops. The immediate grievance concerns MacMonnies's "Sherman," which is about to be put in bronze by the pauper founders of Paris. MacMonnies, the complainants allege, has done this thing for no better reason than that bronze casting is cheaper in Europe than America. We are unwilling to believe that he can have been moved by so unpatriotic a motive. He must know that the formula "a cheap ccat makes a cheap man" is as true of civil-war generals in bronze as in woollens. One would fain believe that simple convenience and acquaintance count for something. Mr. MacMonnies has lived for years in Paris, most of his sculpture has been both modelled and cast there, and it is possible that his reasons for abiding by the artisans he knows are not wholly anti-American. Secretary Taft's petitioners point out that American casting is surpassed by none, which is the fact, and add as an interesting detail that they are making a bronze McClellan for Mr. Paul Bartlett. Now Mr. Bartlett, like his colleague, MacMonnies, is an expatriated American, and has made and manufactured the greater part of his sculpture in Paris. Still, the transfer of his McClellan to an American firm has not been the occasion of indignation at Paris. In short, it is a cosmopolitan age, and the fact may yet be perceived by the outraged brass founders of America, most of whom are of French, and very recent, derivation.

One result of the withholding of passes by the railroads entering the city of Washington is that the Congressional mileage this year ceases to be a mere generous addition to the member's salary, and must be regarded, for the first time in many years, as a sum actually to be spent in travelling home and back. Baltimore, for instance, is an hour's ride from Washington. The Baltimore Congressmen receive $16.80 each as mileage. Those from the State of Washington have about a hundred times as much, or $1,412.40, while the Hawaiian delegate heads the list with $2,314.30. Debates on the mileage question have brought out rather amusing differences of opinion as to whether travelling expenses, when the 20-cent-a-mile rate was fixed, were lower or higher than at present. But that this amount will enable a member to pay fare, especially at the season of holiday rates, is hardly to be disputed. In fact, the injustice of the present system is that it enables the member from a Western district who actually goes home and pays his way—let alone the one who does not—to save hundreds of dollars more out of his mileage than the Easterner. There is much to be said in favor of the plan of paying legislative expenses of travel in the same way as if the men were on departmental business.

Such a retirement as that of the Chief Justice of the United States Court of Claims at the end of last year ought not to pass unnoticed. Judge Nott had been a member of that Court for nearly forty-one years. In the class of important questions coming before it he made for himself a high judicial reputation. All his life an eager student of government, he retires now, not on account of infirmities of age, but mainly to devote his remaining years to further constitutional studies. His career has been honorable and serviceable to the country, and he will take with him from the bench the respect and good wishes of all who have been in any way associated with him.

It is a pity that bosses politically executed by their fellow-citizens should die such a lingering death. Cox of Cincinnati received his death-stroke early in November, but actual dissolution was not to occur until January 1, and meanwhile he retained strength for more mischief. He has just put through the City Council, by a vote of 25 to 3, an ordinance giving a franchise without

compensation for supplying natural gas. For the rejection of a competing offer of 30-cent gas, as against the 75-cent product of the favored company, and the similar rejection of a half-million-dollar offer for the same privilege, it is hard to find a closer parallel than Mayor Ashbridge's famous act of signing away Philadelphia's street railway privileges for nothing, when a $2,000,000 offer was before him. "Remember Philadelphia" was the rallying cry against the eleventh-hour ordinance in Cincinnati, but it was unsuccessful. One thing to be said about such utterly barefaced jobs as this is that they indicate either sublime confidence of the ring in its ability to keep in power, or else confession of defeat for a good while to come. We trust that in Cincinnati the former alternative may be dismissed as impossible.

It is not alone Mayor McClellan's words on taking office which indicate that he has turned over a new leaf, and that upon it the name Tammany is not written in capital letters. There are also acts which speak louder than words. Among them, the Mayor's appointments are most significant. Good or bad, as the event may prove them, they are at least his own. Murphy makes a ghastly pretence of being satisfied with them—that is one of the necessary humiliations of a defeated boss—but is not equal to asserting that he suggested them. Mayor McClellan has set up for himself. A sure sign of it is the fact that only two Tammany district leaders were present at his New Year's reception. The joyous claim of ownership which the Wigwam made, and with so good a show of right, two years ago, it no longer puts forward. Mayor McClellan's declaration of independence marks him as the latest if not most distinguished convert from the doctrine that municipal affairs are best administered when administered in the interest of a party. If he has not come over fully and openly to the belief in absolutely non-partisan administration of cities, he is, at any rate, worlds away from his position of two years ago. Then his talk was all of the necessity of parties in municipal government. He was a Democrat (meaning a Tammany Democrat) and he served notice that he should make his Administration Democratic—that is, Tammany. But the hard school of experience has taught him the folly of that. His purely partisan appointees have been the ones which brought him most embarrassment and discredit; and now he announces but one standard, that of efficient service of the city. And he warns his new heads of department that he will not hesitate to remove any of them whom he finds coming short in the strict performance of their duty to the city.

Mr. McClellan's rather melancholy putting away of the hope of political advancement—the Mayoralty, he declares, is "the last public office which, in all human probability, I shall ever fill"—he seemed to think an inevitable concomitant of his pledge to give the city "a clean, efficient, and honest government." Yet one does not necessarily imply the other. What the Mayor has in mind, doubtless, is the shattering of his old theory, and the dissipation of his old hopes, regarding the road to high political station. Instead of being comfortably assisted by Murphy into the Governor's chair, and thence to the White House, he suddenly discovers that Murphy has very nearly pulled him down in his own ruin. Already there are rumors of a new Tammany combination for the double purpose of ousting Murphy and attacking McClellan, rendering the latter impotent, if possible, in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

"The insurance companies," said Louis F. Payn last week, "are cowards," thus compressing into five words one of the most important facts which the legislative committee has uncovered in its months of investigation. The huge insurance companies, the richest and in many ways the most powerful corporations in America, have been the victims of organized blackmail. Bullied by this highwayman or that, they have paid out hundreds of thousands of dollars as meekly and uncomplainingly as private people with more money than brains (our Amalgamated Association of Easy Marks) have subscribed $1,500 or more each to that ridiculous book, 'Fads and Fancies.' For the man who hands out one or two thousand dollars rather than have the family skeleton exposed, one feels not pure contempt, but a certain pity also. An individual who wishes to avoid trouble and who has no defence except costly and unpleasant litigation, has a pretext, if not an excuse, for his weakness. But the insurance companies can plead neither feebleness nor ignorance. Their resources have been enormous; they have retained the ablest lawyers. Yet—to quote Mr. Payn again—"all these great corporations are afraid not only of strike legislation, but of some of these insurance departments. There are also agents and actuaries who strike them." It was nominally in order to guard against these so-called strikes that the New York Life, the Equitable, and the Mutual formed an offensive and defensive alliance, and created an elaborate machine for the corruption of legislatures and State officials, and for the manufacture of public sentiment by newspaper articles.

The full plan of combination of the Belmont and Ryan traction interests contemplates turning the present $30,000,000 Interborough stock into $70,000,000 bonds, with a "bonus" of $31,500,000 in new stock; converting the $52,000,000 outstanding Metropolitan Street Railway stock into $78,000,000 new stock, and buying up the stock of the old "holding company" with stock of a new one. This is, clearly enough, a stock-watering plan on the scale of 1901. We are not likely to hear again very soon the assertion which the Subway's financial managers have been wont to make with pride, that here at least is a railway enterprise in which capital inflation has played no part. The new plan, if carried out successfully, will change all that, and will change it on much the same lines as Jay Gould selected, a generation ago, for watering the stock of the Elevated Railway. The "traction-merger" plan is, in fact, worthy of careful study as a financial expedient which unites the particular vices of the so-called "new finance" with the characteristic vices of the old. It may be further remarked, for the information of the curious, that the proposal involves confession that the celebrated "Metropolitan deal" of February, 1902, has been a failure from every point of view. When the chairman at the meeting of Metropolitan Street Railway shareholders had ordered those helpless investors to "vote for the motion first and discuss it afterward," and when the lease of the system to the new company, on a 7 per cent. guaranteed dividend, had been decreed, we raised the question who was to guarantee the guarantor. The answer which most people now will make is that the guarantee was in most respects worthless. The 7 per cent. dividend has not been earned; the guarantor is sick of his guarantee; therefore it is now proposed that, when the Street Railway shareholders "come into the new deal," they shall consent to the scaling down of their dividend to 5 per cent. This gentle suggestion is accompanied by a proffer of $26,000,000 bonus in the common stock of the new "holding company," to the manufacture of which security the plan is chiefly devoted. This is merely the breaking of the 999-year lease of 1902 because its continuance had become inconvenient to the lessee.

If a part of the water put into the traction merger was placed there in the belief that the city will be helpless before the plans of the promoters, they must already be undeceived. The Rapid Transit Commission is awake to the situation. President Orr makes it plain that he and his colleagues do not propose to be, in the matter of new subways, at the mercy of the Belmont-Ryan combination. If the latter's bid for the subway extensions is not on terms ad-

vantageous for the public, some way will be found to introduce competition, or else the city will build for itself. It is late in the day for any traction syndicate, however over-capitalized, to ask New York insolently, "What are you going to do about it?" The power to tax and to regulate remains, and it should freely be made use of in order to protect the public from extortion. And if the Belmont-Ryan combination comes forward *in forma pauperis* to plead that it cannot build the new subways on proper terms, since it would then not be able to pay its fixed charges, a fitting reply by the Rapid Transit Commission would be: "Squeeze the water out of your bonds and then you can."

To raise $100,000 in America for the support of higher classical studies in Rome is probably harder than to raise a million for some project of commercial or industrial education at home. Yet the good news that this has been done was announced last week from Ithaca. It has taken five years of persistent effort to do it, and now the American School of Classical Studies in Rome passes from the time of trial to an era of assured support. It has been one of the only two schools of higher scientific learning sustained by American generosity on the Continent of Europe; but it has had to struggle hard, first for its life, and then for due recognition. All the time it has gone quietly about its work, living frugally, husbanding its energies, and winning year by year the increasing respect of the Italian Government, the Vatican, and the German, French, and British Schools. It has produced a small group of trained investigators and museum experts. It has sent back to our schools and colleges nearly one hundred and fifty instructors, newly vivified and alert from contact with the quickening influences of the greatest teacher of ancient history —the Eternal City. It has won its way for the best of reasons—it has proved its right to live. And the success already won by economy and well-directed hard work should lead to greater things. Its endowment should be enlarged and a permanent home provided for it.

With Campbell-Bannerman's flat statement that Irish Home Rule does not mean Irish independence, and the Duke of Devonshire's advice that Liberal Unionists should vote for Liberal candidates rather than for Chamberlainites, the separatist skeleton has been quietly put back into its closet, and the general election will be fought on the immediate issue of protection and free trade. As if to emphasize this fact, Mr. Chamberlain's election manifesto distinctly demands a tariff which will "secure the largest amount of employment at fair wages for our people." Yet with a consciousness that fiscal reform is a little heavy to float alone, he buoys it up with abuse of a "Home-Rule-Little-Englander Government." But, for electoral purposes, the Prime Minister appears to have plain sailing. Mr. Balfour has been as unsuccessful in interpolating the Home-Rule issue as he has been in suppressing that of Imperial reciprocity. With the issues clearly defined for the battle before the constituencies, the Liberals may remain well content. In case of their success, there will, of course, remain the Irish members to deal with. Home Rule is, after all, only adjourned, and Mr. Redmond's followers may not like Campbell-Bannerman's and Mr. Bryce's recipe for "devolution of power" much better than Balfour's and Mr. Wyndham's.

John Burns, the first Labor member of Parliament to become a Cabinet Minister, displayed good sense in his first official speech, on December 20, on the subject of the unemployed. For loafers and drunkards, he declared, he had no sympathy. In this he is in accord with a clergyman, the Rev. Mr. Watts-Ditchfield, whose life is devoted to the service of the London poor, and who holds that the two most troublesome classes are the worthless vagabonds, not far removed from criminality, and those without any trade, and therefore so frequently without occupation. He, with Gen. Booth of the Salvation Army, favors colonization for the latter, though he would have them settled in the sparsely populated parts of Ireland, rather than in Australia. For that matter, Australia does not appear to want these superfluous and helpless Englishmen. Gen. Booth has admitted that his plan of colonizing them in the interior of Australia is opposed by the authorities. The latter argue with much force that such feeble and feckless settlers, even if given 200 acres of land, would not be able to support themselves, and might be expected soon to become a public charge.

In France also the question of the unemployed is serious. The latest statistics show that there are in that country twenty thousand men who are without work simply because they do not wish to work. During the winter many of them are glad to drift into the prisons, where they find it more comfortable than to wander through streets and lanes by day, and to sleep under the shelter of bridges and outhouses by night. But during the warmer months their roof is the sky, and they feed themselves by begging in the smaller towns and hamlets. Unfortunately, it is not upon the rich that the burden of this vagabond class weighs most heavily, for they are difficult of access and enjoy police protection. The industrious laborer, the small farmer and tradesman, the unprotected women and children, have to support this shiftless, wandering army and endure its importunity and half-veiled threats. In England under the Tudors the man who gave to a beggar was fined, and the recipient of the gift was punished. It seems to have been perceived that the vagabond is potentially a criminal, and that it is usually his cowardice, not his conscience, which deters the street beggar and the tramp from robbery and violence. Certainly, as John Burns holds, no plan of dealing with the unemployed will commend itself which does not rule out these wastrels and semi-criminal idlers, or deal sharply with them.

With King Edward and President Loubet known to be delighted with the outlook for peace, rumor-mongers are hard put to it to get up the war scare so essential to all "forecasts of the year" of the time-honored kind. Berlin, too, is insistent that there are no war-clouds on the horizon. But even this assurance is not enough for the London *Times*—now one of the most sensational journals—and its anonymous "military correspondents." They can get you up a war-scare at any time on any order, having the finest possible nose for fighting on the Indian frontier. If you show them the folly of that, they are persuaded that the Emperor of Germany means to steal the Baltic provinces from his brother of Russia. With this officially denied, there is always the opportunity to hint that the Moroccan difficulty has just reached a "very critical stage" known only to insiders. Finally, when this bubble is exploded, there is ever the Far East to turn to. As matters stand now, the would-be manufacturers of war seem to be trying to get up a fight between France and Germany which shall be labelled, "Made in England." As such it need cause no worry.

No one deplores the lack of method in the revolutionary madness of Russia more than the recognized leaders of the Liberal movement. Peter von Struve protests, in a recent number of the Moscow *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, against the dictatorship of the "revolutionary proletariat," no less fatal, in his opinion, to the cause of freedom than the dictatorship of the "Black Hundred." He warns laboring men and the peasantry against the folly of being drawn into social anarchy, and condemns in the strongest terms the current strike. He contrasts its excesses with the well-considered aims of the strike of last October, and remarks: "Let us beware of making an idol and a fetish of so dangerous a remedy. What is to-day a glorious strike, may to-morrow be destructive and criminal."

A TREATY WITH CHAOS.

Newspaper readers must have rubbed their eyes at the dispatches telling of another revolution in Santo Domingo. Only a month before they had been assured on the highest authority—that of President Roosevelt—that such a thing was impossible. In his last message to Congress, the President explained that the wise "temporary arrangement" which he made after the Senate had refused to ratify his treaty with Santo Domingo, had "completely discouraged all revolutionary movement" in the island. His firm but kind intervention had enabled "the poor harassed people of Santo Domingo once more to turn their attention to industry, and to be free from the curse of interminable revolutionary disturbance." "Stability and order and all the benefits of peace are at last coming to Santo Domingo." True, Mr. Roosevelt contemplated a distant possibility of "chaos." That was to be feared, he informed Congress, only in case the "arrangement" was allowed to terminate and the treaty to fail. But chaos has arrived ahead of time.

To go back over the President's course in all this Dominican adventure is to discover great vacillation on his part. He does not appear to have been clear in his own mind as to either the grounds of his contemplated action, its method, or its scope. First came that extraordinary agreement of January 20, which has not yet been fully explained, but which was, in effect, a treaty to be put into force without ratification by the Senate. That the President's agents, under his instructions, so regarded the remarkable document is certain; the *Tribune's* inspired Washington correspondent announced that this was also the Administration view. But strong opposition arose, and a new treaty was framed and submitted to the Senate on February 15. This was the treaty of which Secretary Hay wrote, at about that time, to a friend that he should not be inconsolable if the Senate killed it, though the President assured the Senate of its vast importance, and dwelt on the "urgent need of prompt action." In a special message on March 6, he renewed his demand for "action at an early moment." But an unfeeling Senate turned a deaf ear. Things dragged along under the "arrangement," and, meanwhile, the treaty was patched up again, and again laid before the Senate.

What was the main reason given by Mr. Roosevelt for the action he proposed to take? The Monroe Doctrine. That was thrust to the front both by himself and by his apologists. It was "the late Colonel Monroe" who was compelling us to readjust the finances of the Dominican republic, or of any other bankrupt country in this hemisphere. "Those who profit by the Monroe Doctrine," said the President, "must accept certain responsibilities along with the rights which it confers"; and the responsibility for the foreign debts of Santo Domingo was deduced with irrefragable logic. So, too, Prof. J. B. Moore, who has so often been called in by the Administration as a convenient expounder of its international law, explained in the *Review of Reviews* that the Dominican proposal was simply "the Roosevelt corollary from the Monroe Doctrine." But there were Monroe Doctors in the Senate, too, and they would not admit the "corollary" at all; in order to placate them, its only begetter has now thrown it out of the window, Professor Moore and all. Says President Roosevelt in his latest message: "It is not of the slightest consequence whether we grant the aid needed by Santo Domingo as an incident to the wise development of the Monroe Doctrine, or because we regard the case as standing wholly by itself, and to be treated as such and not on general principles or with any reference to the Monroe Doctrine."

In that last sentence is indicated a fatal weakness of many of President Roosevelt's proceedings. "Not on general principles." A friend and even admirer of Mr. Roosevelt's has said that his mind seems incapable of grasping a general principle. He is strong on specific instances, but seldom sees their logical connection, and is indignant if told that given action in a given case will compel him to act similarly in another one just like it. It is the thing he immediately wants to do that fills his mind; remoter consequences, the question of applying like measures to like circumstances, the great political truth that when you say A you must also say B—all these things he sheds impatiently. He will not admit, we see, that he is laying down a "general principle" in his plans for Santo Domingo; another republic in distress that might come along and appeal for aid on exactly the same basis, the President would feel at liberty to send away with soundly boxed ears.

It is unfortunately true, however, that statesmanship cannot get along without general principles. The distinction is at least as old as Aristotle between what he called the "emotional" ruler, who puts his will or whim in place of statute, and the public man who governs his conduct by general laws. In the mortifying muddle into which the President has fallen in Santo Domingo we see what comes of putting personal wishes in the place of hard facts. Mr. Roosevelt wished to think of President Morales as a strong "ruler," with the people of his country behind him, and consequently so described him; whereas the slightest study of recent Dominican history would have shown of what type of desperate adventurer he was, and how wildly imprudent it would be to tie to him. In trying amiably to prevent "chaos," Mr. Roosevelt has, in fact, made a treaty with it. It is doubtless the dawning of this fact upon Washington which now makes even "Administration circles" confess that the chances of the treaty's ratification are almost nil. As the terrible hurricane in St. Thomas in 1870 had much to do with the Senate's rejection of President Grant's treaty to annex that island, so, it seems certain, will the news of a revolution in Santo Domingo "against the Government and the Dominican-American fiscal convention," as the dispatches report it, give President Roosevelt's Santo Domingo treaty its quietus.

REFORM BETWEEN FRIENDS.

Secretary Shaw comes gallantly to the rescue of his friend, John R. Walsh, who caused three Chicago banks to become insolvent. There was nothing "criminal," he declares, about Walsh's methods. To be sure, "that part of the banking law which prohibits the loaning of more than 10 per cent. of the capitalization to one man may have been violated"; but even that is not criminal, and Walsh "did no more than many other bankers are doing all the time." Besides, "the depositors will get every dollar," so what possible ground of complaint is there? The rumor of prosecution by the Government, Mr. Shaw added, is "nothing but talk."

It is more than "talk," however, when the chief minister of finance thus poohpoohs serious financial irregularities. At a time when there is so much suspicion and distrust in people's minds, following the financial scandals that have leaped to light, the Secretary of the Treasury should be the last man even to appear to lower the standards. He should lead all the rest in insisting upon absolute probity, faithful compliance with every provision of the law, maintaining sacredly each safeguard. The defence, "they all do it," ill becomes a man in a position of his high responsibility; and as for the excuse that no money was lost to innocent parties by the improprieties and illegalities, that is something which Mr. Shaw had better leave to George W. Perkins. For our part, we find the Secretary's condonation of Walsh simply shocking—most shocking of all, perhaps, from the fact that Mr. Shaw appears to think it the most innocent thing in the world. Walsh is his personal friend. It is in the guise of friendship that Mr. Shaw comes forward to make light of the charges against the Chicago banker and promoter.

In this respect, it must be confessed, he is following an exalted precedent. It is characteristic of this Administration that it can see nothing wrong in any of its friends. Very kind to their virtues, it is stone blind to their faults. What would be outrageous or unlawful in an

ordinary citizen, is, at the worst, mistaken zeal in the case of a friend of the Administration. Washington has, in fact, seen a revival of the political classification of London, more than a century ago. Men fall into one of two groups—"Enemies of the Administration," or "Friends of the Administration"; and the latter meet the theological definition, *non possunt peccare*. The theory is this, and it is so firmly held by the President that it is no wonder his Secretaries take it up: "We are conscious of only the purest motives; reform is our daily bread; we think of nothing but the public good. Our virtues are, in short, so miraculous that they necessarily impart something of their supernal quality to our friends. Hence any appearance of unfitness or wrongdoing on their part is deceptive. Any man who brings an accusation against them is either misinformed or malicious."

We were used in Grant's day to seeing the President "stand by" his personal friends when "under fire." Nowadays, however, the ones who are under fire are those who dare to insinuate a doubt against the President's friends. The Presidential batteries open with the fury which we still remember in the case of Paul Morton. Mr. Roosevelt's indignation burned hot at the supposition that the crime of railroad rebating could any longer be a crime when committed by a friend of his. People hastily call this a glaring inconsistency; but it really shows that the President is so dead in earnest about himself and his work, so convinced that all his acts are unimpeachable and his friends flawless, that he simply cannot see what others see. The wicked laugh, but the President perceives no joke whatever.

The publication of the report of the Isthmian Canal Commission serves to demonstrate how Mr. Roosevelt's mind works in this matter. First, we have his letter of April 1 (not taken at the time for an All Fools' Day jest), reorganizing the Commission, and describing the high technical requirements of the appointees. Then we have his speech of May 10, at Chicago, telling the people how he had asked Congress for power to remodel the Commission, and how, when it did not do so, "I remodelled it anyhow, ... and made up my mind to put the best man I could in any given position." Following all this, we have had President Roosevelt's nomination as Canal Commissioner of a man whose warmest champions do not pretend that he has any special qualification for that office. But Mr. Bishop is a personal friend of the President, and that is sufficient to make him fit for any position within Mr. Roosevelt's gift.

If any President but Mr. Roosevelt had tried to foist a crony upon the Commission, all would have thought it a job. People would have said that Jackson or Grant or McKinley never made a more flagrant misuse of public funds to take care of a friend. They would have pointed out that Mr. Bishop's first appointment as "agent of publicity" at $10,000 a year had proved indefensible, and that then the President, in his "anyhow" spirit, had set about making him a "place" at the same salary, fitness or no fitness. But this would be to do the President wrong—to overlook his profound conviction that any friend of his is, *ipso facto*, capable of adorning any position. The long line of Rough Riders and "old guides" whom he has appointed to office does not prove favoritism, but only his firm determination, as he says, to get the best man. Only, with Secretary Shaw, he regards best man as synonymous with friend. It all depends upon the point of view. If President Cleveland had been caught in such an abuse of patronage as the Bishop nomination, Mr. Roosevelt, as stern insister upon Roman virtue in a Democratic Executive, would have made the heavens ring. But Mr. Cleveland had not the great administrative gift of feeling in his heart that he was impeccable and his friends necessarily beyond criticism.

THE PHILIPPINE RAILWAYS.

Governor-General Wright announced on Christmas day that if the second attempt to secure bids on the Philippine railroads should prove unsuccessful, at least a part of the proposed system, "one or more of the important lines," would be built by the Government itself. Following the rejection a fortnight ago of all the bids thus far received, this announcement assumes not a little importance. It adds a new element to the confusion of the existing Philippine situation. There are now in the archipelago about 120 miles of railway, extending from Manila to Dagupan. The Philippine Commission, desirous of developing the economic resources of the country as rapidly as possible, has projected a complete system of railways, aggregating about a thousand miles and furnishing an outlet for the products of the most important regions. The Manila-Dagupan line was built by English capital under a guarantee by the Spanish Government of an 8 per cent. return on the investment. From Congress last year was secured the right of our commission to guarantee 4 per cent. return for thirty years on bona-fide capital invested in the new lines to be built. It is under this law, the Cooper-Lodge act, that the work of securing bidders is proceeding.

The situation at present may be aptly compared to that which exists with reference to the Subways in this city. The existing line has been turned over by its builders to American interests, which themselves put in bids on additional lines still to be constructed, so as to form one system. The only rival offer came from a newly formed American company, which would, if successful, operate the new lines only. The interest of the Commission, meanwhile, lies not only in securing as favorable terms as possible, but in getting the entire system constructed by some one. Secretary Taft stated before the House Committee that of the thousand miles of projected roads, perhaps 30 or 40 per cent. might be expected to make a profit within the near future. The others are expected to be unprofitable for a considerable period to come; those which will not pay are those which it is most important to construct in the interest of the islands; and the line probably most costly—from Manila through the Caravello Pass to Aparri on the Cagayan River—is, according to Mr. Taft, the most expensive of all. While the terms of the rejected bids have not been made public, it is a fair supposition that the bidder controlling the existing road would make the most favorable offers on lines naturally tributary to that road, while the opposing interest would endeavor to secure the lines which could be operated to advantage independently.

Failing to get satisfactory estimates, Secretary Taft has now liberalized the terms, and is making, very properly, a special effort to secure bidders who will waive the guarantee of interest. The new terms provide:

> "Whenever in any case a bidder proposes to build the whole or any of the routes specified in the original invitation without guarantee, he may make his bid deviate in any respect from the specified limitations set forth in the original invitation, provided his terms are such as may be granted by the Philippine Government in view of the provisions of the acts of Congress approved July 1, 1902, and February 6, 1905, as set forth in the original invitation."

A great deal was said in Congress about the impossibility of securing American capital to build the lines without Government aid, but that there should be any hitch in getting the work done with such inducements does not seem to have occurred to any of the members who took part in the debate. Taft himself, when civil governor, had said:

> "It should be noted that if American capital declines to come, English, Belgian, and other foreign capital is merely awaiting the franchises which are requested for railroad and other constructive enterprises; and that it will be the duty of the Commission to grant such franchises for the benefit of the Islands."

The argument that the execution as well as the conception of these important aids to the development of our wards ought to be in exclusively American hands, is one that falls in with the general idea of our Providential function in the Orient. We have no doubt there could be found defenders of even the bald proposition that it is better to pay an American for the work than to

let a foreigner do it for nothing. At the same time, the logic of the initial policies might lead us to some dangerous conclusions. Every concession in the islands which is predicated on the express or implied promise of the United States to retain ownership indefinitely is another obstacle in the way of free and enlightened action in the future. The Philippine railroads had better not be built at all if their construction commits us to permanent occupation. This is certainly a danger in our whole policy of material development. What effect did Secretary Taft's "injudicious" mention of Philippine independence have, for instance, on prospective bidders for concessions in the Philippines last year? The present guarantee of railroad profits would be made nominally by the insular authorities; but how far is the Federal Government's credit virtually to be pledged? The case has been stated very frankly. For example, Mr. Cooper, chairman of the Committee on Insular Affairs, said in closing the debate in the House:

"Mr. Speaker, American capital refuses to go into railroad building in those islands because of the risk—a risk in part, at least, attributable to the threats constantly made by gentlemen upon that side of the Chamber and by their political associates throughout the United States, that, give them the power, they will turn those Islands over to a native Filipino Government."

The argument was in effect that we must build Philippine railroads, whatever the cost and however far-reaching the consequences. If the present efforts result in getting the desired construction without creating too powerful vested interests naturally adverse to an ultimate separation, then the pen with which President Roosevelt signed the important bill, and which was destined—we do not know if it has got there yet—for a glass case in the Philippine Museum, may be a real object of inspiration.

FREEDOM OF OPINION IN THE SOUTH.

The late Chancellor Hill of the University of Georgia was a representative of the new school of thought in the South, and his death is a loss to the progressive men of that section. A Georgian by birth and lifelong residence, he was as loyal and as devoted to his State as any dweller in Dixie. But he was never one who believed that because a thing or an idea was Southern, it was *ipso facto* right; or that because a custom or a habit of mind commended itself to Southerners, it was therefore sacrosanct. A man of solid learning and sound principle, he naturally thought for himself, and it did not terrify him or silence him if by accident his notions went counter to certain accepted views of the community in which he happened to live.

It was this kind of courage which led him to head the Prohibition State ticket in one of its "forlorn-hope" campaigns; as it doubtless had something to do with his suddenly being called from a lawyer's office to become the head of his alma mater, without any previous teaching experience. Once there, he did not let his presidency padlock his lips or blind him to the truth that free speech is nowhere more necessary than within academic walls. It is related of him that when he heard, two years ago, that the trustees of Trinity College, North Carolina, had sustained the right of Prof. John Spencer Bassett to express himself in print in accordance with the dictates of conscience, Chancellor Hill called his students together and read them the news, declaring it a memorable event in Southern collegiate history. This it was in truth, since it marked the passing of the day when college professors could be driven from their chairs—as Prof. Andrew Sledd had been the year before—for printing opinions distasteful to a majority of their fellow-citizens.

Chancellor Hill was not content with thus putting himself on record. When, in February last, President Alderman of the University of Virginia was roughly assailed and dubbed a traitor by Senator Bailey for declaring that the South's political leaders of to-day were inferior to the Clays and Calhouns of long ago, Mr. Hill wrote out his views in the form of a plea for tolerance, and published it in the Atlanta *Constitution*. He dared to ask whether there really was freedom of opinion in the South; whether every man who "thought above a whisper" must do so "at the peril of his reputation, or his influence, or at the deadlier risk of having an injury inflicted upon the institution or cause he represents." In Mr. Hill's opinion, President Alderman went too far; to him it was wonderful that the South had so many good men in political life when one considered how unfriendly the situation is to the development of strong leaders—that "deadly paralysis of intellect caused by the enforced unanimity of thought within the lines of one party." Senator Bailey's conduct gave him the text, he declared, for a "warning against that worst evil in our intellectual, social and political and religious life—the illiberality that is ready to inflict the injury of rebuke and ostracism as a penalty for difference of opinion." And, he added: "We all know whence this situation comes. It is one of the entailed curses of slavery," resulting from a unanimous Southern "defence of slavery after the world at large and the thought of the age had entered up judgment of condemnation against it."

Had these words come from the pen of a Northern editor, many others besides Senator Bailey would have wrathfully denounced it. In a Southerner, they implied great courage, as all understand who know what Mr. Hill described as the South's "morbid self-consciousness," its "touch-me-not sensitiveness"—a fundamental defect. It is this absolute domination of a narrow public opinion which is to-day the intellectual undoing of the South. Save at Washington and Lee, at Vanderbilt, at Sewanee, at Trinity, and one or two other colleges, it would stifle freedom of thought and of utterance in the institutions of learning, and drive away men of literary gifts and learning. Before it the press cringes and cowers, when it does not bow down for the sake of gain. Politicians fatten by harping upon it, cheat the people into electing them by basely playing on their prejudices, and predict impossible disaster if there be any break in that paralyzing unanimity of thought which Mr. Hill deplored so manfully. In many of its aspects history is repeating itself: the Southern woman who should dare to-day to teach negroes in the far South, would be as socially dead as was Mrs. Margaret Douglass after her month's imprisonment in Norfolk in January, 1854, for daring to teach free negro children, she being a Southern white woman of good standing.

But there is one difference—a most encouraging and happy one. Where no one could live in the South before 1861 and betray a difference of opinion as to the divine inspiration of slavery, there are more and more men like Walter B. Hill who are speaking out against an abridgment of that liberty of thought and speech which Mr. Hill defined as "the indispensable requisite for the ascertainment of truth." More and more colleges are coming to search for truth in the scientific spirit which knows no metes of section or of nation, or bounds of creed or shibboleth. The same Professor Sledd who was driven from Emory College in 1902 for his *Atlantic Monthly* article, was chosen president of the Florida State University in 1905. If the editor of the *World's Work*, himself a Southerner, is to be believed, the people are more and more beginning to look behind the bogies of the politicians; Mr. Roosevelt's trip South having opened the eyes of thousands who were misled into thinking him an unspeakable villain two years ago. Sooner or later the South will be freed from its voluntary chains, and will grant freedom of thought and freedom of criticism, not only to those who live at a distance, but to its own moral heroes as well.

THE ROUSSEAU REVIVAL.

The revolutionary upheaval in Russia may seem to lend significance to the fact that last year there was begun at Kiev a translation of the complete

works of Jean Jacques Rousseau. Perhaps it does, seeing that the cultivated classes have long been as much at home in French as in the vernacular, which was at one period affectedly displaced as the vehicle of social intercourse for the *bon ton*. On the other hand, when we reflect how much of this voluminous writer's output has by lapse of time become either tedious or obsolete—when one recalls, among other things, his dictionaries of Music and of Botany—a non-selective translation of the *whole* appears rather a literary than a political event; a chapter in the history of the human intellect rather than in the development of human society.

Yet again, in the first volume of the *Annales* of the year-old Geneva Société J.-J. Rousseau, in which we find the above bibliographical item, occurs a letter from Tolstoy, written in French under date of March 7-20, 1905, giving his cordial adhesion to the Society in these terms:

"Since the age of fifteen, Rousseau has been my master. Rousseau and the Gospels have been the two great and beneficent influences in my life. Rousseau does not grow old. Quite recently I happened to reread some of his writings, and I experienced the same sense of elevation of soul and admiration that I did in reading him in my early youth."

Here the circle of communion between the modern apostle of a return to primitive simplicity in living and the author of the 'Discours sur l'origine et les fondements de l'inégalité parmi les hommes' is obviously complete. Indeed, it is almost startling to discover a contemporary mind of the first order confessing to that subjection to the magic stimulus of Rousseau which was felt by Goethe and Schiller, Mme. de Staël, Bernardin de St.-Pierre, Byron, Shelley, Chateaubriand, Lamartine, Pestalozzi, and a host of other geniuses in close succession to the most eloquent of French writers.

Our present concern, however, is not with this theme, but with the manifestation which we have called a revival, though it is really the organized gathering up, in archives and in annual publications and in prospective editions of Rousseau, of the incessant researches concerning the man and his work, in Switzerland and Savoy particularly, which have of late years thrown a flood of light on the dark places of the 'Confessions.' The solid character of the new movement is attested by the scholars and specialists who have founded and will direct the Society, but also emphatically by the volume of *Annales* just issued by the house of A. Jullien at Geneva. Of its contents we shall not undertake a detailed account. Following the history of the foundation, the two leading papers are chapters of forthcoming works, one a memoir (by a descendant) of Dr. Tronchin, for his relations with Rousseau. In this is lucidly revealed the psychology of the detachment of a devoted admirer, at first sympathizing more, through his Puritanism, with Rousseau than with Voltaire; then, after the appearance of 'Émile,' siding with the latter in his open and veiled attacks on Rousseau, from a religious intolerance not shared by the cynic philosopher of Ferney, and creating a situation that justified the half-informed victim in inferring a close conspiracy. The other paper, not inferior in interest and but little in importance, is taken from the captivating memoir, 'Madame de Charrière et ses Amis,' just now issued.

Next to be remarked are some forty pages of unpublished, or hitherto imperfectly printed, fragmentary writings of Rousseau. Among these, the first, "On Women," dates from 1735, in the midst of his formative relations with Mme. de Warens. It is a defence of the sex against its alleged petty figure in the heroic annals of the race. When we read: "First consider women deprived of their liberty by the tyranny of men, and these the masters of everything (for crowns, dignities, offices, the command of armies are wholly in their hands) through seizure from the earliest times by I know not what natural right, which I have never comprehended, and which may well have had no other basis than the strong hand"—we seem to hear that passage from the *Chant du Lévite:* "Sex always either slave or tyrant, whom man by turns oppresses and adores, yet cannot make (or be himself) happy save by allowing her equality with himself." It is still a far cry to 'Émile' and Mary Wollstonecraft's counter 'Vindication of the Rights of Woman.'

Chief curiosity in this rich collection is the unpublished marginal notes by Voltaire written in a prompt copy of 'Émile' in 1762, as evidenced by a fac simile. The general tone is depreciatory, often personally contemptuous and bitter, yet "bon," "très bon," and "excellent" are sometimes extorted; for Voltaire is commenting on the Profession of Faith of a Savoyard Vicar, almost to the exclusion of the rest of the work.

"The Original Score of Rousseau's 'Pygmalion'" deals with a fundamental aspect of the many-sided man. The love of music and the cultivation of it were the constant strand in the web of his existence. Mme. de Charrière wrote that she had always believed it was Rousseau's ear which made him what he was—but with reference to the music of style. This opera dates from 1762 (the year of 'Émile'), and, like the earlier and world-pioneer "Devin du Village," was composed both for the words and for the music by the same brain, but at first, for the music, only in part. The two andantes were Rousseau's; the rest was claimed by a Lyons collaborator, Horace Coignet. Hence some cross-pretensions, which Rousseau finally met by recomposing the whole, and it is this second score, now preserved in the Royal Library at Berlin, which is discussed, with a reproduction, in the *Annales*. Authorship, however, is a consideration secondary to the conception of "Pygmalion," in which the title character does not sing, but speaks and recites, while the interspaces are filled sympathetically by the orchestra. Herr Istel properly couples this exposition of Rousseau's intent with a passage from the article *Récitatif obligé* in the 'Dictionnaire de Musique' (one of many, by the way, which enliven what is now pretty difficult steady reading), that dwells on the immense effectiveness of such coöperation between the actor and the orchestra—the crude germ of Gluck's subsequent practice and of Wagner's magnificent development.

We shall say no more except that the frontispiece to the *Annales* is a carbon print direct from Ramsay's portrait of Rousseau (1766), now in the National Gallery at Edinburgh—one of the two authentic paintings from life and by far the more interesting. On the cover is stamped the herborizing Jean-Jacques, as if in propitiation for a character so vehemently assailed by clergy and Philosophers alike. (So, a little more than a century ago—in 1801—a British engraving after the first mezzotints from Ramsay's portrait commended itself as the effigy of the author not of the 'Contrat Social,' the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' or 'Émile,' but of "Letters on Botany, etc.") But this figure is really the Society's chosen emblem; and M. Eugène Ritter, in his introduction to the *Annales*, disclaiming for the Society any doctrinaire spirit or design of blind hero-worship, shows that it has deliberately passed over all other phases of Rousseau in favor of "the solitary pedestrian, Rousseau pacified and reconciled; the dreamer; bare-headed to the sky, meditating on the posy of wayside flowers and herbs he regards in his hand." "To him all can be grateful for having loved God, love, childhood, and the free and simple life in the midst of nature."

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

BALTIMORE, December 30, 1905.

The programme of the Baltimore and Washington meeting of the American Historical Association, December 26-29, has been devoted almost entirely to American history. Of some twenty-five addresses or papers, only five dealt with other than the American field; and of those five, one—Professor Cheyney's paper on "The England of Our Earliest American Forefathers"—had an obvious American aspect. Such a predominant devotion to domestic matters seems hardly to show the reaction against American history which has come to characterize many of our colleges and uni-

versities, though of the fact of such reaction there can be little doubt; but it is frankly to be regretted that European history, in which an increasing amount of good work is being done in this country, was not more largely represented here. Further, of those who discussed European subjects, only one—Col. William R. Livermore of the United States army, whose paper related to plans for a new atlas of Europe—was a new name at the meetings. Clearly, however, the overshadowing Americanism of the programme did not act as a deterrent, for the sessions were well attended, and the meeting as a whole must be reckoned, both in numbers and in interest, one of the best ever held. As for the hospitality of those who received the Association as their guest, it was both gracious and abounding.

Professor McMaster, the first of the professorial presidents of whom the Association seems to have prepared a long line, chose for his address the alluring subject, "Old Standards of Public Morals." Those, however, who had anticipated some more or less obvious reference to current phases of public morality were disappointed, for Professor McMaster confined himself mainly to an historical presentation of certain striking instances, such as those afforded by religious intolerance, the cruel punishment of crime, and the repudiation of public debt, in which the moral shortcomings of our forefathers in America were only too painfully exhibited. Particularly effective, because in part more novel, was his condemnation of the bad faith of Congress in repudiating the Continental paper currency, for whose redemption the faith of Congress and of the country had repeatedly been pledged, and of the three generations of evasion and delay which characterized the treatment by Congress of the French spoliation claims.

Of the formal papers, two may be singled out for special mention. In a notably lucid and well-ordered paper, Prof. Ralph C. H. Catterall of Cornell traced in detail the part taken by Neuville, the French minister to the United States, in the negotiation of the Florida treaty of 1819. Neuville early pointed out in his dispatches the certainty that the United States would sooner or later have the Floridas, and with them, probably, a considerable extension of its territory west of the Mississippi; the only real question being when the appropriation would be made and how much would be taken. Spanish procrastination, joined to American persistence in the person of John Quincy Adams, eventually brought negotiations to a dangerous pause; and but for Neuville the treaty could hardly have been concluded at all, or war between the United States and Spain avoided. The paper was a good illustration of the wealth of important material still buried in diplomatic archives at home and abroad. Prof. William A. Dunning of Columbia, on the other hand, traversed the contention that the Republican party, whose alleged semi-centennial was celebrated with acclaim in 1904, is historically the Republican party of 1854. Whatever the traits by which a political party is to be defined, the facts seem to be that the Republican party of the late fifties and early sixties underwent a "new birth" in 1867 and 1868, through which, though retaining the old name, it came to occupy new ground and to profess new principles. Here, again, as in Professor Catterall's paper, was the indication of a large field—in this case that of party history—as yet little tilled.

The other papers on the programme—a few of which, unfortunately, were not read—covered a wide area, those in American history paying special attention to the South. Virginia and the English colonial system, 1730-1735; why North Carolina at first refused to ratify the Federal Constitution; Marshall and the Virginia Supreme Court; the freedmen's savings bank; Avalon and the colonial projects of George Calvert; and the theatre and combatants of the civil war, were among the topics treated with more or less fulness. Two of the papers on other than American topics have already been referred to; besides these, special mention may be made of Prof. A. C. McGiffert's paper on the rise of the modern conception of the Divine immanence, and that of Prof. J. H. Robinson of Columbia on recent tendencies in the study of the French Revolution.

Ever since the publication of the report of the Committee of Seven, the Association has maintained a lively interest in the teaching of history in colleges and schools, and the conference this year on the first year of college work in history was largely attended. The accounts of the methods pursued at different institutions showed, to be sure, much diversity of practice as well as wide difference in material equipment and resource; but there was substantial agreement upon the necessity of first of all interesting the young student in the subject, and of laying a sure foundation of historical method. The preceptorial system at Princeton received attractive, if not entirely convincing, exposition at the hands of Mr. Hiram Bingham, himself a preceptor; while Prof. H. Morse Stephens's plea for greater attention to the formal lecture touched one of the weakest spots in our present scheme of historical instruction. Doubtless it is given to few teachers to win and hold the interest of young men with the success which Professor Stephens himself happily enjoys, or which Prof. J. Lewis Diman achieved at Brown a generation and more ago; but the steady decline, in both literary and scholastic power, of the university lecture in this country is surely matter of serious import.

The varied activities of the Association continue with undiminished vigor. The Historical Manuscripts Commission will henceforth confine itself to the publication of such papers in private hands as are not likely to appear through other channels, leaving to the Bureau of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution the task of making available the larger, more public, or more widely scattered collections. The Public Archives Commission is making steady headway with its great task of investigating the character and condition of State and local records, submitting this year reports on the State archives of Michigan and Wisconsin, the French archives of Illinois, and the local records of Georgia. Prof. Charles M. Andrews of Bryn Mawr and Herbert L. Osgood of Columbia, as a sub-committee of this Commission, are overseeing the transcription of papers in the Public Record Office for the Library of Congress—an undertaking which, if carried to completion, will eventually make accessible at Washington copies of all important documents in European repositories relating to America. Towards the State and local historical societies the Association can never, of course, hold any official relation, but such conferences as were held last year and this, in connection with the annual meeting, contribute appreciably to effective coöperation as well as to good fellowship. The membership of the Association grows apace, exceeding now 2,500, while the financial gain is, as usual, satisfactory. The meeting in 1906 is to be held at Providence, in connection with the meetings of the American Political Science Association and the American Economic Association.

INDUSTRY AND TAXES IN FRANCE.

TOURS, November, 1905.

The rapidity with which countries, even when devastated as thoroughly as the Palatinate, recover from the ravages of war, has led economists to compute the accumulated wealth of the civilized world as amounting to no more than three or four times the annual production. How comes it, then, that, in a country like France, where population is stationary, and where peace has prevailed for more than a generation, the condition of the peasantry has so little improved? Their industry is incessant; not always directed most effectively, but in the main intelligently, and often attaining a high degree of perfection. Their toil is not only assiduous—even the women not ceasing to knit when they are gossiping—but also severe. Even with antiquated methods, the product of such enormous—one might almost say such terrible—industry should raise the laborers to affluence. Yet in the most fertile parts, such as those watered by the Indre and the Loire, the life of the peasants seems not much better than what we read of in the descriptions of the times before the Revolution. The habitations, both of man and beast, are generally the identical ones then used; because of their solid construction not needing much repair, but inconvenient, dark, cramped, and generally the worse for wear. People stump and clatter about in wooden shoes, and their ordinary garments are of coarse cotton cloth. They are starved with cold, for they have little material for fire, except their pitiful fagots of brushwood and dead limbs, such as in our country are burned as rubbish. To be sure, their cooking is a small matter; the baker does most of it (and very well, too), and not much fuel is needed to stew a few vegetables and boil that mysterious substance called coffee. As there is little reading, artificial illumination is not of so much importance; but it is painful to see the women bending over their needlework in their struggle to discern the stitches by a feeble lamp. Probably the standard of life is higher than it appears, for the French peasant has been taught by centuries of oppression to be secretive, and he may have invisible resources; but it is not what his labor would justify. He has much comfort in his wine, even if it is only the poorest that he keeps for himself, and a meagre pleasure in the vile tobacco provided by the Government's monopoly—a pleasure lessened by the viler matches likewise purveyed; but he does not get his deserts.

What becomes of the product of his in-

dustry? In part, the eye gives answer. The magnificent châteaux, the costly churches, the enormous convents, show what was done under the feudal system; and the vast casernes thronged with myriads of peasant lads in blue coats and red trousers show what is done now. This half-million of able-bodied men, withdrawn from productive industry, must be fed and clothed and housed and officered by the labor of perhaps twice that number of workmen—a burden of appalling magnitude. The naval establishment, although on a smaller scale and less conspicuous, is also an enormous burden. The employees in the navy yards, exercising a dubious right, have formed unions, and recently struck work because some of their number had been disciplined for denouncing militarism. The Government, depending for its existence on the workmen's votes, was obliged to justify its denial of the right to strike on the ground that its employees were a favored class. Other workmen must toil ten or twelve hours; its workmen only eight. Other workmen are laid off when they are not needed; its workmen are paid whether there is anything to do or not. Other workmen are liable to be dismissed by their masters; its workmen hold their places until they are of an age to retire on their pensions, which are payable also to their widows and children, and are twice as large as those offered to outside workmen by the bill now pending. Under these circumstances, the ordinary workingman can hardly be expected to think that the employees of the Government need the right to strike.

Further evidence is afforded to the senses in the enormous public buildings that have sprung up in the towns, large and small, flaunting extravagance in their gaudy architecture. Here in Tours, for example, there is not only the vast Préfecture, but also, in addition to many other buildings, an enormous, and enormously expensive, new Hôtel de Ville. The population of the town is 65,000; but this building would be sufficient for the proper administration of a town ten times as large. Many of the railroads, constructed by the Government or with its guaranty, are obviously unprofitable; and even the roads, brought through centuries of labor very nearly to perfection, often bear signs of the stupidity and extravagance of a centralized administration. Yet here, we must concede, the peasant receives something like an equivalent for his tax, and it is pleasant to see the draft horses so aided in their work. As to the schools maintained by the Government, it is hard to make out that they increase the intelligence of the common people; and the quality of the teaching is bitterly complained of. Still, the ability to read and write is worth paying for, and may be said to be cheap at any price.

But the great burdens upon industry are not disclosed to the eye. To understand them it is necessary to study the history of France for five centuries, to compute the debts which represent the price of military glory, and to examine the details of the terribly intricate system of taxation which now prevails. It is unnecessary to dwell on the results of a protective tariff. France is naturally a poor country. The soil is in many regions sterile, the forests are inferior, and there is little mineral wealth. But it has a population capable of intelligent industry, capable of giving to matter attractive and beautiful forms. To such a country free importation would be peculiarly advantageous, resulting not only in large exportation, but also in better conditions of life. France is poor in coal, but the coal of England is easily accessible, and if it could be imported freely the stimulus to many forms of industry would be great. Could sugar be imported freely, no people could manipulate it with greater skill than the French; but the miserable history of the beet-sugar industry is notorious. The careful investigations of M. Zolla indicate that the tariff enhanced the price of wheat from 1896 to 1900 by four francs the hectolitre; and bread is the staff of life in France. M. Caillaux (former minister of finance) considers that the protective tariff imposes a burden of probably two milliards of francs on the consumer.

It may be added that before the Government monopolized the making of matches, the exports of that article amounted to eight millions of francs a year. With the growth of trade during the last thirty-five years, these exports might well have attained to twenty or thirty millions. They amounted in 1904 to less than forty thousand francs! Sometimes the Government fails to furnish the requisite supply, and Belgian matches, of better quality than the French, are bought at a cost of 130 francs the million. The cost of making that number in the Government shop is 180 francs, and this does not include the charge for pensioning the workmen when they retire. These posts in the shops of the Government are apportioned, of course, as political favors, and those who yield them usually succeed in keeping the office in the family.

If the tariff taxes are ruinous, what shall be said of the internal imposts? To try to number them would be vain; they begin with the birth of the child, cover his every act in life, and fall on his estate after his death. The system of petty entails established at the Revolution, and the restriction of testamentary disposition, compel the division of land into fractions, or its sale at a ruinous expense. After the onerous taxes on these operations are paid, the portion of the widow, should the estate going to her equal $200,000, is taxed $14,000; that of the children, should they succeed, $6,000—to say nothing of the enormous legal charges affecting the complicated process. Of course, gifts during life are taxed to correspond, and transfers of property of every description are so costly as to discourage every form of investment. Every transaction requires the use of stamped paper; and for fear that enough may not be used, the number of lines, as well as the size of the page, is prescribed. The complexity of the system is so frightful that professional aid is constantly required. A body of intermediaries, charged with applications made to the various bureaus, has grown up, and their existence has been recently recognized by the law, the annual value of their offices being placed at 100 millions. The number of claims arising from a single department of taxation, the direct contributions, averages over 300,000 a year. The amount of annoyance and distress expressed by such figures cannot be measured in money, but it represents a terrible economic loss. Any one accustomed to watch for opportunities for investment can see that France requires many things that capital would be glad to furnish. Outside of Paris, even in large towns, the conditions of life are frequently rather primitive, and it would apparently be profitable to improve them. But when one ascertains the number and extent of the taxes on corporations, their capital, their obligations, and their ordinary proceedings, there is little inducement to invest in any French enterprise—unless one can obtain a subvention from the Government. The expense of transferring title to a piece of property often equals two years' income therefrom. This is the reason why the French have taken so many hundred millions of Russian bonds. From political considerations the French Government does not tax these bonds, and it has seemed preferable to obtain a return of four or five per cent. in this way, rather than to encounter the exasperating obstructions of the fiscal régime at home.

The industry of France has thus to support not only the army of soldiers, but also the equally large army of public functionaries. The total of the budgets is probably not less than four milliards; the service of the national debt, together with the pensions, costing 1,300 millions. To some extent the national debt, to a greater extent the debt of the minor political organizations, represents productive investment. But by far the greater part stands for losses incurred in war and in preparation for war. The interest paid on this debt brings no return to the country; it means that those who draw it render no service to production. Under the republic this debt has steadily increased, and there is always a deficit. The deficiency cannot be covered by new taxes, for it is doubtful if higher taxation would bring in more revenue. Every one shudders at the budget, but the Government will not economize, and it must therefore borrow. To go to war would mean national bankruptcy, and the great army of office-holders is interested to maintain itself, and throws its influence with that of the *rentiers* in favor of peace. The evils of the situation are clearly understood, and the remedies are known; but, as I have said, the Government will not economize. To explain why would make this letter too long; but the difficulty is stated by M. Caillaux. "Mettre un terme aux privilèges. Or, c'est la chose la plus difficile qui soit dans un pays où les classes qui détiennent le pouvoir ou en approchent ont toujours déployé une sauvage énergie pour défendre les abus dont elles bénéficient." MacG.

Correspondence.

"THE COLUMBIAN IDEA."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Anent Mr. Penniman's note in your issue of December 21, permit me to say that the practice of allowing students to carry extra courses and to graduate on the completion of the required work is not confined to Eastern universities. This custom has been in vogue in the University of Iowa for fifteen years, though it has never been

styled the "Iowa Idea." However, it is our policy to grant this privilege to those students only who have proved their capacity to do this added work and maintain high scholarship. For the average student, four full years in the university atmosphere, employed with strictly undergraduate courses unmixed with technical or professional studies, is quite brief enough.

AMOS N. CURRIER.

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, December 26, 1905.

KEATS'S PAYNIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am gratified at having been pilloried in the *Nation* (November 23, 1905) for my rash attempt to emend a line of Keats; inasmuch as the incident has called forth the interesting comments of Dr. Garnett in your issue of December 21—this, even though I find myself classed, for my lack of understanding, with the French translator who rendered "Paynims" by "prêtres." But I must disclaim the imputation of having thought that "clasp'd" (the line reads, "Clasp'd like a missal where swart Paynims pray") here means "embraced." The rejected variants, "Shut like a missal," and "Like a shut missal," recorded in Buxton Forman's edition, are sufficient commentary. Nor does it seem to me that Leigh Hunt fell into any such error. The head and front of my offending is simply this, that, in view of Keats's somewhat erratic spelling, I suggested in *Modern Language Notes* (September, 1905) that "pray" might be really an error of the pen for "prey," especially as Keats must have seen the word regularly so printed in the text of his favorite Spenser. To my poor judgment, "prey" seemed a more likely reading than "pray," in that it calls up the image of the Paynims in what is in all romance their characteristic aspect, that of enemies of Christendom.

All that is unselfish in me is gratified even at the pillorying itself, for "Philologus" certainly afforded the readers of the *Nation* mirth, albeit at my expense. It is something to have added to the gayety of the *Nation*.

W. STRUNK, JR.

ITHACA, N. Y., December 26, 1905.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF MUSEUMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The policy of æsthetic management of museums of fine arts, which you advocate in your editorial entitled "Two Theories of Museum Policy" (*Nation*, No. 2113), appears to me beset with dangers. The primary function of a museum of fine arts is, I conceive, to make accessible a wide range of materials—chiefly works of art of past ages (contemporaneous art being accessible enough outside of museums). The objects in museum collections ought to be, as far as possible, well lighted, arranged in their natural groups, properly catalogued, and properly cared for. Beyond this, museum management ought not, I think, to go. To influence choice as to what should be studied, any further than to include only objects which have stood the test of time and are thus recognized by a general consensus of opinion as of standard quality, appears to me questionable, and even hazardous. The proposed æsthetic policy would undertake to direct choice. It would assume that the intelligence of the public cannot be trusted, and that museum directors are competent to direct choice wisely. But certainly, at least in the present confused state of ideas on the fine arts, no director, or body of directors, can be safely entrusted with any such function. Neither personal nor corporate preferences ought to be imposed on the public. To cull out of a large collection a few objects that a given body of administrative officers may consider most worthy of display, and to arrange these on supposed æsthetic principles, about which there would be an endless variety of opinions, appears to me objectionable on all grounds.—Yours very truly,

CHARLES H. MOORE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., December 30, 1905.

Notes.

The Macmillan Co. have just issued the first volume of 'Supplementary Papers of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome.' This series is made necessary by the fact that it is not possible to find room for all the material in the *American Journal of Archæology*. The volume contains papers by the director of the school, Prof. Richard Norton; by Mr. Thomas Ashby jr., the vice-director of the British School in Rome; by Dr. Arthur Mahler, lecturer in the American School, as well as by several of the fellows and students. The price is three dollars, and correspondence with reference to it may be addressed to the publishers, or to Prof. Samuel Ball Platner, Western Reserve University, the secretary of the committee.

Quicquid delirant reges, plectuntur the editors of the *Almanach de Gotha*, whose 143d issue is before us (Lemcke & Buechner). Both Russia and Japan had warring hands too full to extend the usual statistical courtesies to this most respectable of year-books. Even the financial minister's annual financial report had to be procured from Tokyo through the German legation. The editors were mighty curious, also, as to Japan's strictly honorable intentions towards Korea, but going to press was imperative at an hour too early for the news of the protectorate. The little trouble between Sweden and Norway and the doubt as to the new King further heightened the *Almanach's* perplexities as a faithful, up-to-date chronicle. The four regulation portraits this year are all German—the newly-wedded Prince and Princess Imperial and Duke and Duchess of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

The plain form of Ginn & Co.'s "Standard English Classics" suits very well the chunky volume of 'Henry Esmond,' edited for school use by Hamilton B. Moore. As all the apparatus, save a brief introduction, is at the end, the reader will not be conscious of using a text-book, though now and again he may gladly resort to the judicious notes.

Three historic New England families are interwoven in a quaint little output of the Merrymount Press, Boston, entitled 'The Course of True Love in Colonial Times: Being the Confessions of William Palfrey of Boston and the Friendly Advice of Moses Brown of Providence concerning Polly Olney.' The letters are in the possession of the Rhode Island Historical Society. The chief writer was grandfather of the historian Palfrey, less well remembered than his brother-Mason Moses Brown, though his rank and services during the Revolution were conspicuous; but this little tragedy, ending, as the advertisements at the end show, in Thomas Greene's getting Polly, and Palfrey solacing himself with Sally Cazneau, was enacted in 1761-4. The booklet has been happily conceived by editor and printer.

The innumerable tribe of the Pilgrim father John Alden is partially illustrated in a thin volume, noticeably free from padding, very businesslike, very candid in keeping within the region of the known rather than the traditional, entitled 'The Descendants of Polly and Ebenezer Alden,' and prepared in two sections by their grandsons, Ebenezer Alden and Henry Shaw, M.D. The prefatory chapter on Alden history is made valuable by several unpublished documents, especially a deed of Deborah Allen's in 1789, which indispensably straightens out the pedigree. Some autographs of the *Mayflower* Pilgrims are given. These excellences are offset by a mode of reference from father to son truly antiquated. New England genealogists of the first rank have established a system not to be improved upon, and we regret that it has been discarded in this instance. The publishers are George H. Ellis & Co., Boston.

We trust that the group of tourists whom Mr. Charles Gibson has bundled about 'Among French Inns' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.) are not really typical of their respective nationalities. His conventional rich American couple, with a marriageable daughter and three foreign suitors in tow, lend no added charm to travel in France; they are, indeed, the very kind of wanderers the real traveller will with alacrity avoid. The guide-book information with which the story is interrupted, is generally sound; the illustrative photographs are successful. But we see no *raison d'être* for such sage remarks as that "Men and women, under the cardinal influence of love, are not as others, and may not be judged as they are" (p. 307).

Miss Wormeley's 'Portraits of the Eighteenth Century' (Putnams), translated and adapted from Sainte-Beuve, include some of the critic's most complete studies, such as Lesage, Montesquieu, Voltaire, etc., for the most part accurately rendered, and disposed in such fashion as to convey a general impression of the interesting pre-Revolutionary epoch. On page 82, however, the omission of the first clause robs the following epigram of its point: "*On nous réconcilia*, nous nous embrassâmes, et depuis ce temps-là nous sommes ennemis mortels." In the article on Madame Geoffrin, the expression, "un homme *d'esprit*" applied to the Abbé Trublet, should not be rendered "a man of intellect" (p. 397). Scherer's judicial essay on Sainte-Beuve introduces this collection.

In the translation of Mme. Arvède Barine's excellent work, 'Louis XIV. et la Grande Mademoiselle' (Putnams), fair justice is done to the original; with a few apparently inevitable lapses, however, which seem to indicate slackened attention. Who, for instance, are the *Euridite* (p. 63) consulted in regard to Mazarin's supposed marriage? The French text is *les Érudits*. Charles II. (p. 137) *guards* a grudge, because

the original says *gardait*. "The peasants of Eu were *deranged* in their work of moles" (p. 163) is certainly not English. We do not wish to carp over trifles, but inaccuracies of this sort have still their excuse to find.

Dr. Carl Schnabel's 'Handbook of Metallurgy' for all the useful metals except iron was first issued in 1894, and the English translation of Henry Lewis followed in 1895. The first volume of the second German edition came out in 1901, and has just appeared in translation by the same author (Macmillan). The second volume of the English translation of the second German edition, which appeared last year, is promised in 1906. It is the best book of its kind, and that is the best that can be said of it. Any single treatise covering so wide a field as universal metallurgy must be a compilation, and all compilations must of necessity contain much irrelevant and incorrect material. The arts are progressing so rapidly, and their practice is becoming so specialized, that few men are competent to tell the whole story of such an intricate and diversified subject as the treatment of all the metals; and if any man were competent, while writing it most of what was new when he began would be old ere he had finished. It is true that antiquated methods may be historically interesting and useful in the discussion of principles, but a handbook which should undertake to deal intelligibly and exhaustively with theoretical as well as practical details, would extend into far more than two volumes, and would cease to be a handbook. Nevertheless, Professor Schnabel's two volumes constitute a useful textbook, replacing Crook and Ruhrig's edition of Bruno Kerl, now quite out of date, and Percy's famous series of treatises, in which metallurgy was treated theoretically and experimentally. These are not only out of date, but out of print. This first volume of the second German edition treats, as did that of the first edition, of the metallurgy of copper, lead, silver, and gold. In the section on copper, greater space is given than in the first edition to two departments which have of late years acquired increased importance, namely, the pneumatic method (the Bessemer) of concentrating copper mattes, and the refining of copper electrolytically. But in the section devoted to lead, nothing in the second edition is added to what appeared in the first except a few paragraphs on the smelting of mixed ores and the manufacture of some merchantable lead compounds. Even such an improvement as the Heberlein process is not referred to. In the description of gold processes the cyanide method and its application, especially in the Transvaal, are treated with fuller detail than in the first edition.

The *Geographical Journal* for December contains the suggestive address of Sir C. R. Markham at the opening of the new term of the School of Geography at Cambridge University, on the sphere and uses of geography. He sketches the development of "the mother of all sciences," and, with interesting illustrations from facts, shows its importance in settling international questions as to boundaries, in explaining history and developing commerce and industry. Dr. Nansen discusses the problems presented by the oscillations of shore lines, and remarks in conclusion that the evidence seems to indicate that the level of the ocean has, on the whole, risen somewhat during late geological times. This article, and L. C. Bernacchi's account of the physical observations conducted on the National Antarctic Expedition, are accompanied by a full report of the discussions following their presentation to the Royal Geographical Society. Lieut.-Col. Delme-Radcliffe describes most graphically the western part of Uganda, its people, animals, and more especially its botany, and Mr. Ravenstein contributes a biographical notice of the late eminent geographer, Baron von Richthofen.

Substantial progress in Asia is indicated by two noteworthy incidents in the tour of the Prince of Wales in India. Among his guests at the great camp at Rawalpindi on December 7 was the Grand Lama of Tibet, the spiritual sovereign of the Buddhists since the flight of the Dalai Lama of Lassa to Urga in Russian Mongolia. That he should undertake a journey of more than 2,000 miles to greet the Prince, shows that the opening of Tibet is an accomplished fact, and that the century-old seclusion in which her ruler lived is no longer enforced. Two days after this reception, at a banquet given the Prince at Satwari, the Maharaja of Kashmir announced his intention of establishing a State College for the benefit of all classes and creeds among his subjects, and asked permission to name it the Prince of Wales College. This native prince, it may be added, is also building an electric railway, the motive power being furnished by the River Jehlam.

In the *Globus*, Dr. Goldberg of Wilna furnished some interesting language statistics of the five million Jews of Russia, according to which they constitute a national and linguistic contingent unassimilable with the general body politic. Their language is the "Yiddish," the well-known composite or jargon based on the German, but with Russian and Hebrew admixture. The writer asserts with a show of statistics that 976 out of every 1,000 Jews in Russia speak this dialect. Only 65,000 Jews make use of the Russian and 98,000 of the Polish tongue. He declares that the Jews as a body show not the slightest indication of assimilation with the State in which they live.

The Berlin papers report that the Royal Library in that city is already giving evidence of the management of the new General Director, Professor Harnack. Changes in the rules regarding the time during which books may be kept, a decrease in the fines imposed on delinquents, the introduction of a system of notification in case books are not returned promptly, the opening of the entire library to the student body, and similar innovations show that the purpose is to expand the usefulness of this great institution.

The papyri found in the University Library of Strassburg, one of the best collections in Europe, are now to be thoroughly examined and catalogued by Dr. Preisigke. The *Vossische Zeitung* states that he has already begun the task, though he cannot give it his undivided attention, as his profession is that of telegraph director; yet he has promised to publish the first *Heft* soon after New Year's. The collection is particularly rich in documents from the period of the Ptolemies. The next best collection of papyri in Germany is found in Heidelberg, and here Dr. Gerhard has been engaged in cataloguing for months. As first-fruits Dr. Deissmann has published a beautiful edition of Septuagint fragments, and these are to be followed by other documents.

Hitherto it has been generally accepted that the oldest recorded reference to the use of stenography among the ancients was in a papyrus found by Grenfell and Hunt, dating from the year 155 A. D. In the tenth *Heft* of the *Archiv für Stenographie*, however, Dr. Priesigke describes a reference of a much earlier date. In the new Oxyrhynchus finds a letter has been discovered written by a certain Dionysius to his sister Didyme, dated the 15th of November, 27 A. D., in which he complains that she writes to him neither in the ordinary nor in short hand.

On December 15 a dinner was given by the history tutors of Balliol College in honor of Mr. R. L. Poole and of the twentieth year of his connection with the *English Historical Review*. A remarkably representative gathering of its contributors assembled to the number of nearly 150. Men predominated numerically only, since the activity of the women contributors has been a remarkably conspicuous feature of the *Review*, and many of these were present. The dinner gave occasion for the presentation of what Mr. Poole appreciatively designated in returning thanks as "splendid trophies." Mr. James Bryce, who tendered them, spoke not as the new-fledged Irish Secretary, but as the writer of 'The Holy Roman Empire.' Indeed, it was Mr. Bryce who, with the late J. R. Green, conceived the need for an historical Review nineteen years before he joined Mr. Poole and others in actually founding one—the one which all know. Mr. Bryce was followed by the Regius Professor of Modern and the Camden Professor of Ancient History, and by others as well as the Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence. It was universally acknowledged to be most fitting that Balliol College, where the teaching of history has been developed upon such unusually solid lines since the founding of the *Review*, should gather within its walls all the scholars, wherever trained, who have recently illustrated English historical study—the more so, no doubt, because Mr. Poole, now a fellow elsewhere, spent his undergraduate days at Balliol.

Elsewhere we have spoken of the Swiss Société Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and we bespeak membership in it for every public library in the country. The *Annales* alone will more than repay the very moderate yearly fee of twelve francs, while putting all Rousseau students abreast of the progress of research and publication. The president is Prof. Bernard Bouvier; the treasurer, M. Alfred Cartier, 11 Boulevard des Philosophes, Geneva.

—The Caxton Club of Chicago has recently broken away from its custom of issuing chiefly books of interest to collectors and students of Americana, and begun to put forth works that are of direct value to collectors and bibliophiles *per se*. Last spring we had occasion to notice Mr. E. Grant Duff's monograph on William Caxton, and a few months ago a translation, by Miss Mabel McIlvaine, of M. Octave Uzanne's 'French Bookbindings' appeared under the auspices

of this club. Its latest publication is Mr. A. W. Pollard's 'Essay on Colophons,' with an introduction by Richard Garnett, which presumably will prove to be most practically useful of all its publications. Dr. Garnett tells of the origin and meaning of the word, and shows how the custom of adding colophons to early printed books, giving the title, the name of the author and printer or publisher, and the place and date of printing, was adopted, like so many other technicalities, from the practice of the scribes, and points out its significance in the history of early printing, and the need of studying it. "It is no unimportant matter," he says, "for every determination of the locality of an early book is a paragraph added to the history of the culture of the country where it originated." To offer an introduction to such study is the purpose of Mr. Pollard's essay. It is virtually a collection of colophons, in original and translation, connected by a slender (but by no means too slender) thread of comment, and grouped under such heads as "Colophons at Mainz"; "Colophons at Venice"; "Printers' Colophons"; "Colophons of Authors and Editors." They are arranged, in each group, so as to show their value as materials for the study of printing and publishing, and the author's comment serves to bring out their salient points; for instance, where he shows from the colophons of four books printed by Jenson in Venice that one of them contains an error in the date of imprint. The last chapter is wholly devoted to the subject of "Dates in Colophons," and contains some useful tables, such as lists of popes, kings of England and France, and doges of Venice during the latter part of the fifteenth and the major part of the sixteenth centuries, and the dates of Easter Day from 1470 to 1521. The book was printed at the DeVinne Press, in fine shape, and contains several facsimiles.

—The first volume of Albert H. Smyth's 'Writings of Benjamin Franklin' (Macmillan) outlines the plan of the work, and contains a sketch of Franklin's many activities. As the third general compilation of Franklin's writings, it must stand against the work of Sparks and Bigelow; and if the promises made are performed, it will surpass in scope and in utility these earlier issues. The editorial vagaries of Sparks are to be corrected, and a return had to the original manuscripts, wherever found. A more careful examination of original sources, for which Mr. Smyth has exceptional opportunities and a sharpened critical sense, will enable him to correct the errors of Bigelow and add to the quantity of available Franklin material. Above all, the Franklin Papers in the American Philosophical Society, comprising some 13,000 documents, will now be studied for the first time in connection with such a compilation, and this study already bears fruit in the side-lights thrown on Franklin's productions. Yet Mr. Smyth does not promise to use all that Franklin wrote. He rejects the essays on free thought and on earthquakes as too crude and immature; he will omit what Franklin said of the effect of the diurnal motion of the earth on the length of sea voyages; and, while printing the pamphlet prepared by Jackson and Franklin, he will not include the "Historical Review of the Constitution and Government of Pennsylvania." The idea recently advanced by Bigelow, that the speech attributed to Jonathan Shipley was the work of Franklin, is not accepted, for very good reasons. But 385 letters and forty articles not previously printed by any editor will atone for omissions. The claims of Franklin as an economist are examined. He anticipated Turgot in the explanation of natural interest, and Malthus in one feature of the theory of population. He followed Petty in a labor theory of value, and the Physiocrats in believing agriculture to be the only legitimate source of wealth. He was a free-trader, and Mr. Smyth quotes from a hitherto unknown letter to Collinson (1764): "In time perhaps mankind may be wise enough to let trade take its own course, find its own channels, and regulate its own Proportions, etc. At present most of the Edicts of Princes, Placærts, Laws and Ordinances of Kingdoms and States for that purpose, prove political blunders. The advantages they produce not being *general* for the Commonwealth; but *particular*, to private persons or bodies in the State who procured them, and at the expense of the rest of the people." The editor points out that the political and economic writings of Franklin were in the nature of campaign pamphlets, written for a particular occasion rather than to embody a general view or theory of the matter treated. This in no degree takes away from the merit of these pieces, which are replete with sound maxims. No little stylistic repetition is to be found, and Mr. Smyth counted seventy-three repetitions of "industry and frugality" without exhausting the number of times the phrase occurred. This volume contains the autobiography, the complete text of Bigelow being used. We have noted a few slips in proofreading—"Simancos" for *Simancas*, "Whatly" for *Whately*, and the "Duc de" Nemours where Dupont de Nemours is clearly intended.

—We have before us a pamphlet, by Mr. Joseph De Perott, entitled 'The Probable Source of the Plot of Shakspere's "Tempest,"' which was issued in October as No. 8 in the first volume of "Publications of the Clark University Library" (Worcester, Mass.). We confess we do not see how even so guarded an adjective as "probable" is applicable in a case where the unbiassed reader requires some moments of reflection to detect any resemblance at all. The supposed source is a Spanish romance of chivalry called 'Espejo de Principes y Caballeros,' which in its original form was published at Saragossa in 1562, and of which two successive continuations by different hands appeared in the course of the next thirty years. The work was translated into English, as "The Mirrour of Princely Deedes and Knighthood,' in nine volumes, which were issued at intervals between 1579 and 1601. It was also translated into French under the title of 'Le Chevalier du Soleil,' a copy of which work is to be found in the Congressional Library at Washington. Neither the Spanish nor the English form of the romance seems to be accessible in this country, and Mr. De Perott's discussion is based on the French version. As already intimated, this scholar in our judgment fails entirely to establish his main thesis. The pamphlet, nevertheless, has a certain interest as offering a new and undoubted parallel—from the same Spanish romance—to the cardinal incident of the plot of another one of Shakspere's plays, viz., "Much Ado About Nothing." We refer to the incident of the impersonation of Hero by her maid in that play. To be sure, the version of this story in the Spanish romance is not only not original, being probably based on the similar episode of Ariodante and Ginevra in Ariosto's 'Orlando Furioso,' but is, on the whole, inferior in its variant features. Nevertheless, it will have to be mentioned among the parallels in any future treatise dealing with the sources of Shakspere's plays, although certainly not itself a source, as, with a discoverer's enthusiasm, Mr. De Perott claims it to be.

—Inasmuch as the pamphlet in question is not likely to come into the hands of many of our readers, we will say that the main feature of the story in this Spanish version is that the Don John of the plot (here called Robert, Duke of Saxony), being himself in love with Policena, a princess of Austria (who corresponds to Hero), bribes a female attendant of this lady to personate her mistress, and in his own behalf plays the rôle which is assigned to Borachio in "Much Ado About Nothing." So far the author apparently is simply following Ariosto. Instead of making the successful rival, however, the witness of the pretended shame of his lady-love, as we have it in Shakspere and Ariosto, and as a proper dramatic interest requires, in the Spanish romance the villain arranges that three knights shall be present, who afterwards support with their testimony the accusations against Policena's honor made by their chief. Unlike Claudio and Ariodante, however, the lover in the Spanish story, Luciano, never wavers in his faith in the innocence of his mistress. He denounces her accusers before the King as traitors, and it is decided that the question shall be settled by a combat between the principals, assisted by their knights. In this combat Luciano triumphs, and his rival is forced to confess his villany. It is hardly necessary to point out that the story in "Much Ado About Nothing" is closer to Ariosto than to the Spanish romance, although the majority of Shaksperian students are hardly inclined to accept even Ariosto as the immediate source of the story of Hero, as Mr. De Perott seems to assume.

—'Who killed Sir Edmund Berry Godfrey?' is a question which has frequently been asked, but it is reserved for Mr. Alfred Marks to use it as the title of a book (Burns & Oates). No one writing on a great historical mystery can avoid the tone of a controversialist, and in the case of Godfrey's assassination the evidence of the seventeenth century is so open to suspicion that every incentive is given the ingenious mind to work out a new hypothesis, or to defend an old hypothesis by novel arguments. In opening this little study by Mr. Marks, one thinks at once of Mr. John Pollock's book on the 'Popish Plot'; and though perhaps we should not be justified in styling the present essay a set answer to Mr. Pollock, it is to all intents and purposes a rejoinder. According to Mr. Pollock's view,

the evidence of Bedloe and Prance regarding Godfrey's murder in Somerset House cannot be set aside, despite the discrepancy of these two witnesses in point of detail. The 'Popish Plot,' he further maintains, was not wholly a ghastly hoax, but took its rise from a genuine attempt of the Papists to capture the Government of England. "Some truth there was, but dashed and brewed with lies," says Dryden; and Mr. Pollock, while not so paradoxical as to defend the testimony of Oates and his fellow, considers that in Coleman's correspondence with Père La Chaise may be found proof of definite and treasonable plotting. Godfrey came to his end through Jesuit instigation because, by accident, he had gained possession of a secret which, if revealed, would have cost the Duke of York his last chance of succession to the Crown, and perhaps his life.

—Mr. Marks's attitude toward the plot is altogether different. In his opinion Godfrey was not and could not have been killed in Somerset House, and all the arguments which can be collected to show that he had an erratic and melancholy disposition are marshalled in favor of his suicide. Not only does Mr. Marks strike at Mr. Pollock's version of the case so far as the testimony of Bedloe and Prance is concerned, but he scouts the notion that Godfrey was in possession of a fatal secret. "Every Christian community, from the Catholic to the Muggletonian, applies to itself the divine command, 'Go ye into all the world and preach the Gospel to every creature.' . . . But what we have to consider when we are asked, Was there a popish plot? is not, Was there a design to convert England? but, Was there a conspiracy to murder the King, and to massacre Protestants, to burn London, to overrun England with foreign armies?" If there were no plot of this description, there could have been no special motive for taking Godfrey's life. Further considerations in favor of the suicide theory Mr. Marks derives from the opinion of a surgical expert, Dr. Freyberger. Stripped of technical language, and largely abridged, the professional testimony thus adduced may be summed up as follows: Godfrey was a tall, strong man, who could easily have destroyed himself with the thrusting sword of that period, a weapon which was sharpened at the end, "with blunt edges along the rest of the blade." The marks of strangulation and the "bruising" of the chest and abdomen were, according to Dr. Freyberger, due to post-mortem hypostasis. Mr. Marks writes forcibly, and makes the most of his arguments, but the contemporary evidence is so hopelessly tangled and open to suspicion that we fear the mystery must remain insoluble.

—That far from superfluous veteran, M. de Molinari, has republished from the *Journal des Économistes* a number of his studies, under the title 'Questions Économiques à l'Ordre du Jour' (Paris: Guillaumin & Cie). In one of the most effective of these essays ("Où est l'Utopie?") the author replies vigorously to those who sneer at the ideal of progress through free competition, by asking for the ideals of militarism and socialism. Judging by their results, these systems do not hold out an alluring future to mankind. In the essay on the Brussels Convention the author contends that the action of the English Government in agreeing to levy a tax on sugar imported from countries where bounties are paid for its production, was not opposed to the principle of free trade. His argument is that free trade is not a matter of policy on the part of individual nations, but a principle applying to all mankind. England, beholding the inhabitants of other countries groaning under these bounties, was not merely justified in taking measures to abolish them; it was required by humanity. The pecuniary sacrifice made by the English people was great, but the pecuniary gain of the peoples of Europe was greater. Furthermore, the suppression of these bounties was a blow to protectionism. Nations, no more than individuals, have a right to be selfish, and it is the duty of one nation to make sacrifices for the benefit of the rest. We are not sure that M. de Molinari's views are not those of a Frenchman rather than of a free-trader. In the first place, the English Government consented to impose the tax partly for the purpose of bolstering up the West Indian planters, partly as a sop to the Imperialists, and not from the exalted motives assigned by their French apologist. In the second place, to fix taxes under the influences of particular interests is of the essence of protectionism; and, in the third place, it is bad policy for any Government to allow the taxation of its subjects to be controlled by a commission of foreigners. We cannot think that protection has received a blow by the action of the convention; and, while we rejoice at the relief accorded to the subjects of the Continental Powers, we are unable to regard it as really tending to the attainment of M. de Molinari's lofty ideal.

SCOTT'S VOYAGE OF THE DISCOVERY.

The Voyage of the Discovery. By Capt. Robert F. Scott, C.V.O., R.N. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. 1905.

The extraordinary activity which has marked the progress of polar research during the last fifteen years, must convince even those most skeptical as to the wisdom of this form of human activity that interest in its outcome shows no signs of waning. Neither the misfortunes of the *Polaris*, the *Jeannette*, and the "Lady Franklin Bay" expeditions, nor the still partially-veiled mystery surrounding the fate of the Franklin party, appears to have chilled the ardor of new aspirants for Arctic fame; nor have they blinded the eye of the scientist to the many possibilities for discovery which the regions of the far north and far south still offer. The remarkable success which has attended the explorations of Nansen, Peary, Sverdrup, and the Duke of the Abruzzi, and in a minor way those of Gerlache, Borchgrevink, Drygalski, and Nordenskjöld in the antipodal portions of the earth's surface—a success unquestionably due in greater part to a more accurate study of the methods of exploration—could hardly have failed to stem the tide of an opposing public sentiment; and one is forced to conclude from Capt. Scott's narrative that an entirely new lease of life has been given to almost every form of polar research. One need hardly seek for the basis of this conclusion in the work accomplished by the British National Antarctic Expedition of 1901-04, for the keynote is already sounded in the statement of its commander (vol. ii., p. 407)—a statement that many will consider the most astonishing in a narrative full of surprises—that during the month of February of any average year "a ship, by coming directly south on the 178th meridian, could reach the Great Barrier without encountering any pack-ice." And further: "It is strange to think there may be a season in the year when the enterprising tourist steamer may show its passengers the lofty smoke-capped form of Mount Erebus as easily as it now does the fine scenery of Spitzbergen." For upwards of half a century following the famous expedition of Sir James Clark Ross, when that intrepid navigator was stopped in latitude 78 degrees S. by the great ice-barrier which subsequently bore his name, it has almost universally been believed that the approach to the antarctic tract was one of extreme hazard; so difficult, in fact, as to relegate explorations in that "ice-barred region" to the category of mere ventures. On the other hand, we have already learned from the numerous Peary expeditions that Melville Bay, the great concern of earlier Arctic navigators, presents an equally free passage during several weeks of each year. One might be tempted to infer that physical conditions have undergone recent modification, but it is incontestable that such is not the case.

The narrative of Capt. Scott easily takes rank among the foremost books of travel and discovery which a half-century has brought out, and it will be read with the same pleasure that both old and young like to associate with the reading of Livingstone and Kane. It is, however, superior to these works, and we feel tempted to say to almost all works of travel, in the character of its illustrations, which, in a wholly exceptional way, give expression to the finer elements of photographic art and to an unusually skilful use of the brush. To the geographer and geologist the lavish use of photographic material will make a special appeal, nor can readers not directly interested in polar matters fail to be struck with it. In our necessarily restricted space justice cannot be done to a narrative which covers such a range of achievement and of speculative conclusion. To have penetrated to the high southing of latitude 82° 17′ S., or nearly 250 miles nearer to the South Pole than had been attained by any previous explorer, would of itself have entitled the commander of the expedition to the fullest recognition on the part of geographical societies; but to this greatest triumph he adds the hardly minor achievements of long-continued exploration on the great ice plateau of 8,000-9,000 feet elevation which, with singular uniformity and seemingly endless expanse, continues Victoria Land (or South Victoria, as it is now termed) westward of the lofty Admiralty and Albert chains of mountains; of a virtually complete survey of the Ross Barrier to where it abuts upon the new King Edward VII. Land; and of a reconnaissance of the easternmost portion of what had hitherto appeared upon most charts under the name of Wilkes Land, and which is now shown (in the part surveyed) to be sea-ice and water. The

intensity of this exploration can be judged from the fact that two surveying parties were in the field with the temperature registering below —70°.

What will probably be considered the most interesting outcome of the expedition is the determination that the vast ice mass, the Great Antarctic or Ross Barrier, which bounds Ross Sea on the south, and has by nearly all geographers and geologists been thought to represent either the front edge or the lateral margin of a vast continental glacier sweeping down from an interior height of land, speculatively figured by some authorities to rise possibly to 30,000 feet, is in reality a vast flat plain, with practically no rise to the interior. It was on this plain, so little undulating as to permit objects a few feet in elevation to be continuously observed for many weary miles of travel, that the long journey to the south was accomplished. Its remarkable condition, wholly unsuspected in the preliminary survey, coupled with the significant fact that it is bordered (on one side, at least) by a clearly marked-out land mass of lofty mountains trending in a definite (north and south) direction, has suggested to Capt. Scott the entirely plausible conclusion that the barrier so-called is merely an ice-charged or frozen sea-surface, which rests on water of considerable depth and closely follows southward the border of a continental area. This conclusion, however widely divergent it may be from the views heretofore held, has at least the merit of many supporting facts, not the least important of which are the recession of the ice-front by many miles since the days of Ross, and the disclosure in its ancient position of fairly deep water. The lofty mountain chain or chains of Victoria Land, moreover, whose ice-caps tower to 12,000 and 15,000 feet (Mounts Markham, Lister, etc.), were observed to continue the general features of the land-surface far beyond the furthest point reached by the expedition; and their direct meridional trend has even suggested to the author the possibility or even probability of a continuity (extending over the pole) with the mountains of Graham Land and with the shattered mass of the Chilean Andes lying northward of this island.

The journey on the Hinterland of the Ross Barrier was accomplished with great difficulty, and with the virtual complete destruction of the suffering dog-teams. Progress was restricted to a daily advance of some six to eight miles, although the traverse was effected over a low terrain and with the advantages of a markedly genial and seemingly not too high temperature. A comparison with Mr. Peary's famous 1,300-mile journey, twice accomplished, over the inland ice of Greenland, at elevations reaching to 8,000 feet and more, is entirely in favor of the American commander, and one marvels, while rejoicing in the extraordinary resolution and energy displayed by its leader, that the British expedition should have been so deficient in its appreciation of the conditions and contingencies of ice-travel, and reckless in regard to its food-supply, as the narrative of this portion of its activities plainly shows it to have been. The incapacitation of the dog-teams almost from the day of starting, the reduction of the members of the expeditionary force to such a condition that even the commander (as he himself naïvely states) was hardly able to interest himself beyond the weary details of the daily trials and the hopes of the morrow, and the outbreak of incipient scurvy, are hardly the lessons that should have been learned from the Greenland expeditions extending back to the year 1901.

One conclusion reached by Capt. Scott from the study of the glacial and climatic conditions of Victoria Land cannot fail to interest the geologist and climatologist alike. In the far south, as in the far north, evidence points clearly to a former more extended development of the snow and ice-cap, and to a considerable protrusion of the ancient glaciers beyond the present limits. Many of the latter now stop at considerable distances from the shore-border, and glacial markings of one kind or another, including the presence of high-level morainic material, plainly indicate a former thickness of the glacial tongues exceeding by thousands of feet the measure of what remains to-day. This recession and shrinkage of the ice, in the light of the diminished precipitation which characterizes this region of extreme cold, is considered by the author to afford proof of a general lowering of temperatures, rather than the reverse—and this view accords with that of the minor body of glacialists who have persistently insisted that the cause of the Great Ice Age was to be sought in the conditions associated with a warmer, rather than a colder, climate. The feeble ice-covering seen on many of the mountain summits of Greenland and Grant Land would also seem to give force to this view.

Captain Scott's work dispels many erroneous notions regarding the physical conditions that prevail in the south-polar tract, which, except in its deficiency of plant and animal life, stand somewhat more nearly on the plane of the regions of the far north. Especially noteworthy is the statement bearing upon prevalent exaggerated ideas regarding the size of the antarctic bergs. Of the chapters by the commander's associates on geology, meteorology and other branches of investigation, some will doubtless be elaborated into more complete monographs. Space forbids particular mention of the many interesting and important contributions which these faithful lieutenants have culled from their own special fields of observation, but we will single out a special study of the Emperor penguin; and we cannot close this review without referring to an extraordinary animal trait, perhaps as curious as any recorded in the domain of zoölogy—namely, the habit that some seals have, on the eve of death, of dragging their bodies to a distance of fifty miles or more over the inland ice, and to mountain heights of 5,000 feet.

WIGMORE'S EVIDENCE.

A Treatise on the System of Evidence in Trials at Common Law; Including the Statutes and Judicial Decisions of all Jurisdictions of the United States. By John Henry Wigmore. In four volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

These volumes, dedicated to the "memory of Charles Doe of New Hampshire, Judge and Reformer, and James Bradley Thayer of Massachusetts, historian and teacher," will no doubt for a long time to come be for the United States a standard treatise on Evidence. A work which not merely cites thirty thousand decided cases and some twenty-five hundred statutes, but reviews the whole field in the light of all the research and analysis devoted to it in the last hundred years by some of the acutest legal minds of England and America, is a monument of learning and industry which is sure of its reward. It must be studied and it must be used. But, more than this, Mr. Wigmore's work is also original, and is to be compared and tested only by comparison with that of the great writers on Evidence—Greenleaf, Thayer, Stephen, and Bentham.

Mr. Wigmore's effort has been (to state it in his own words) to search out and emphasize "the accepted reasons for each rule" of evidence, to sift and arrange the mass of precedents "as a consistent product of these principles and rules," and to furnish the materials for ascertaining the present state of the law in every one of the American jurisdictions. In expounding the Law of Evidence throughout as a system, he has endeavored to complete the work begun by Thayer. Speaking of the investigations of that writer, he says (p. xii.):

> "As rules directly appurtenant to jury trial, he made clear their development down to the 1600s, when the common-law system definitely obtained the upper-hand of its rival, the canon-law system; and some of the rules he brought down to the present day. It was a part of the aim in this work to fill out the missing places, accepting the results already reached by him. Portions of this remaining history, as here set forth, had been seen and accepted by him."

It must be confessed that Mr. Wigmore's arrangement of the topics dealt with is at first sight rather confused by the employment of a terminology to which we are not accustomed. Thus, in Part I., under Relevancy, we find that title ii. (consisting of twenty-one chapters) has to do with "Testimonial Evidence," and title iii. with "Autoptic Proference" (real evidence). Testimonial is commonly called Direct, and is opposed to circumstantial evidence. It is brought here under the head of Relevancy, on the ground (§ 475) that the question whether A's assertion that B forged a note *can be received to prove that B forged it*, is one of relevancy. We hesitate to say that Mr. Wigmore is wrong; but most people would hold that a statement by A that he saw B forge a note was direct evidence of forgery. The term Relevancy, as generally used, imports an inference from some piece of evidence to a fact in issue. We may say that an assertion like that given is relevant to the question of the truth of the fact, but have we advanced matters by saying so? Is it not too broad a generalization to be useful as a basis for classification?

The subjects of the qualifications of witnesses and impeachment of witnesses come under the head of Relevancy, and are brought into the same division with Admissions, as is also a part of the law of direct and cross-examination (§ 768). Leaving Relevancy, we find ourselves in Part II. in the region of "Rules of Auxiliary Probative Policy." In other words, assuming that the principles of Relevancy, to which it has been seen Mr. Wigmore gives a wide scope, are satisfied, and that certain

facts, so far as concerns their logical bearing and probative value, have passed the gantlet, other rules are encountered. To any one not at home in Mr. Wigmore's system, it will be a surprise to learn that the rules are divisible into five great classes, which he terms, respectively, Preferential, Analytic (or Scrutinative), Prophylactic, Simplificative, and Quantitative (or Synthetic). Preferential rules prefer one kind of evidence to another, though both are relevant—*e. g.*, the rule that calls primarily for the document itself rather than for testimony about its contents. Of analytic rules there is, in effect, but one—that which declares that hearsay is no evidence; prophylactic rules are those which prescribe expedients to remove sources of danger to testimony—the oath, the penalty for perjury, publicity of proceedings, separation of witnesses, and prior notice of evidence. Simplificative rules exclude evidence absolutely or conditionally, as in the case of evidence offered at an improper time, testimony merely cumulative, etc. Quantitative rules are such as prescribe a definite number of witnesses as a minimum (*e. g.*, on a charge of treason) or corroboration of some sort; of these there are very few in our system. Covering some of these rules is the "Best Evidence" principle, which, however, is more usually found as an alternative form of the rule calling primarily for the document itself. It has also often been employed to designate the Hearsay rule.

Part III. deals with rules of Extrinsic Policy, which are, first, rules of absolute exclusion, *e. g.*, for indecency, impropriety, or inconvenience; second, rules of optional exclusion (privilege and privileged communications). Part IV. treats of the Parol Evidence rules (an exhaustive and original monograph), burden of proof, presumptions, judicial notice, etc.

From this brief summary it will be seen that Mr. Wigmore has taken the whole law of Evidence to pieces, and put it together again in his own way, while the novelty of his arrangement is emphasized by a peculiar terminology, which is objectionable as not being that of the courts. His achievement is that he has produced a systematic treatise in which decisions and statutes are coördinated in a rational, probative scheme, this scheme embodying the English and American Law of Evidence. This has never been done before. Perhaps it never could have been done until the modern reformed procedure had disintegrated the old common-law system, and until modern research had made plain the historical development of this branch of jurisprudence.

Good examples of Mr. Wigmore's method are naturally furnished in his treatment of the Hearsay and the Parol Evidence rules. The former he treats (§1362) as being fundamentally a rule requiring the rejection of testimony not subjected to cross-examination. That the objection to it is not due to its being the testimony of a person not sworn, is shown by the fact that ex-parte affidavits are obnoxious to the rule; and that when hearsay evidence is permitted (§1422)—*i. e.*, where statements not subjected to cross-examination are received—it is not held necessary that they should have been made under oath. Confrontation is necessary because cross-examination is necessary (§1364)—it has the advantage of enabling the tribunal to observe the witnesses' demeanor on the stand; but this may be dispensed with when it is not possible. The Hearsay rule is only about two hundred years old; it is part of our modern system of jury trial.

The Parol Evidence rule is analyzed into something very different from what it used to be. That parol evidence is not admissible *to contradict or vary the terms of a valid written instrument*, is, in Mr. Wigmore's system, not a rule of evidence at all, because it does not concern a "probative mental process" (§ 2400 *et seq.*), nor exclude data as untrustworthy or undesirable means of evidence. As restated by him (§ 2425), it seems to be that "when a legal act is reduced into a single memorial, all other utterances of the parties on that topic are legally immaterial for the purpose of determining what are the terms of their act." This Mr. Wigmore treats as a rule of substantive law, and maintains that it has no necessary relation to any rule of law requiring acts to be put into writing, but would apply equally to an act embodied in oral form. The rule is then resolved into rules of substantive law dealing with acts, in four different aspects: the Creation of the act, its Integration, or embodiment in a single memorial; its Solemnization; and its Interpretation.

That Mr. Wigmore's treatise, based as it is on Thayer's investigations, is a veritable monument of analysis, it is unnecessary to repeat. Whether it is final or not, we will not undertake to say; at any rate, it marks the latest stage in a critical movement of the first order, which for more than a hundred years has had for its object the rationalization of the English law of evidence. Its results, many of them made efficient by reformatory legislation, have been two-fold; the old abuses of the law —*e. g.*, the exclusion of the testimony of parties in interest—have been swept away; and the law relating to the admission of all relevant evidence has been simplified and put on solid ground. But in this country other abuses have sprung up—Mr. Wigmore is, we believe, the first writer to call attention to them—which make the present law of evidence not a simple body of probative rules, but a tangled wilderness of cases, the mass of which is ever increasing, and through which analysis throws only a glimmering light on the path. The reason why we cannot understand the Law of Evidence without the aid of such profound analysis as Mr. Wigmore's, is because of the extraordinary multiplicity of cases by which its principles are obscured; and this grows out of a theory of judicial error and new trials which is wholly modern, which has been abandoned in England, and which, were it swept away here, would probably in fifty years effect as great a reform as any of Bentham's or Romilly's. The rule that there must be a new trial whenever it appears that evidence wrongly excluded might by possibility have affected the verdict, or vice-versa, makes it for the interest of every litigant to multiply exceptions to evidence. His stake is a new trial; his cards are the "rules of evidence"; and he is an unskilful advocate if he cannot contrive in the course of a case to get some rulings from a judge which, when passed upon by the appellate court, will swell the *corpus juris* of evidence. This is all unnecessary, and in England has been swept away by going back to the old rule that the erroneous admission or rejection of evidence was not sufficient ground for a new trial unless it appeared that the truth had not been reached. In England "there now occur annually not more than five rulings upon points of evidence, as against more than five hundred in the reports of the United States"—"and that in a community almost half as populous as ours, but more than twice as litigious." Of course, in any such comparison, it will not do to overlook the fact that there are some fifty courts of last resort in the United States; but this, again, only makes the necessity of the reform more urgent.

THE FASHION OF A DAY.

Kate Greenaway. By M. H. Spielmann and G. S. Layard. London: A. & C. Black; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

The life of the artist whose delightful illustrations of children's books endeared her to two hemispheres is here admirably told. Innumerable pen-and-ink illustrations intersperse the text, many of them from Miss Greenaway's letters to John Ruskin, her frienship with whom was one of the important features of her life. The full-page illustrations have been done with particular care by the three-color process from hitherto unpublished work, *i. e.*, her water-color pictures sold out of the exhibitions or executed for presentation to friends. They have been especially well chosen and give a very adequate idea of her art, which she devoted to the graces of childhood and all the incidents that make the joys and interests of child life—gardens, flowers, toys, country cottages, village streets, and dainty interiors. Miss Greenaway also introduced a new fashion in children's costume. She dressed the children in her toy books in a modified form of what was worn at the close of the eighteenth century, and the admiration and enthusiasm these books received led to the clothes being copied for the children for whom the books were intended.

Kate Greenaway was born in 1846, at Hoxton. Her father was a prominent wood engraver and draughtsman who worked for *Punch* and the *Illustrated London News*. Her early years were uneventful, and are told from her own reminiscences, written a few years before her death. When she was quite a child, her father, through the failure of the publishers who had employed him to illustrate an important work, had to restrict the family expenses very considerably. They moved from Hoxton to Upper St. Islington, where Mrs. Greenaway, her mother, set up a shop for children's dresses, lace, and fancy goods. Their new home was a portion of an old Elizabethan country house in a very dilapidated condition, with rambling passages and certain rooms fallen into uninhabitable disrepair. These surroundings were well adapted to stimulate the fancy of the precocious child. Kate Greenaway went to a dame's school near by, where she learned to read and to sew from an old lady in a large frilly cap, a muslin dress, a scarf over her shoulders, and a long apron; the image of this lady lives on in her il-

lustrations. Her capacity for enjoyment and power of observation must always have been remarkable. She says of those early years: "I suppose my imaginary life made me one long continuous joy—filled everything with a strange wonder and beauty. There was always something more—behind and beyond everything—to me; the golden spectacles were very very big." They served her well in later years to see the beauty and poetry in scenes of everyday occurrence; but this great joyousness had its natural reaction in fits of gloom and depression.

It was at the age of twelve that Kate Greenaway showed her tendency for drawing, at the time of the Indian mutiny, when all England was stirred by the terrible events then taking place; the terror of Sepoys, and the excitement of people escaping, filled the child's brain and found expression on her slate at any leisure moment. Her parents recognized this budding aptitude, and sent her to an art class in Clerkenwell. In that same year she carried off a prize, and showed such unmistakable talent that her profession as an artist was determined, and she joined the chief school of the art department under Mr. Burchett, who from the first formed the highest expectations of her talent. She worked for several years with great diligence at South Kensington, and at the same time attended the life classes at Heatherley's, and later on she studied at the newly opened Slade School under Professor Legros. It was in 1868 that Miss Greenaway first exhibited works, at the Dudley Gallery. "Six little drawings on wood" attracted the attention of a discriminating editor, the Rev. W. J. Loftie, who secured the same for two guineas, published them in his *People's Magazine*, made the acquaintance of the artist, and procured her work in artistic Christmas cards and valentines in gold and colors, for the firm of Marcus Ward of Belfast, then a new departure. Miss Greenaway seems not to have been naturally gifted for color designing; her subsequent success in that especial line was due to her incessant study of old masters at the National Gallery and of mediæval illumination.

Her first great success was a valentine, of which 25,000 copies were sold in a few weeks, her part of the profits amounting to £3 only. On these same terms she continued to furnish many designs, improving all the while as she found out the capabilities of color printing, very restricted in those days, and her own developing talent for invention. Many of these were subsequently reprinted in a volume, together with designs of Walter Crane for the same firm, entitled 'The Quiver of Love: A Collection of Valentines, Ancient and Modern' (1876). Her connection with the Marcus Ward Co. ended after six or seven years; and then Mr. Edmund Evans went into partnership with Miss Greenaway for the production of her books. This was an especially happy arrangement, for Mr. Evans excelled above all others in his skill in producing color effects with a small number of printings, owing to his ingenuity, excellent taste and complete accuracy. He had already been publishing the toy books of Walter Crane and those of Randolph Caldecott when he arranged to undertake Kate Greenaway's designs; he had known her father since his earliest years. Mr. and Mrs. Evans, who became her fast friends, both contribute their recollections of her to this volume. It was the publication of 'Under the Window,' in 1878, which brought her immediate fame; 70,000 copies of the English edition were sold, and 30,000 more in French and German. Here she displayed for the first time her double gift of verse and design together, emancipating herself from the need of adapting her work to express the ideas of others. We quote from her biographers:

"It must not be supposed that Kate had any illusions about her literary gifts, or that she placed her own productions on a par with those of others whose work she illustrated. But she preferred her liberty, and found her pencil better inspired by her own pen than by the pens of others with whom she was called on to collaborate. Other verses were obviously cleverer and daintier than hers, but her own simple thoughts were more in harmony with her delightful little pictures."

Frederick Locker and Austin Dobson thought well of her verses. The latter says concerning them: "She was very deficient in technique, but she had the root of the matter in her." And with reference to the pictures:

"Since Stothard, no one has given us such a clear-eyed, soft-faced, happy-hearted childhood, or so poetically 'apprehended' the coy reticences, the simplicities, and the small solemnities of little people. Added to this, the old-world costumes in which she usually elects to clothe her characters lend an arch piquancy of contrast to their innocent rites and ceremonies. Her taste in tinting, too, is very sweet and spring-like; and there is a fresh, pure fragrance about all her pictures as of new-gathered nosegays."

Mr. Ruskin, with characteristic enthusiasm, devoted one of his Oxford lectures to the place Miss Greenaway held in art. Stacy Marks had always been a trustworthy friend and helpful critic; it was through him that Kate Greenaway first knew Ruskin. He wrote to her in 1880, but not till two years later did they meet. Ruskin very justly counselled her from his first letters to study nature, to draw from the nude, to strive for more accuracy and fuller color. These admonitions run through the whole correspondence, and very much annoyed he seemed at times that she did not pay much attention to his advice, but tranquilly pursued her own course. His praise is often excessive, but Ruskin always delighted in extremes of praise and blame in criticising the works of those who came under his influence. He writes of a Christmas card Miss Greenaway sends him: "To my mind it is a greater thing than Raphael's St. Cecilia"; and again, about another drawing: "This is quite the most beautiful and delightful drawing you've ever given me, and I accept it with the more joy that it shows me all your powers are in the utmost fineness and fulness, and that you are steadily gaining in all that is best—and indeed will do many things—Heaven sparing you and keeping your heart in peace—more than have ever yet been seen in all human dreams."

Here we must give an example of his blame in return for one of her Almanacs: "You are working at present wholly in vain. There is no joy, and very, very little interest in any of these flower-book subjects, and they look as if you had nothing to paint them with but starch and camomile tea." Inexpressibly touching are Miss Greenaway's constant letters to Ruskin during his years of suffering, in which she tells him all she can think of to interest him, with infinite tenderness and spontaneity filling her paper with delightful pen drawings wonderfully expressive in their simplicity and directness of execution.

Hers was a beautiful nature, which no success could spoil; a true artist, loving her work and seeking always to attain a high ideal. Her popularity for a time was almost unparalleled, her books being constantly in demand. But she made innumerable designs for various purposes, and was a constant exhibitor in the yearly picture shows, where her watercolors sold well. Then came a sudden change. Art in England is entirely a matter of fashion, which affects the Academy picture as much as the child's book of colored prints. The publishers found that Miss Greenaway's work was no longer in demand, and she had to consider some other branch of art as a means of livelihood. She was turning her attention to acquiring facility in oil painting with a view to portraiture, when her health failed. The last book she illustrated was 'The April Baby's Book of Tunes,' for the author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden.' Various schemes were proposed to her which she did not feel strong enough to undertake—one of these the editorship of a new magazine for children. Another plan she had for a great dressmaking business, for which she was to be designer; another, for making decorative reliefs in gesso. During these last years Kate Greenaway occupied herself frequently with expressing her feelings in verse. We are told that she attributed to being "a quarter Welsh" the melancholy side of her nature and her passion for writing of unrequited love, imagining some love-lorn lady appealing to a heartless swain who too late relents. The poems given are for the most part unfinished sketches of her intentions. One little one, relating to her own case of having her work set aside by the world while her imitators were continuing on her lines, we must quote, for it expresses well her disappointment courageously borne:

"Deserted, cast away, my work all done,
Who was a star that shone a little while,
But fallen now and all its brightness gone—
A victim of this world's brief fickle smile;
Poor fool and vain, grieve not for what is lost,
Nor rend thy heart by counting up the cost."

Kate Greenaway died in 1901, and her friends, as a fitting memorial to this happy delineator of childhood, endowed a cot in her name in the Great Ormond Street Hospital for Sick Children. A dedication plate, specially designed, affixed to the wall, reminds inquirers of one who, in spite of suffering and physical weakness, brought delight and happiness into the lives of others.

MAGNA CARTA.

Magna Carta: A Commentary on the Great Charter of King John. With an Historical Introduction. By William Sharp McKechnie. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

It is a singular fact that not until now has Magna Carta been made the subject of a notable monograph. Every writer on

English history vouchsafes remarks regarding this great document, but, even when not of a rhetorical character, they are too often a mere abstract of terms or a tirade against John's iniquities. "Magna Carta," one man of genius said, "if it did not give us originally the House of Commons, gave us at least a House of Commons of weight and consequence." When Burke perpetrates such an amazing blunder as this, the average person, despite all the text-books of the past hundred years, may be credited with remaining somewhat in a haze as to what happened at Runnymede. The constitutional historians themselves have done a vast amount of talking round the subject, or have taken more knowledge for granted than is possessed save by the specialist. Stubbs, who was better qualified to give judgment than any one else of his generation, said that "the whole of the constitutional history of England is little more than a commentary upon Magna Carta"; but, though he edited a carefully revised text, he never took the charter up as an isolated theme, and doubtless many students besides Professor Prothero have deemed it impossible "to throw any new light on a subject exhausted by the ablest writers."

Dr. McKechnie, moved by the neglect to which we have just referred, comes forward with a book of nearly 600 pages, wherein he examines both the crisis of 1215 and the sixty-three sections of the famous agreement. He is not, however, the only historian in Great Britain to be agitated at the present moment by the Great Charter. In November, 1904, Mr. Edward Jenks attacked one of our most splendid traditions by an article in the *Independent Review*. Styling his paper "The Myth of Magna Carta," he not only denounced the selfishness of the barons and their lack of statesmanship, but maintained that the historical importance of the Charter has, since the days of Sir Edward Coke, been ridiculously exaggerated. When once the point has been raised, it matters a good deal whether we regard this document as feudal and reactionary in character, or continue to deem it the corner-stone of the whole constitutional fabric.

Dr. McKechnie is at one with Mr. Jenks in being able to see defects, but on the whole his criticism is far less radical. Obviously, the barons showed want of foresight when making provision for the enforcement of the terms they exacted. If the King were deemed guilty of infringing the Charter, the body of barons was authorized to appoint a committee of twenty-five in whom resided executive powers, both for negotiation with the King through a sub-committee of four, and for the declaration of formal war if the King would not keep his promise. How absolutely futile such machinery was bound to be we can see at this length of time, but when we consider the solidarity of feeling which for the moment existed in 1215, it is by no means difficult to understand why a scheme for controlling the Crown through a committee of the baronage should have appeared feasible. A more glaring weakness of the Charter is its failure to enlarge and endow with wider powers the *Commune Concilium*. The Council is not given any legislative functions nor is its status enhanced at any single point. To ratify or veto a schedule of feudal dues which is drafted by the King or his personal advisers seems to be its main privilege, while the veto it possesses can affect only a very limited class of exactions. These shortcomings Dr. McKechnie sees, and he also admits that in general the barons were unable to devise practical remedies for specific evils. Thus, for example, "when John promised in chapter 16 that no one should be compelled to do greater service than had been formerly due from any holding, no attempt was made, in case of dispute, to provide constitutional machinery to define what such service actually was; while chapter 45, providing that only men who knew the law and meant to keep it should be made justiciars, sheriffs, or bailiffs, laid down no criterion of fitness, and contained no suggestion of any way in which so laudable an ambition might be realized."

Dr. McKechnie is very guarded when expressing an opinion of a controversial character, but it is clear that he parts company entirely with Mr. Jenks when we pass from particular defects to the broad significance of the Charter. "The praise, justly earned by its framers, for the care and precision with which they defined a long list of the more crying abuses, must be qualified in view of the failure to provide procedure to prevent their recurrence." This, we should say, is Dr. McKechnie's heaviest indictment against the barons, and it is a long way from constituting an agreement with the view that Macaulay and Green, Stubbs and Maitland, besides the rest of the world, have been all wrong in identifying the barons' resistance and its fruit with a long step forward towards constitutional freedom. We discuss this point at some length because Dr. McKechnie is more willing to see flaws in the Charter than most commentators have been, while yet he is unwilling to join Mr. Jenks in denouncing the document as a poor thing.

Considered with regard to structure, this extensive treatise falls naturally into a general historical introduction and a commentary on the text. The events leading to Magna Carta are in essential respects familiar to all historians, nor is Dr. McKechnie on very new ground when dealing with feudal grievances. It is when he takes up the form and contents of the Great Charter that he comes to close terms with his subject. This latter part of the general introduction clears a way for the detailed commentary, which occupies about two-thirds of the volume, and is, for special students, its most valuable portion. Modern commentators have agreed to take over the sixty-three sections into which the Charter was divided by its original framers, and for each of these Dr. McKechnie has a corresponding chapter of comment. Text, translation, and glossary being brought together most conveniently, the reader has placed before him all the aids to interpretation which he can well desire.

As an example of the method followed, we shall single out sections thirty-nine and forty. Herein, according to a widely accepted view, will be found the vital paragraphs of the document. Whereas almost all the provisions refer to particular abuses arising out of the feudal relation, we seem to reach in sections thirty-nine and forty something that resembles a broad statement. No free man, says the King, shall be in any way molested save by the lawful judgment of his peers and by the law of the land. And, moreover, "to no one will we sell, to no one will we refuse or delay, right or justice." Section thirty-nine, of which the complete text can be printed in four lines, Dr. McKechnie makes a subject for nearly fifteen pages of compact and important comment. "This chapter," he begins, "occupies a prominent place in law-books, and is of considerable importance, although there are reasons for holding that its value has been grossly exaggerated." Under the ordinary legal interpretation of the past three centuries, the safeguard to the liberty of the subject which is provided by the phrase "lawful judgment of his peers" has been made to mean a trial by jury. "A promise of law and liberty and good government to every one" has even been found to lurk beneath the ample language of section thirty-nine. Dr. McKechnie, however, is convinced from the categorical nature of the demands made in other portions of the Charter that the last thing that the barons had in mind was the erection of an abstract principle. The clause, on close examination, really contains a special reference, and is not by any means the high-sounding platitude it appears to be at first sight. Judgment, the barons declare, must precede execution, and the clause glances at a specified abuse, namely, the packing of a tribunal by royal nominees. Even a sweeping allusion to "the law of the land" may be said to possess a specific meaning, since under it every freeman shall have a chance before judgment goes against him of proving his innocence by the law of battle or of ordeal unless some other procedure is prescribed for the case. Every one who has made the acquaintance of mediæval documents must realize how seldom an aggrieved magnate stops to discuss an academic proposition. Very probably the phrasing of section thirty-nine may, through its very looseness, have had some effect upon the shaping of political thought in England by giving radicals some standing-ground. But, with Dr. McKechnie, we must hold that the words in the first instance contained a direct and especial reference.

Were we able to do so, we should gladly touch upon other points which illustrate the style of treatment that is pursued in this elaborate commentary. As it is, we must conclude by styling Dr. McKechnie's work the most detailed and satisfactory examination of Magna Carta.

Grand Feu Ceramics: A Practical Treatise on the Making of Fine Porcelain and Grès. By Taxile Doat, of the Manufactory of Sèvres, France. From the French by Samuel E. Robineau. With numerous illustrations; and notes on the use of American clays for Porcelain and Grès by Prof. Charles F. Binns of the School of Ceramics, Alfred, New York. Syracuse, N. Y.: Keramic Studio Publishing Company. 1905. Pp. 207.

The author of this book is one of the artists employed in the Great National Manufactory of porcelain and other ceramic wares at Sèvres. Near Paris, to the westward, and on the left bank of the Seine, well within reach of the residence part of

the city by ordinary street carriage or by tram-cars going frequently, there is yet about the little town a certain aspect of antique gravity; and the buildings of the manufactory itself retain all of that regular ordonnance which one would expect of a great French national institution. The long buildings stand parallel to the high road, and attract the eyes of visitors; and behind or beside them stand smaller pavilions which are inhabited by the chief employees, all sheltered by great trees. For very many years this great manufactory had been identified with porcelain, in the strict sense of that word, with porcelain alone; but a new administration was organized during the last decade of the nineteenth century, and, very soon after the new officers had taken their places, the scope of the manufactory was enlarged in various directions. Of these expansions of its business, most interesting to artists are the employment of first-rate sculptors for the modelling of figures for reproduction in biscuit or in glaze and finished porcelain; a more general calling in of painters of merit, no longer to paint copies of pictures by Boucher upon vases, but to design abstract, purely decorative patterns and sprays of flowers treated severely; and, most important of all, the making of hard stoneware for architectural uses—architectural members carried out in this most permanent of ceramic wares, to which, by a new process, are given colored glazes. This last extraordinary new departure may not be entirely based upon new discoveries, though it is largely so based. It is probable that stoneware had been prepared with opaque colored glazes even before the nineteenth century; but to undertake it on a great scale and with the deliberate purpose of imitating in their brilliant colors the "majolica" crestings and crownings and bossed ornaments of the Renaissance, in a material of vastly greater endurance, was an achievement worthy of a national institution.

Some part of all this advance, artistical and industrial, was made evident by the Paris Exposition of 1900, where the display of the Sèvres manufactory was attractive and splendid, occupying a large pavilion of the main building on the Esplanade of the Invalides, and having in addition several larger exhibits in the open air under the trees of the different parks, or encrusted in the walls of the more permanent buildings of the Exposition. The chief of these was that extraordinary frieze in the wall behind the colonnade of the Greater Palace on the north side of the Seine. Concerning this display, much more might be said but that a sufficiently representative volume embodies it, to wit, that in small folio, bearing the name as chief author of E. Baumgart, the administrator of the Sèvres manufactory. Among the plates of this volume are vases adorned by Mr. Taxile Doat, the author of the book which we have undertaken to review; but it is not as designer that we have to do with Mr. Doat, for his book deserves and requires all the attention which we can possibly give to it and to him as historian and critic.

The first chapter of 'Grand Feu Ceramics' is devoted to the present ceramic movement in Europe, the second to the Sèvres exposition of 1900, and the third to the organization of the manufactory—together forming Part One, and filling about fifty pages. Part Two, next, with 120 pages, is divided into eleven chapters, and is devoted entirely to "Technical Instruction in the Making of Grand Feu Porcelain and Grès." And this seems to be the place to explain that by "Grand Feu" porcelain is meant that which bears the very great heat of the special porcelain furnace—a heat beyond that which Chinese porcelain (for instance) would bear. By "Grès" (printed in the most prominent place by some accident without the accent) is meant stoneware, familiar to all of us by its presence in ink-bottles, vinegar-jugs, and like articles, which must be non-absorbent and strong, and which is artistically famous for the splendid ware which we used to call Grès de Flandres, but now, more sensibly, Cologne ware, or simply Rhenish stoneware. Examination of the text discovers to the reader a very thorough treatise on the preparation of the paste, the casting, the glazing, the preparation for firing, the use of saggers (pottery boxes for holding the pieces of more delicate ware), and the painting of the ware with those few colors which can endure the heat of the furnace.

Finally, at the close of the book, a quite independent essay is printed. This is the treatise on the American clays, by Professor Binns, and it is divided into two papers, appropriated severally to the clays that are fit for porcelain and to those which are used for stoneware. It would seem that the presence of this essay is due to the publication of the volume by the owners and publishers of a journal called the *Keramic Studio*, in whose columns the several papers have appeared. The accompanying six half-tone illustrations from porcelain vases and platters made by Mrs. A. Alsop Robineau are explained by a note at page 190. It appears that these pieces are the result of experiments made during the publication of Mr. Doat's papers in periodical form. We are in the presence, then, of a book owing its existence to four persons, Mr. Doat, Mr. and Mrs. Robineau, and Professor Binns; and it is with no disfavor that we observe the alliance of several persons in the production of a treatise which must be of great value to the few American manufacturers and the many American collectors of delicate wares. One would be glad to see Professor Binns's essay enlarged and made to present specimens of other porcelains than those produced by one maker.

The illustrations of the chief essay are numerous, and many of them appear again after their presentation in the Sèvres folio of which we have spoken. Not all of these are the work of Mr. Doat. The great frieze of the Grand Palais was modelled by Barrias, nor does Mr. Doat's name appear among those who have worked upon it. The admirable Dancers modelled for table decoration by Léonard are given at page 33 as by one Leonard, without accent; the magnificent specimen of the intended pavilion for the Sèvres manufactory (to produce which complete there was not time enough) is the design of Mr. Risler, while the sculptures are by Messrs. Coutan and Corbel. This piece of decorated wall and window work and the admirable rondel signed by J. Coutan are to be found on pages 30 and 31. It will be seen, accordingly, that the book would have interest and value even apart from its primary merit as a thoughtful study and as a piece of technical instruction. But in these ways, too, it is valuable. Illustrations are used with great judgment, now in the form of outline diagrams, showing how a kiln is built and how the pieces are placed in it; again in the form of half-tone plates, showing how a bust (for instance) shrinks from its unfired condition by perhaps ten per cent. when it is first baked, and then fifteen per cent. more when it is fired with the great heat of the porcelain furnace (p. 121). There are added to the technical chapters various recipes and formulæ for the making of pastes and colored glazes.

Memoir of Colonel Henry Lee. With Selections from his Writings and Speeches, Prepared by John T. Morse, Jr. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

It seems very appropriate that just when the grateful professors and tutors of Harvard University are gathering around Bishop Lawrence to express their gratitude for his successful labors in getting their salaries increased, there should appear in print the memorial of the daring originator of this and many another good project, Colonel Henry Lee of Boston. It would not be fair to say that Boston lost in him the last of its wits or of its millionaires, but it is safe to predict that it will be long before one will appear who can rival him in the combination of these two characters.

A mere glance at the portrait which introduces the volume will confirm this characterization in the eyes of those who never saw the man, and the memoir itself removes the fear which has been felt lest this rare combination of character might pass from memory through not being embodied in type. It is true that Harvard Memorial Hall, which Colonel Lee mainly planned and carried through, and to which he contributed the final twenty thousand dollars necessary for its completion, will stand as his lasting memorial; but the impulse, the independence, the wit, the daring of his character would have disappeared amid the vast miscellaneousness of the Boston daily press, had not a younger kinsman been luckily persuaded to preserve some lasting memorial.

Colonel Lee once said of himself at a meeting of the Harvard Overseers: "I offer to the President my purse and my advice, and I am reminded of the two women grinding at the mill—'The one shall be taken and the other left.'" The same might have been said with equal appropriateness during the Civil War, when he was chief of staff to Governor Andrew and had to struggle against General Butler on the one side, and what Lee himself describes as "the wise but maddening slowness" of President Lincoln (p. 256). He derived his military title only from his position on the Governor's staff at that period; but such service as he rendered counted for more than a hundred military titles may represent in time of peace, and his judgment, penetration, and fearless independence justified the claim. His biographer says well of him that "his bearing was simple, but very distinguished. No one ever looked more fully the gentleman, and his manners were those of the born aristocrat—unaffected, but of a certain courtliness—what is commonly described as of the 'old school,' . . . 'an English

gentleman in America,' as used also to be said of George Washington" (p. 216). It was Colonel Lee himself who also said: "Mr. [Wendell] Phillips is above all things an aristocrat." Lee was for many years the leading Bostonian, in this sense, that his biographer may well say of him, "as in the case of Miltiades, many individuals (or their friends for them) might have put their own names first, but each would have put Colonel Lee's name second" (p. 155). He also adds: "Sir Walter Scott said that if in any year he could not set his foot upon the heather, he should die; Mr. Lee might not have been quite willing to say that if he could not very regularly see the dome of the State House, he should die, but those who knew him would have said it for him" (p. 151).

He was "born with a terrible propensity for truth; a propensity to which he yielded until it became a passion that completely mastered him." His powers of description and characterization were unsurpassed in his day, and they were as telling when applied to a hand-cart man as to the reigning queen of Boston society, whoever she might be. When one of his young friends was engaged to be married, he said: "Get on your horse to-morrow morning and ride with me, and I will tell you all about the ancestors of your intended; you ought to know such things, and no one else can tell you so well as I can," and he fulfilled his promise (p. 164). When the editor of the 'Harvard Memorial Biographies' obtained an hour's interview with him, he talked through the whole list of the seventy or eighty men whose lives were to be written, describing each man; and, perhaps, if he had to do with a Bostonian, jumping up and imitating the way the man's father would walk down State Street. At one time, when a vacancy was to be filled in the Corporation of Harvard University, he drew up on a small sheet of paper, a list of the different men proposed, and briefly characterized them in such terse verdicts as follows: E. Rockwood Hoar, "Hereditarily fond of the College; strong-minded; but too much like the present Fellows: would swear that black was white, if contraried." Richard H. Dana, jr.: "A happy faculty at making enemies." Edmund Quincy: "Spoiled a horn, but never made a spoon." John Lowell: "Very eligible—if an orphan" (three of his name having preceded him in the office). Francis Parkman: "Of uncertain judgment, but abundant firmness" (pp. 166-7). These are but few examples of the many. The same power of terse and independent characterization is to be seen in his obituary notices of contemporary Bostonians in the *Daily Advertiser*, and it is pleasant to observe some of the same vigor applied in the final summing up of his character by his nephew and namesake, Henry Lee Higginson. Of the selections given from the 'Writings and Speeches of Colonel Lee,' those relating to the local history of Boston may be to many readers, though they should not be, less interesting than the personal reminiscences of Governor Andrew, or Lee's speech at "the Shaw Memorial." In these we get, as hardly anywhere else, the actual spirit of the war, as, for instance, in the glimpses afforded of the difficulty, during the war period, of selecting suitable officers for regiments of utterly raw soldiers. With all his aristocratic prejudices, Lee tells us (what has been pointed out by others) that the best officers culled from the militia were obtained from the ranks, but that

"as a rule those high in rank were imposingly absurd. A bit of uniform, an unnaturally stiff carriage, and rectangular movements when off duty, were deemed soldierly characteristics, and supposed by many to denote a commander, especially if further emphasized by a hoarse voice and peremptory speech. . . . The only brigadier who entered the service [from Massachusetts] drove all his best officers out of the regiment which he mismanaged. One of the three major-generals, after bustling about aimlessly, sought a command, but soon sickened of his colonelcy and retired to the more congenial position of sutler" (pp. 241, 242).

Of foreign officers, who were supposed to be much favored in the Governor's sight, Mr. Lee reports thus: "One Prussian of undoubted experience and instruction was a sorehead, never contented; one of his countrymen studied his music instead of his battalion; one Italian was neglectful of his command, another proved dishonest; one German was a brave soldier, wounded badly at Ball's Bluff, eventually killed in battle, but was always jealous of his better-bred, better-educated brother officers—absurdly suspicious. But these were striking exceptions; men who by merit rose from the ranks earned their promotion and the warm regard of their comrades" (p. 245).

A lady once told Colonel Lee, as he tells us, "that the reason I didn't get along better with Governor Andrew was that he was a poet" (p. 254). To this his chief of staff gives ready acquiescence. "The Governor," he says, "was a mute poet of the Whittier type, a New Englander with all the instincts and tastes and attachments of a New Englander. So while he grew daily and his sway over all increased, he was, peculiarly, the idol of the plain people" (p. 254). At the same time, it was true that "he was in the habit of visiting New York and conferring with Southerners at the New York Hotel; had he lived, his mediation would have been important" (p. 260). We can recognize this importance more truly, perhaps, to-day than even at the time when Colonel Lee wrote it.

The Life of St. Patrick, and his Place in History. By J. B. Bury. Macmillan Co. 1905.

Most lives of St. Patrick have been written by ecclesiastics, or persons subject to ecclesiastical or theological bias. Professor Bury, an historian by practice and profession, with an interest purely intellectual in the subject, treats the life and times of St. Patrick as an episode in the history of Europe. Though Ireland never was part of the Roman Empire, it was part of the Roman world so far as the Roman world represented Christendom.

Christian communities existed in Ireland before St. Patrick's mission; and, apparently in compliance with a request from the Irish Christians, Palladius was appointed bishop and visited the island about 432 A. D. This was the first manifestation of the authority of Rome in Ireland, and Professor Bury thinks that the visit of Palladius was directed towards the correction of the Pelagian heresy rather than the conversion of the heathen.

While the whole subject is wrapped in obscurity and encircled by an atmosphere of uncertainty and conjecture, the main facts of Patrick's life can be eliminated from the mists of legend and tradition. The most credible sources of information regarding it are two works which there is every reason to believe were written by himself, (1) his so-called confession, or rather apology for and description of his work and calling; (2) his letter against Coroticus, a British chief who had raided a Christian Irish community. The first of these is preserved in a manuscript known as the *Codex Armachanus*, along with other Patrician documents, the work of an Armagh scribe, who died about 847 A. D. The second exists in several manuscripts of different dates. The genuineness of both documents appears unquestionable. The earliest extant document giving an account of Patrick's life is a memoir written in the second half of the seventh century by Tirechan, a Connaught bishop, its object being to set forth the circumstances of the foundations of communities of Patrician origin. There is also a life of Patrick by Muirchu, at the end of the seventh century, which follows Patrick's confession till he came to Ireland, and then enters a world beset with legends.

The facts deduced by Professor Bury from the material which he says had never been critically sifted, are, that Patrick was born about 389 A. D., probably in Glamorganshire, on the northern shore of the Bristol Channel. His father was a Roman citizen, a decurion, and a Christian deacon. Patrick was brought up in the knowledge of the Christian scriptures. At the age of seventeen he was carried off by Irish freebooters to the "ultimate places of the earth." His captors appear to have brought him to Wicklow, and he remained a slave, a herder of cattle and pigs for six years. According to the more common tradition and general belief, his place of sojourn was in County Antrim, but Professor Bury gives reasons for thinking that it was more probably in the province of Connaught. There, as his confession states, "daily herding cattle and lifting up my heart in aspiration many times a day, the fear of the eternal grew daily in me. . . . I often prayed a hundred times a day, and as many times in the night. I often remained in the woods and on the hills rising to pray while it was yet dark, in snow, or frost, or rain; yet I took no harm." Influenced, he says, by a dream, he escaped from his master, took ship at Wicklow, and worked his passage to Gaul, landing probably near Bordeaux. After travelling across France into Italy he escaped from his companions, and shortly after became an inmate of the monastery presided over by Honoratus on the islet of Lérins, near Cannes.

After a few years he revisited his friends in Britain, who received him "as a son." A burning desire to preach the Christian gospel to the heathen Irish induced him to leave his kinsfolk and return to Gaul to prepare himself and obtain authoritative support for his mission. He chose Auxerre as his place of study, and remained there for seventeen years, being ordained deacon by Amator in 418 A. D., and bishop by Germanus in 432 A. D. Fortified by the prestige attaching to what was now the

official religion of the Roman Empire, and by his long preparation, and filled with enthusiasm, Patrick returned to Ireland, where his journeyings, his contests with the Druids, his foundation of churches are the themes of many legends. His work appears to have been mainly in the northern half of the island. It is possible that he made one journey to Rome; he founded the primatial church of Armagh, resigned his position as head of the church, retired to Saul, near Downpatrick, in the County Down, and died there 461 A. D.

By relegating the description and discussion of the Patrician documents to an appendix of 167 pages, the text of Professor Bury's book is clear, succinct, and well arranged chronologically. Chapter IV., on the political and social condition of Ireland, and Chapter X., Patrick's place in history, give a general view of the circumstances of Ireland so far as they are disclosed in the Patrician documents, and sum up the permanent effects of Patrick's mission. One of the notable consequences of his work was the diffusion of the knowledge of Latin in Ireland, and to this must be ascribed the rise of the schools of learning which distinguished Ireland in the sixth and seventh centuries.

Clear print, and the copious appendix containing a more technical discussion of the documents referred to than could be well given in the text, make the book easy reading for the general reader, and useful to historians and antiquarians.

A History of Ottoman Poetry. By the late E. J. W. Gibb. Vol. IV. Edited by E. G. Browne, Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. London: Luzac & Co. 1905. Pp. xiv., 364.

An Abridged Translation of the History of Tabaristan. By Ibn Isfandiyar. By E. G. Browne. Printed for the Trustees of the "E. J. W. Gibb Memorial." Leyden: E. J. Brill. 1905. Pp. xiv., 356.

The fourth volume of Mr. Gibb's monumental work covers the period from A. D. 1700 to 1850, and tells of the final fall of the Persianist school before native Turkish influences. The spell which for so long had held the Turkish poets fast, failed with the failing of Persian literature itself, and they turned to their own land and language, its customs, ideas, and atmosphere. At last it seemed that a native poetry was to spring up.

But the change was only partial, and apparently in the Turkish race there was no such ebullient energy as could manifest itself in a genuinely native literature. The mystical dreamings pass in great part; the poet condescends to the earth and material things, and uses gradually a more and more genuinely Turkish vocabulary; simple human love takes the part of wire-drawn Platonisms; a healthy coarseness of idea and expression strikes its way through. As a consequence, the translations given in the present volume will be the first to correspond for the average reader with his traditional conception of the fleshliness of Oriental poetry and the sensuality of the Turk. Yet, though so much is plain and sure, the change was not absolutely fundamental, and the native popular influences which might have vitalized the new movement seem to have been most curiously weak. The old verse-forms still continued, the old verbal preciosity still ruled; the old affectation and subjectivity still too often appeared. Folk-songs and ballads had exercised a certain influence, but it was nothing like to that which they were exerting on the European Romantic movement. Of folk-tale influence there was apparently none. In fact, we seem to have rather a dying out from inanition of the Persian influence and a revolt of Turkish poets from their absolute servitude, than any great infusion of life from the soil beneath. Probably in all Oriental peoples the gulf between folk and book poetry is too great for any but an infinitesimal intercourse and influence. If a new impetus was to come, it had to be from without. It was from Europe, then, and chiefly from France, that it came. The result is the Turkish modern school, a complete transformation of method and spirit, and one probably unique in the literary history not only of the East, but of the West. The revolution wrought by the Romantic movement comes nearest to it in thoroughness, but, however great the leap from Pope to Scott, that from mechanical imitation of Persian mysticism to organic imitation of Victor Hugo is still greater, and was made in a shorter time.

By the death of Mr. Gibb this latter story has been left only half told; the volume yet to come will give what has been found in his papers, with such supplementations as Prof. Browne can secure. Unhappily, it was precisely here that Mr. Gibb's knowledge was most unique. Turkish literature has found few students; this phase of it fewer still; and of published studies there are almost none. The seventy-four pages contributed by Prof. Paul Horn to Amelang's 'Litteraturen des Ostens' is so far the fullest. Even the three chapters and other fragments, then, which Mr. Gibb left behind him, will be a welcome addition to our knowledge. He knew the work of this school, and believed in its future as few have done—perhaps no other European.

The publications of the Gibb Memorial Fund begin worthily with the above-named abridged translation by Prof. Browne. Tabaristan, with which it deals, is a province of Persia by itself apart; geographically cut off by mountains and forests; in history distinguished by its long and often successful struggle against the Muslim Arabs, and as a seat of the Zaydite Imams, one of the first of the Shi'ite dynasties successful in revolt against the Abbasids; in literature famous by many names, and with a dialect of interesting individuality. The charm of character continues with it until this day, although its history is, for the time, long over, and its literature neglected. Mr. Browne describes it thus:

"Of this strange and interesting country the clearest and most ineffaceable recollection must remain in the mind of every traveller who has visited it. I merely traversed it in about a week on my homeward journey from Persia in the autumn of 1888, yet of no part of that journey do I preserve a more vivid impression—the first entry from the great stony plain of 'Iraq-i-'Ajami into the lower hills at Agh, with its rippling streams and almost English hedgerows; the long winding climb to the eastern shoulder of the mighty Damawand; the deep cañons of the Lar; the Alpine beauties of Rene; the gradual descent, through rock-walled valleys, into virgin forests, bright with the red blossoms of the wild pomegranate, and carpeted with ferns and mosses; the sluggish streams and stagnant pools of the coastward fenlands; ancient Amul, with its long slender bridge, Barfurush and the swampy rice fields of Shaykh Tabarsi, memorable in the history of the Babi religion; and the sandy downs towards the Caspian Sea."

Of equal picturesqueness and color is the work of its first known systematic historian, Ibn Isfandiyar. He gives a gossipy chronicle, full of anecdotes, moral, historical, and literary, from semi-legendary times to A. H. 647, the very eve of the Mongol flood under Hulagu. Another hand has continued his work to A. H. 750, practically the end of the Mongol power in Persia. The narrative is very broken and irregular, and movements affecting all Asia are seen as elements in local history without much suggestion of the width of their sweep. Therein, it is true, lies its value; we see these events as they were seen at the time. There is much amusement in it also. Witness the tragic tale of Harun ar-Rashid's tame monkey, which shows that Newport monkey dinners have not even novelty. Prof. Browne has translated excellently and given an invaluable index. Mr. Gibb's memory will abide green with such memorial volumes.

The Age of Transition, 1400-1580. By F. J. Snell, M.A. Vol. I., The Poets; Vol. II., The Dramatists and Prose Writers. With an Introduction by John W. Hales, M.A. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1905.

The period from the death of Chaucer to the publication of the "Shepherd's Calendar" is unquestionably the most barren in the whole history of English literature. Allegory holds in subjection practically every rival influence during the greater part of this period, and so, with a few notable exceptions, deprives the writings of the time of all interest for the more healthy-minded generations that were to follow. Then when, towards the middle of the sixteenth century, literature begins again to emerge from the shadow, we have, as was to be expected in the nature of the case, merely the first crude experiments which are destined to pave the way to a brighter era. With the scientific spirit, however, which governs even the study of literature in our time, it is not strange, perhaps, that the period in question should have received more adequate treatment than some more recent periods which stand far above it in the quality of their production. Such treatments we have in the standard works of Ten Brink and Jusserand especially, to say nothing of 'The Transition Period,' by Prof. Gregory Smith; and we are glad now to add to their number 'The Age of Transition,' by Mr. F. J. Snell, in the "Handbooks of English Literature," edited by Professor Hales. Mr. Snell had already proved his competency to deal with the earlier periods of English literature by his 'Age of Chaucer' in the same series of handbooks, and from his studies in the fourteenth century he comes well qualified to undertake the less inviting task which the literature of the fifteenth century and early sixteenth presents. In this as in his former work he shows himself, in nearly all instances, thoroughly abreast of the most recent research, and has managed to

prevent the dulness of the period from communicating itself to his treatment of it.

The book is throughout agreeably written, and the author, while rightly laying stress on the more attractive features of his subject, does not fall into the common error of students of mediæval literature, namely, that of overrating the value of the works he discusses. The chief omission which we note in Mr. Snell's volumes is with respect to the romances. This subject belongs in the main, of course, to earlier volumes in the same series, but neither in the 'Age of Chaucer' nor in the present work do we find any treatment of the metrical romances, which surely, with the exception of Chaucer and possibly Langland, constitute the most interesting and characteristic body of verse that England produced in the later Middle Ages. This is a serious defect of the volumes which Mr. Snell has contributed to this useful series, and ought to be remedied in a new edition.

There are other indications, indeed, in the pages which our author devotes to Malory's 'Morte d'Arthur,' which show that he is not perfectly at home in the literature of the romances. Leaving alone the somewhat exaggerated praise which he bestows on Dr. Sommer's edition of this book, he gives credit to Malory for an originality which we believe no one will allow him who is acquainted with the French prose romances from which that writer drew. He cites, for instance, Malory's constant use of dialogue as "a symptom of the dramatic instinct which is one of his strongest characteristics." As a matter of fact, whatever may be the value of this feature of the 'Morte d'Arthur,' it was derived directly from Malory's French originals, as Mr. Snell may convince himself if he will open anywhere, almost at random, for instance, the romance of 'Lancelot du Lac.' Again, the deterioration of Gawain in the 'Morte d'Arthur' is not due, as Mr. Snell imagines, to Malory, but to the author of the Old French prose 'Tristan,' who, to increase the importance of his own hero, tarnishes the fame of that "flower of courtesy." We should like to protest, furthermore, against the passage in which Mr. Snell dubs Bell's edition of Chaucer "a sort of Authorized Version" of the works of that poet. After this we are not surprised to find him citing Tyrwhitt as an authority on English pronunciation in Chaucer's time. Tyrwhitt will always remain one of the great figures in English scholarship, but surely there have been brave men since Agamemnon, among whom we should have reckoned Professors Ten Brink, Skeat, and Kittredge.

On the whole, however, Mr. Snell's 'Age of Transition' is a reliable handbook, and may be recommended as a guide for the period that it treats.

About Hebrew Manuscripts. By Elkan Nathan Adler. Henry Frowde. 1905. 8vo, pp. 168, plus index.

Mr. Adler is a brother of the Chief Rabbi of London, educated for the bar, a bachelor of about seventy, and has spent many years in the hunt for Hebrew manuscripts and rare printed books, travelling for that purpose through Southeastern Russia, Egypt, Persia, and Central Asia. The book is made up of nine detached pieces, the last, on "Jewish-Persian Literature," being written in German, and contributed by Professor Bacher of Budapest. Two of the other pieces (Nos. 2 and 3) have appeared heretofore in the *Jewish Quarterly Review;* two are lectures read by the author to lay audiences. To the true bookworm, to the man who loves "erudition" for its own sake, without looking very deep for the substantial contents of rare prints or manuscripts, this work will be welcome.

The most important of Mr. Adler's finds is a fragment, on two leaves, of the original Hebrew of Ben Sira (Ecclesiasticus) vii. 29-xii. 1; a valuable addition to the greater fragment on whose discovery the celebrity of Professor Schechter in this line of work mainly rests. He gives a facsimile, in a somewhat current hand, a printed copy in which the verses are numbered, and a pretty literal English translation. Many words are wholly or partially vowelled, and in a few places a Qeri and Kethib is set out in the margin as in the canonical books. The next paper, named Karaitica, gives a list of the Karaitic Manuscripts, some of them not very old, which the author acquired in 1895 and 1896—one set at Cairo, another at Perim Pasha in the Crimea, the latter from the widow of a lately deceased Hakham; many of them written in the Arabic tongue, though with Hebrew letters according to the well-known system of transliteration. In others the translation and notes are couched in the Tartar language and writing of the Crimea. Some of these manuscripts are unique; others are of books that had been already edited and printed; many quite new, but of rather slight interest even to the student. But a collector like Elkan Adler cannot pick his books; he has to buy them in the bunch. If he picks, he is outrageously overcharged.

The third piece is an interesting document for Jewish bibliography: a catalogue made as an advertisement by a bookseller at Fostat, about the beginning of the twelfth century, of one hundred books which he kept for sale, many of them quite small. The contents, aside from Biblical or Talmudic text, are written in Arabic, and the titles are in that language, though written in Hebrew character. The mixture, all in the same letters, of Hebrew, Aramaic, and Arabic, is rather puzzling to read, and would be more so but for the few diacritical points demanded by the extra letters of Arabic. Among the books is an arithmetic; there are liturgies, and small sections thereof, Karaitic as well as Rabbinical; there are Midrashim now wholly lost, a Mekilta upon Numbers, while the extant Mekilta covers only Exodus, and books of Responses no longer to be found. Some titles are enlarged into tables of contents, some are enriched by short samples. English notes follow this catalogue, identifying, as far as can be done, the works named in it from other sources.

Then follows the review of a work by Prof. Ludwig Blau of Budapest: 'Studien zum althebräischen Buchwesen und zur biblischen Literaturgeschichte' (1902). It shows mainly how and on what materials in the days before the invention of printing the Bible was written, and how it used to be divided into scrolls or volumes. Next comes a letter, heretofore unpublished, written by Menasseh ben Israel, in Spanish, in 1648. It discusses with some acuteness the chronology of the Bible—the four hundred and thirty years of the Egyptian captivity, the four hundred and eighty years from the Exodus to the building of Solomon's Temple—and the apparent conflict in time between the reigns of the Kings of Judah and those of Israel. Mr. Adler is in doubt whether the letter was addressed to some Biblical scholar in Spain (in which country he found the letter and in the language of which it is written), or to Gerard Voss, a well-known Dutch humanist of that age. It is printed here both in Spanish and in an English translation. Incidentally, Mr. Adler tells his readers that Menasseh ben Israel did not deserve altogether the reputation of greatness and goodness which he enjoys among English Jews: "He strikes me as snobbish and mercenary, and the jealous care with which the Portuguese Jews of Amsterdam refuse inspection of their archives may be due to a pious desire to protect the memory of their ancestors." "The restoration of the Jews to England was due not to Menasseh, but to the Parnassim (trustees of the Congregation), who sent him to England, and had been in correspondence on the subject with the Dutch minister years before resettlement day."

The lecture on "Jewish Literature and the Diaspora," read at Manchester in November, 1903, treats mainly of a subject which would hardly be guessed from its title: the gradual separation of the Christian church from its dependence on, and connection with, the Synagogue. Most striking in this lecture is the low estimate of Josephus expressed therein: "He was a soldier of some classical polish, but, so far as Hebrew was concerned, he was quite illiterate." Judging from the next two papers, "The Humors of Hebrew MSS." and "The Romance of Hebrew Printing," Mr. Adler's readers might conclude that Hebrew manuscripts are not very funny, and that the life of the early Hebrew printers was not very romantic. The last paper, "Zur jüdisch-persischen Literatur," is the longest of the nine. It shows great industry in Professor Bacher, both in gathering his Persian and Hebrew manuscripts and in abstracting them; but such a pall of poverty and ignorance has for centuries hung over the Jews of Persia that their writings could hardly wield any influence, either religious or literary, beyond their own borders. Professor Bacher, however, thinks that the contents of his manuscripts, some of them the works (printed in Hebrew characters) of gentile Persian poets, "open for us an insight into the spiritual life and the culture of the Jews of Persian tongue, as we find (from these literary remains) what elements, as well of mediæval Jewish poetry as of the highly exuberant neo-Persian poetry, found a reception and a home among them."

Two in Italy. By Maud Howe. With illustrations from drawings by John Elliott. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

Maud Howe continues in 'Two in Italy' her characteristic studies of Italian life from the point of view of the wandering artist from over the sea. Whether the narrative of such unexpected adventures and chance acquaintances with extraordinary characters would invite or deter future travellers, is an open question—a matter of temperament.

Her readers ought to be prepared for any emergency after what happened to Savonarola Finnerty, a young sculptor arriving in Italy at the time the cholera was raging at Naples. Frightened away from Rome by the report of the approach of the illness, he went to Venice, where his stay is divided between "one night in a cholera hospital, three weeks in quarantine, and fifteen days in prison." It is true that the primal cause of his ill luck was excessive potations of mint julep, added to a vivacious disposition and an unbridled tongue. Savonarola Finnerty was wanting in that indispensable quality of patience which Italians so frequently invoke. Notwithstanding the strangeness of Finnerty's experience, the story rings true—indeed, our authoress in her dedication tells us they are all true stories.

The first in the book, Anacrass, gives a very good idea of Capri life, the exuberant beauty of the country, the lavish hospitality of its inhabitants to all comers known or unknown. Among the guests of the famous doctor, the friend of animals and protector of birds, is an American, who possesses a priceless diamond which is passed from hand to hand. It disappears, and is found after the only stranger has been searched by means of drugging his wine. He excuses himself for "annexing" the gem on the ground of scientific purposes, and all part on the friendliest of terms. The stories are told quite simply without any pretence to style. They are, with the exception of the last, "In Old Poland," all of Italy, and plentifully interspersed with Italian phrases in common use.

Mr. Elliott's illustrations are not effectively reproduced; those of Roccaraso and the streets of country towns are best.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bardeen, C. W. The False Entry. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Conybeare, F. C., and St. George Stock. Selections from the Septuagint. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fitch, Clyde. The Climbers. Macmillan Co. 75 cents.
Génestal, R. La Légitimation des Enfants Naturels en Droit Canonique. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Goss, W. F. M. Bench Work in Wood. New ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Kingsley's Westward Ho! Henry Frowde.

Praise of an Authority by an Authority:

. . . "Scientifically conceived and carefully executed in every part; free from all unnecessary technicalities, and so fresh in its spirit and so informal in its tone that one scarcely remembers the scientific attainments of its eminent author. . . . Style is vivacious, flowing, correct, as pellucid as a mountain brook and free from all those affectations of sprightliness or sentiment which seem likely to become conventional in the literature of nature study. The teacher of biology is especially to be congratulated that he has at his command so rich, reliable and attractive a store of available knowledge."—*Prof. S. A. Forbes of Univ. of Illinois* in *The School Science and Mathematics.*

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THE RETAIL METHOD IN REFORM. Miss Mary E. Richmond, Philadelphia.
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THE INDUSTRIAL MILLENNIUM. Ira Woods Howerth, University of Chicago.
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Cash in Banks and Trust Companies	463,706.69
Interest and Rents due and accrued	137,272.00
Renewal Premiums in transit and Deferred Premiums, less cost of collection	284,603.68
Total	**$17,886,594.88**

LIABILITIES

Policy reserve at 3, 3½ and 4 per cent. int.	$14,808,910.00
Present value of all Dividend-Endowment Accumulations (Deferred Dividends)	1,453,907.00
Total as per certificate of N. Y. Insurance Dept.	$16,262,817.00
All other liabilities	194,377.41
Fund voluntarily set aside to meet possible fluctuations in the price of securities, &c.	225,000.00
Reserve to provide for all other contingencies	1,204,400.47
Total	**$17,886,594.88**

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INCOME IN 1905

Premiums: New	$726,104.02	
Premiums: Renewals	2,490,038.66	
		$3,216,142.68
Interest, Rents		824,260.75
Total		**$4,040,403.43**

DISBURSEMENTS IN 1905

Death Claims, Matured Endowment and Annuities	$1,211,894.90	
Dividends to Policyholders	270,277.50	
Surrender Values	243,161.88	
All other Disbursements	944,105.97	
		$2,669,440.25
Excess of Income over Disbursements		1,370,963.18
Total		**$4,040,403.43**

NUMBER OF PAID-FOR POLICIES IN FORCE, **44,615**, being an increase of **3,074**
AMOUNT OF PAID-FOR INSURANCE IN FORCE, **$79,775,340**, being an increase of **$4,883,051**

RESULTS OF THE YEAR 1905

	PER CENT.		PER CENT.
Increase in Renewal Premium Income	7.70	Increase in Policy Reserves	7.44
" " Total Premium Income	5.86	" " Paid-for Insurance in Force	6.52
" " Admitted Assets	7.71	" " Deferred Dividend Fund	12.70

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 11, 1906.

The Week.

The President, in a letter, assures Congress that he has "carefully examined" into all the charges of mismanagement at Panama, and found every one to be "without foundation in any shape or form." It is certain, however, that, with whatever zeal he may have confuted outside slanderers, he has not even read the accusations made by his own subordinates. His message went to Congress along with the report of the Panama Commission, which comprises the report of the Chief Engineer, Mr. Stevens. It is plain that Mr. Roosevelt cannot even have glanced at that; otherwise he could not have put himself into such open contradiction of its statements. Parallel columns will show the nature of this collision between the Chief Magistrate and the Chief Engineer:

THE PRESIDENT.	THE ENGINEER.
All the work so far has been done not only with the utmost expedition, but in the most careful and thorough manner.	Thousands of yards of material were loaded and hauled by this equipment, over these tracks, to land dumps, the latter improperly located and in character unsuited to the end in view. Doubtless the original purpose under which this work was undertaken was a wise one, but the long continuance of it, and the utter absence, as far as could be learned, of any thought or attempt to plan a systematic method of handling the work as a whole, would seem to be open to grave criticism.

The part of the message dealing with the high salaries paid by the President's order, might be set as a useful exercise for the first class in logic. First, Mr. Roosevelt tells us, "Men fit for the work will not undertake it unless they are well paid." Presently we learn, "Among the men fit to do the task only those with a genuine sense of public spirit and eager to do the great work for the work's sake can be obtained." But the President's blunder goes deeper than formal logic. He knows, and every one knows, that the chief cause of the outcry against the high salaries he has assigned out of the Panama $10,000,000, was the discovery that he had used one of them to take care of a personal friend. He talks now about the need of high pay for those who have to work in "the peculiar conditions of the tropical land," but the scandal was in his ordering $10,000 a year paid to an intimate who had not to go south of the tropic of Washington, and even there had little or nothing to do. Of that bit of gross favoritism the President became so ashamed that he agreed, on the urging of Republican Senators, to abolish the useless office; but now he rails at "any attempt to cut down the salaries" as "ruinous." Was it ruinous when his waste of the public funds on his crony Bishop was detected, and he was compelled to recede from it? Of course, there will be a Congressional investigation of the whole thing. Senator Hale and Senator Gorman are at one in this. It has long been inevitable. Congress would be criminally negligent if it did not look into the scandals. Secretary Taft himself, in his severe criticism of some of the methods of Chairman Shonts, has just shown how grave are the financial and other irregularities to be inquired into. All the Presidential shouting in the world cannot divert attention from the facts.

Washington dispatches make it clear that there is daily less and less likelihood of the ratification of the Santo Dominican treaty. The President is reported to have consented to "any amendments" in order to secure its adoption, but there is known to be at least one Republican Senator who will not vote for it under any circumstances, in which case at least five Democratic votes will be needed if it is to be ratified. It seems hardly possible that these will be forthcoming; indeed, it is an open secret that there are several Republicans who, if they dared, would also vote against it, not more because of lack of sympathy with the Dominican programme than as a check to an over-hasty President. Meanwhile, every day's delay makes it plainer that if there is one thing the country is not crying for, it is the task of policing the Caribbean, and financially supervising any rotten republic which may appeal for our aid on the theory of danger from a foreign Power. Even the warmest friends of Mr. Roosevelt should welcome a Senatorial checkmate in this matter; it can only make him a more useful President during the rest of his term if it is brought home to him that there are some things which the Executive cannot do by himself, "anyhow."

To find an argument for the derelict Dominican treaty in the flight of Morales and in his subsequent fruitless revolt against his own vice-president, requires ingenuity of the robustly optimistic sort. Morales among the revolutionists, we are now told, actually clears the air. We see that the treaty was no mere gentleman's agreement between Presidents, but a pact between "entities." Morales passes, but the Dominican entity persists with needs as crying as ever. All these things must be interpreted in the light of the benevolent dialectic contained in Mr. Roosevelt's state papers. When he is bent on making a treaty with a nation, he can always see an entity flawless, and, in Bülow's word, eminently "treatyable," though to the eye of flesh some turbulent little country may be giving all the outward tokens of a multiple personality more than Protean. Yet this comfortable confidence must, in Mr. Roosevelt's case, be disturbed by a personal twinge. The treaty was, after all, negotiated with one Carlos Morales.

The House leaders have good reason for apprehension when they take stock of the assets of the present "insurgent" movement. To begin with, the opponents of the Statehood bill and the opponents of the Philippine tariff are different sets of persons, so that a coalition means a clear gain to both sides. Then, for a leader, the dissenting movement has the veteran chairman of the Republican Congressional Committee, on whom every candidate has to depend every other year for a multitude of material and other favors. It has issues, moreover, on which spirited and popular pleas can be made with very little effort, and are not so easy to answer. "We are not opposing Philippine free trade," they say; "we are only insisting that the differential which protects the iniquitous Sugar Trust shall be removed. We are not opposing the creation of new States; we are only striving to prevent the annihilation of a commonwealth that deserves to be made a sovereign State." Of course, the two questions have nothing at all to do with each other, but their pendency at the same time has given the chance, and such is the way of politics.

The tangle over the Statehood bill is evidently taking on a more serious aspect. If the opponents of this bill can effect a combination with the opponents of the Philippine tariff and muster fifty-eight insurgents in all, both these measures can be kept from passing the House. Meanwhile, the early reports that sentiment in Arizona was gradually becoming reconciled to the amalgamation of that Territory with New Mexico, are now being counteracted by such violent and threatening protests as were made at Tucson on Sunday, when David S. Rose, who, though mayor of Milwaukee, is nevertheless a spokesman for the Territory 1,500 miles away, proposed "to let the streets of Tucson run with the blood of martyrs" rather than consent to the "infamous" joint

Statehood plan. What appears to us the obviously sensible course—to admit the Oklahoma-Indian Territory State at once and let the Southwestern Territories go for the present—seems hardly to be considered. There are said to be "tactical" considerations which make the two propositions practically inseparable. Just what these considerations are we have never seen explained. If the interests which are trying so hard to keep Arizona intact were also interested in having Oklahoma admitted, there would be an obvious basis for a compromise; but this is not the case. The separate Statehood men in the Southern tier have no more interest in the more northern Territories, as some one has said, than in the canals on Mars. With those Territories admitted, as every one acknowledges they ought to be, the arguments and secret influences in Arizona would be neither more nor less potent than they are to-day.

The fight to exclude liquor from the Indian half of the new State is not based purely on sentimental grounds. Men like Capt. McKennon, a former member of the Dawes Commission, who is a leader of the anti-saloon forces, argue that prohibition for a period of twenty years or more is necessary to the orderly development of the tribes. It is true that there are now six whites to one Indian in the Territory, but there is no logical reason for putting liquor into the hands of the six in order to help them despoil the one—for that is what it comes to. Railway and town-site promoters, land-grabbers, and the simple grafters are arrayed against the Indians to whom the tribal lands have been allotted. To arm these pirates with liquor is to double their destructive power. Even to put one of their tools on the bench is to give them undue advantage. Thus far President Roosevelt has unwittingly aided the spoilers. The Senate should insist upon a thorough airing of Indian Territory politics, and demand of Senator Beveridge the real reason why there is hesitation about carrying out the Government's pledge to keep liquor from the Indians of the Five Tribes.

If the Senate Judiciary Committee, before which the opponents of Luman F. Parker, jr., are urging that his nomination as United States judge for the Northern District of Indian Territory be rejected, is inclined to go into the matter, it will find scandalous material. Briefly, the trouble in the Territory is graft. Young Mr. Parker, son of the general counsel of the " 'Frisco" Railway, with a large mileage in Indian Territory, is only one of the pawns in the game played by the railway promoters and the Western saloon and brewing interests. Whether it is true or not that Parker, while acting as Assistant District Attorney, was in actual criminal alliance with the whiskey-sellers and brewers, does not matter except as it affects his own case. The fact that these interests are powerful enough to secure such an appointment, and to keep a man like Pliny L. Soper to the fore in the discussion of Senators for the new State, is sufficient cause for anxiety. While the Statehood bill is on the very threshold of Congress, no provision has yet been made for securing continued prohibition in that portion of the new State which is to be made up of the five Indian nations.

From the debate on the Philippine tariff bill it is easy to see why Speaker Cannon and the stand-patters so dread having the tariff question "opened." Every time it is opened, such disagreeable facts pop out! On Friday the House had some of them in full sight—the surrender of the Republican party to the Sugar Trust in the matter of the differential, its dread of allowing a fair vote on the abolition of that unnecessary and oppressive duty, the alleged bargain between the Speaker and the President to sacrifice tariff reduction for the sake of railway-rate legislation—all the long record of selfishness and inconsistency. Whenever the Democrats are given a chance, they press home these truths. The Republican complaint is that they do not accept the Philippine bill without a word. It is a measure of tariff reduction, isn't it? Certainly; and we presume the Democrats will vote for it. But it is their duty to try to amend it in order to give relief to tariff-ridden Americans as well as Filipinos. If they succeed, with the aid of some Republicans, in making the measure so just and beneficial that the Republican party managers dare not let it pass, the country will be in no doubt where to place the responsibility.

Gov. Guild's characterization, in his first message to the Massachusetts Legislature, of the Commonwealth's delegation in Congress as a "strong man demanding aggressive action of his peers" in the matter of tariff revision, loses impressiveness as the roll of her representatives is called. Lodge is for readjustment, but it must be done by the Republicans in such a careful way that "no interest shall suffer." Senator Crane does not "demand" anything, so far as the public knows. Of the eleven Republican Representatives in the House, Mr. McCall stands almost alone as a vigorous, intelligent exponent of the undoubted sentiment for revision that exists in Massachusetts. His reassignment to the Committee on Ways and Means was the only recognition by the Speaker of this supposedly aggressive demand for revision. Mr. Gillett's place on the Appropriations Committee is one of distinction, and his chairmanship of the committee on reform in the civil service is an evidence that he is a valuable man—but not necessarily in a fight for free hides. Of the other two chairmanships allotted to Massachusetts, "Son-in-law Gussie" Gardner has that on Industrial Arts and Expositions, and Mr. Lawrence that on Expenditures in the War Department. Gov. Guild will have to revise his figure of speech likening these men to the founders of Massachusetts who "set their hands to the rocks and forests," and who sang amidst the storm, "and the stars heard, and the sea."

Senator Blackburn's defeat in Kentucky will relieve the Senate of one member who can well be spared, and there are flattering rumors of Senator Gorman's coming retirement. His giving up of the minority leadership in the Senate is said to be certain. Senator Bailey has been asked to become his successor, but announces that he will not accept the post, since he has "not acquired the art of being agreeable under all circumstances." Strong convictions and a sharp tongue are, we must admit, usually regarded as a disqualification in a party manager, but without good reason, we think. John Sharp Williams can say rasping things as well as Senator Bailey, yet he has not failed as a leader on that account. Indeed, we think the Democrats in the Senate might decidedly benefit by the substitution of Mr. Bailey's intellectual and outspoken vigor for the oleaginous and secret ways of Senator Gorman. We think that Republican Senators would agree, in private at least, that there is no Democratic Senator whom they more respect—or fear—in debate than Senator Bailey. It is a queer comment on political standards that such a man should be thought not a desirable leader of his party.

The campaign for the Democratic nomination for Governor of Georgia waxes and wanes in interest as the two chief rivals, Hoke Smith of the Atlanta *Journal* and Clark Howell of the *Constitution*, discover new supplies of political ammunition. It seems to turn just now on the question, "Is it necessary to take any further action to disfranchise the negroes of Georgia in order to guarantee white domination?" The *Journal* declares that nothing else than an educational qualification will make Georgia safe. But the *Constitution* quotes Senator Money of Mississippi to prove that an educational qualification, instead of reducing the negro vote, actually increases it, in proportion to the white vote. The simple old provision inserted in the Georgia Constitution by Robert Toombs, requiring a

voter to pay his poll tax, is, it is urged, more effective than anything else in keeping the negroes from voting. Senator Money says: "The educational test may operate to create a desire to qualify themselves on the part of a few of the ambitious negroes, but it has absolutely nothing to do with keeping the negro masses from the polls. I am sure this is true in Mississippi." Georgia is certainly "safe" in any case, and the campaign is serving to show the decreasing importance of this political bugbear.

The selection of Wadsworth as Speaker of the New York Assembly is what patrons of the prize-ring would call a bad knock-out for Odell. The boss mustered fewer votes than most people expected. True, he was opposed by the State administration; but then, only a few short months ago, he was absolute master of the machine, and he innocently looked for the support of many men who owed to him their positions as members of the Legislature and as incumbents of office under Roosevelt and under Higgins. He looked in vain. The professional politician does not spend himself on sentimental attachments; indifferent to charges of ingratitude, he turns to the rising, not the setting, sun. Odell, kicked down the Capitol steps as ostentatiously as he himself kicked Platt down them not long since, has nothing to console him but Platt's philosophy of defeat as phrased by Isaiah: "The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib." The owner seems to be Theodore Roosevelt.

Gov. Higgins's recommendations on election reform are sound so far as they go. No one but Senators Platt and Depew will be disposed to dispute his dictum that "no [business] corporation exists which includes among its lawful purposes the right to donate its moneys to influence an election. The practice is morally as well as legally wrong." In view of recent revelations we do not believe the Legislature can hesitate to adopt the Governor's recommendation: "that the making of political payments by corporations be made a penal offence, and that all officers and agents of such corporations knowing or approving thereof be subject to fine and imprisonment." Some members may offer the amendment "fine *or* imprisonment," but the "and" should stay. The Governor is not very explicit as to the direct primary and a new ballot law, but his heart is, we trust, in the right place. The most important topic of the message is insurance legislation. Here, too, the Governor deals largely in generalities; but he has the excellent excuse that courtesy compels him to wait for the report of the legislative committee. Gov. Higgins is also ready for thoroughgoing changes, though, in the effort to be judicial, he falls into the Roosevelt style of teetering: We must have a law which shall be "drastic but practicable, radical but sane," framed in a spirit which shall be "courageous but not hysterical." Specifically, he would have the State Department of Insurance more vigilant; the investments of the company more carefully safeguarded; the expenditures for salaries and the other purposes more closely scrutinized. The directors should have no conflicting business connections; the policies should be free from complexity and ambiguity; and the gains of the companies should be equitably distributed. Here is a task for men.

State Senator Brackett's resolution asking Depew to resign has thus far done nothing more than provoke acrimonious discussion. Senator Brackett himself cannot expect that the Legislature will go to the length of formally condemning Depew. That would be too ghastly a piece of hypocrisy. If our legislators test Depew's conduct by comparing it with their own, they will probably agree with Senator Malby that the versatile representative of the Vanderbilts is "one of the grand characters of this country, and one of the great characters of the civilized world." Senator Brackett complained that Depew received from the Equitable $20,000 a year for which no services were rendered. Depew can retort that various members of the Legislature enjoyed the hospitality of the Mutual Life's "House of Mirth," and received from the several insurance companies more than $20,000 a year—for all of which valuable services were rendered. A virtuous Legislature which tries to get Depew out of the United States Senate should let judgment begin with the House of God—find out what members have been in the pay of the insurance lobby, and scourge them from the consecrated halls of the Capitol. But whatever may be said for or against Depew and his critics, the Brackett resolutions fairly express the sober opinion of citizens of this State. On a popular vote these discredited statesmen would be beaten out of sight. They grossly misrepresent the intelligence and morality of New York.

After a long and costly trial, Charles Gilhooley and a fellow-slugger, together with five labor-union officials of Chicago, have been convicted of "conspiracy to do bodily injury to a workman who refused to leave his place when a strike was called." The *News* of Chicago, which cannot be accused of antagonism to "labor," declares that the verdict is just. The evidence showed that the Carriage and Wagon Workers' Union, being on strike, hired three professional bruisers, with Gilhooley as chief, to beat and cripple those workmen who stuck to their jobs. One of them, Carl Carlstrom, was terribly beaten by these roughs, and died two weeks later, pneumonia having followed the injury. The testimony did not show that the beating was the direct cause of Carlstrom's death, but conspiracy was clearly proved. It was shown that the union paid Gilhooley and his "wreckers" for their bloody work, and that it advanced money for their defence in court. The union's executive board, by formal action, agreed to pay the sluggers' wages. Yet the Carriage and Wagon Workers' Union was not in all this doing an unheard-of thing. Chicago is too familiar with this particular brand of union "control." As the *News* says, "the punishment accorded by the jury—five to ten years in the penitentiary and a $2,000 fine for Gilhooley, and one to five years' imprisonment for each of the other six—is not too severe." Notoriously, a penal lesson like this is not the peculiar need of Chicago, among all our great cities.

When a union between the National Academy and the Society of American Artists was mooted last winter, we predicted that it would not be difficult for the two nominally rival organizations to arrive at an understanding. As a matter of fact, the joint committee has recommended a plan of merger which is admirably simple. The Society of American Artists will sink itself in the older Academy on condition that the Academy extend its membership limit, give to associates as well as academicians a voice in its affairs, and enlarge and liberalize the membership of its juries. In other words, the Society will consider its work done if the Academy will give fair recognition to the actual accomplishment of members of the Society, and will adopt in principle the reforms for which the Society was founded. This may be done without any heartburnings, for the Academy, year by year, has grown more open-minded towards outsiders and less inclined to press to an extreme the prerogative of its members. Meanwhile there has been a virtual interchange of membership between the two bodies. Like Harpagon's cook-coachman, many an artist may be a member of the Academy or of the Society, according to the train of capital letters he doffs or dons. For example, at the current Academy exhibition there are some forty exhibitors who are members of both organizations. We trust that the report of the committee will be accepted on either hand. Art in America has only to gain by a movement that means greater concentration of effort on the part of the artists, and a more dignified and representative character in the public exhibitions.

MR. SCHIFF'S WARNING.

Mr. Jacob H. Schiff's remarks on the money market and the currency, before the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday need to be considered very carefully in the light of the situation which called them forth. The advance in demand loans above 100 per cent. the previous week in Wall Street, and the opening of the new year with the highest rates reached at this period in a generation, were described by Mr. Schiff as "nothing less than a disgrace to a civilized community." Unless, he proceeded, the conditions which make possible such abnormal phenomena in the money market are soon changed, the time will come when "we shall get a panic in this country compared with which the three which have preceded it would only be child's play." What are the facts which justify so serious a warning?

"We all know the cause," said Mr. Schiff; "the cause is in our insufficient circulating medium, or the insufficient elasticity of our circulating medium." This inelasticity seems to Mr. Schiff to be largely, if not mainly, attributable to our Sub-Treasury system—Government money, left on deposit with the banks, added to the supplies on the open market at a time when "the national banks were gorged with their deposits." Mr. Schiff holds that this Government money ought to have been withdrawn from the banks when the market did not need it, and then to have been held in reserve in the Treasury, awaiting the hour of outside stringency. Thereupon, relief by the Government would have been practicable. But Secretary Shaw disliked to withdraw deposits, and left the larger part of them in the banks until the autumn; he was therefore not in a position to increase Treasury deposits in the December stringency. This was the drift of Mr. Schiff's review of the conditions precedent to the 100 per cent. money market. That the money stringency was caused solely by "the speculation which prosperity always brings forward," he does not believe; his reason being that "in France, in Germany, in England, speculation has been rampant at certain periods, and still you have never seen the money market for sixty days in such a condition that rates have varied all the way from 10 to 125 per cent."

Mr. Schiff's authority as an expert on the money market is unquestionably high. But agreeing as we do with his main conclusions, we find much difficulty in subscribing to his reasons. Wall Street is familiar with the "money squeeze" brought on by extensive lock-up of cash in the Treasury, at a time when demand for money on the open market is very active. Such a condition existed in 1899, when, in the face of a narrowing New York bank reserve, the Treasury's surplus revenue ran to $23,000,000 in three months. It was a real cause of the disordered autumn markets in 1887 and 1888, and in other years of excessive public revenue.

It has not been, however, a cause of this autumn's stringency. There have been "surplus months" and "deficit months" since the fiscal year began on July 1, but the net result has been that the Treasury has paid out $7,300,000 to the money market. Furthermore, the Treasury did call in a good part of its bank deposits during the period of easy money. Between the first of last January and the end of August, it reduced them $47,000,000; it did so, not because the market did not need this money, but because the Treasury did; its revenue deficit having amounted to $41,000,000 in the fiscal year 1904 and to $23,000,000 in 1903. Granting that the machinery for the shifting of these funds is clumsy and awkward, we are nevertheless unable to understand how the recent extraordinary money stringency can be ascribed to it.

We believe the cause of that stringency to be so plain, and to be so intertwined with practices dangerous to our financial future, that our chief feeling about Mr. Schiff's address is one of regret that he should wholly have failed to point it out. We refer to the use of bank credit in the high Stock Exchange speculation of the past four months. It is true that Europe has witnessed stock speculation without seeing also 50 or 100 per cent. call money; Germany has had an experience of the sort this season, though we believe that 7 or 8 per cent. on the Berlin Stock Exchange was the worst of the money stringency. But the speculations indulged in in those markets are, in our judgment, trifling affairs beside what has lately been presented to the view of Wall Street.

We have had a market admitting that one $70,000,000 stock, another of $50,000,000, and a third of $30,000,000 were virtually cornered; their prices were then advanced, after the opening of September, by the speculators in control of them, thirty, forty-seven, and one hundred and seventy points respectively. These operations, and numerous similar ventures which accompanied them, were undertaken at a time when the legitimate demands of trade and industry were at the very highest. It is notorious that these speculating millionaires and their following were provided by our banks with money which had been largely obtained from deposits made by Western institutions in this city, and which were certain to be recalled when the active harvest trade set in. Whether loaned for such purposes on call or on time, no intelligent man in Wall Street doubts for an instant that these huge advances, for pure stock-jobbing operations, so far tied up available resources of our banks that they came into December wholly unable properly to meet the situation. The extent to which, even then, with 25 per cent. money and bank reserves below the legal minimum, great lending institutions continue to provide the fuel for continued speculation, leaves the money convulsion at the end of the year, in our opinion, a phenomenon which the simplest mind can understand.

We wholly fail to find, with Mr. Schiff, a primal cause for it in the Treasury operations or in the rigidity of our banknote currency. In both directions there are constant possibilities of danger and urgent need of reform, but we must look elsewhere for the causes of this autumn's episode. We agree with Mr. Schiff that it has been a disgrace to a civilized community. We consider it such, however, because, after years of talk about the growing intelligence and conservatism of New York finance, and with the instance before their eyes of a great European bank which publicly warned its own market's stock-exchange speculators that it was prepared to obstruct their ill-timed ventures until the money strain was over, our own institutions, with some honorable exceptions, have simply gone with the Stock Exchange. Again agreeing with Mr. Schiff, though on different grounds, we suspect that some day a very serious lesson will be taught to our stock-jobbing financiers and their bank supporters, unless they abandon their recent practices. And the banks ought by this time to be aware that the distrust of motives and purposes inspired in the public mind by such events as we have seen, is the main barrier to any intelligent revision of the bank circulation system.

THE AUTOMATIC TARIFF BRAKE.

For a revelation of the pure essence of contemporary tariff doctrine nothing could possibly serve better than the discussion now going on relative to the duty on works of art. This schedule is only a small revenue producer—the firecracker duty contributed almost as much last year at the Custom House. Art is not an historic subject of taxation. Finally, the members of the class supposedly protected, namely, the American artists, are practically a unit for the repeal of this tariff. The protectionist is as much at a loss for arguments to defend the provision on its merits as is the free-trader himself.

For all this, it is practically certain that Section 454, like all the others, will remain unaltered during the life of the present Congress. Why is this? Why must a barbarous enactment remain on the statute-book when it has hardly a single open advocate and its very beneficiaries are loud in denouncing it? The answer is, that the contribution of the present period to the traditions of the tariff has been a set of new principles which, taken together, not only form an effectual brake on all reformatory legis-

lation, but even relieve the tariff custodians of the annoyance of having to defend by argument the particular provisions which may be under attack. There has been devised a series of reasons for inaction which have nothing whatever to do with the protective principle or any other economic consideration, and which could be used as effectively to defend the worst as the best tariff law ever framed.

Chief of these is the proposition that, if one schedule is touched, all must be overhauled. This is not altogether new, of course, but it has never been used with such assurance and such sweeping application as in the present era of Dingleyism. Let foreign pictures in free, and what will become of the tinplate manufacturer? Put hides on the free-list, and who will provide for the steel-rail manufacturer? Bring Canadian lumber to our mills, and how can the cutlery-maker keep from putting up his shutters? This is an argument that, if made at all, no one respected until the last quarter of our national history. It was once an extremely common event for Congress to pass an act altering one or several schedules, without this action precipitating a general revision. Between 1794 and 1816, according to Mr. Stanwood's 'American Tariff Controversies in the Nineteenth Century,' twenty-four acts modifying the tariff were passed. Thus, the sugar and tea schedules were taken up by themselves in 1795; molasses, velvets, and muslins, and some other articles, in 1797; salt later in the same year; fish, fruits, spices, window glass, cigars, and one or two other articles in 1804; old copper, saltpetre, and sulphur in 1805, and so on. The famous woollens bill of 1827, which failed to pass the Senate, got full consideration from the House without dragging in all other interests concerned with the tariff. The rate on manufactured iron was changed in 1830 to equal that of bar iron, and in the same year—not by the same bill—alterations were made in coffee, salt, molasses, and tea. Leaving out of account the war-time changes in duties, there remains as a conspicuous instance the Wool and Woollens act of 1867, raising the duties in one schedule, passed by a Congress which refused to make a general revision. These are but a few capital cases illustrative of the sort of changes which used to be possible, in response to just such demands as are being made to-day for modification of specific duties.

Of course, log-rolling methods have been perfected in the last forty years, the interdependence of industries is closer and their means for exerting pressure at Washington in some respects stronger. Still, there is abundant evidence to show that there is no immutable and fundamental law of nature to the effect that whosoever alters one tariff provision must straightway alter all.

Next in importance to the principle thus described is what may be called the law of alternate objections. Blessed be the memory of the fathers who decreed that the long rather than the short session of Congress should come just before the biennial elections. No one can tell how much trouble it has saved. Congress cannot be expected to revise the tariff just before election. At the short session, although that consideration no longer acts as a deterrent, there is not time to put through a bill, much as the lawmakers would like to. Obviously, these two arguments can be alternated from now till doomsday and never lose their freshness.

This excuse of "no time" uttered so often by poor harassed Congressmen, footsore with tramping over Washington in quest of fourth-class postmasterships and invalid pensions, has itself, by the way, some interesting aspects. "Of course, it must take long deliberation to pass important legislation," exclaims the sympathetic bystander. Yet how long does it really take the House of Representatives as now controlled to dispose of such momentous affairs as it is allowed to consider at all? The Esch-Townsend bill was certainly the most important and most conspicuous measure before the Fifty-eighth Congress. Yet it was taken up on a Monday a little after noon and passed on the following Thursday at 3 P. M. The Philippine Improvement bill received the undivided attention of the House from noon one day until 1 P. M. on the next.

The Dingley law, it must be remembered, has already remained in force for a longer period than any previous act since the Walker tariff, the term of which it will equal on February 28, 1908. But the day has long passed when the way of replying to an assault on any given schedule was an attempt to prove that the clause itself was valuable.

THE CHINESE BOYCOTT.

John W. Foster, ex-Secretary of State, is not among those who believe that the Chinese boycott is merely a temporary affair. Some of our consuls, eager to give the State Department the news it most desires, may take that view, but Mr. Foster, in his notable article in the current *Atlantic Monthly*, declares flatly that if our "present legislation is continued in force, the boycott of American goods in China will not only continue, but will grow in extent and vigor." And he adds significantly, "The danger is that it will not only affect our commerce, but extend to all other American interests." This he explains by pointing out that China need only apply to American citizens within her territory the same laws and regulations that are now applied in the United States to Chinese subjects. By this means, and without proscription or persecution, all American enterprise in China can be brought to a halt.

This relates not merely to missionary endeavor, but to business undertakings as well. The basis for the original treaty of 1868 between China and the United States was "a spirit of reciprocal and sincere friendship, and with entire justice." Since justice in this country has meant the exclusion of all Chinese bankers, capitalists, contractors, builders, engineers, mining experts and operatives, manufacturers, machinists, missionaries and physicians, justice and reciprocity in China would mean the exclusion of precisely the same classes, with the practical cessation of trade and effort along those lines. It would not quite mean the closing of the open door to Americans, but something perilously near to it. Moreover, it could not be resented in any way except by the application of brute force. We might bombard Chinese towns and again land troops in China; but with what decency, if we were demanding of China for our people privileges we denied to her own? Moreover, the time is passing when China can be overawed by a handful of ships. The extraordinary revolution in national sentiment and in methods of government now going on under our own eyes is creating a new China, even as a new Japan has arisen overnight. It is something to be devoutly welcomed; the time cannot come too soon when China will be able to put an end to such thefts of her territory as have disgraced Germany, France, and England.

But meanwhile the public may ask, Why is China so particularly embittered against the United States, which has never filched any of her territory? The answer is in Mr. Foster's article. It is because the United States as a nation has repeatedly broken its word to China; because Chinese citizens have been treated, not like human beings, but like brutes, and this not only at our custom houses, but within our cities and States. We welcomed them by thousands after the treaty of 1868; Secretary Fish officially stated that the increase in emigration was desired by our people. Eagerly our railroad builders seized upon Chinese to construct the railways which opened up the great West. Even as late as 1883 there were 15,000 Chinamen at work on the Northern Pacific, and but for their industry that railroad could never have been completed in time to save its all-necessary land grant. Before that, however, the demagogues and labor unions of California had begun to assert themselves. Not content with mobbing and killing Chinamen where they found them, they first tyrannized the California Legislature, and then marched

on Washington. The "wise discretion," "sincere friendship," and "entire justice" so readily promised were quite forgotten; treaty promises were ignored, particularly by executive officers. As a matter of fact, the immigration officials have repeatedly assumed that Chinese had no right to trial by jury, to "due process of law for the protection of their lives and property." In the case of the United States against Ju Toy, decided last May, Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court commented scathingly on the Immigration Bureau's Star Chamber methods and their denial of witnesses, counsel, and jury to Chinamen who were solemnly promised the same rights as those given to American citizens.

Mr. Foster could have filled his entire article with individual cases of the savage ill-treatment of Chinese. He speaks of only two. The first was the suicide of the Chinese military attaché, Tom Kim Yung, after his shocking abuse at the hands of the San Francisco police, for which outrage nobody was punished. The thousands of countrymen who followed him to the grave regarded themselves, Mr. Foster says, as personally outraged by the wrongs done him; it is easy to conceive what their letters home must have contained. To the lawless raid upon the decent Chinamen of Boston by immigration officers in 1902, Mr. Foster gives much space. As our readers must be familiar with this disgraceful occurrence—for which no official has ever been punished or reprimanded—we would merely remind them that hundreds of innocent Chinamen were arrested without warrants. Merchants and laborers alike were thrown into wagons; 250 were crowded into two small rooms in the Federal Building, where there was only standing space, and compelled to remain there in some cases for twenty hours—guilty of no crime or wrongdoing, and tortured thus merely that the authorities might run down a few who had sneaked in from Canada in violation of law. Had this happened to American merchants in Shanghai, all America would have been demanding revenge at the point of the sword. How great a part this outrage had in precipitating the anti-American boycott cannot be estimated. It is a fact that the details were spread all over China officially and unofficially.

There is but one remedy and one hope, as Mr. Foster points out: absolute justice on the part of Americans, which includes the enactment of a fair treaty. President Roosevelt has taken this stand, and has already ameliorated the harsh enforcement of the immigration laws. But whether the Government as a whole is to reassert itself, whether Congress will decline at last to abdicate its functions at the behest of labor unions, remains to be seen. The financial loss to the pockets of our merchants and traders will at least show them that justice in this case spells dollars and cents.

NEW PHASES OF PRIMARY REFORM.

The balanced utterances of Gov. Higgins on the subject of primary-election reform are not likely to satisfy those who have created the "growing sentiment" which he reports in this State in favor of direct nominations. "The new method as at present developed," he says, "has grave faults as well as attractive features, and a careful consideration of the effect of primary laws of other States should precede any attempt to model legislation thereon." The fact is that, in this period of boss-smashing, orators and campaigners have been calling for the "direct primary" as if that expression signified a hard-and-fast, definitely worked-out system, like capital punishment or the Torrens plan of land titles, instead of an idea that is still in the experimental stage.

If the abolition of conventions were the only thing to be desired, there would be no need of going to the Legislature at all, at least so far as local nominations are concerned. New York already has the direct primary in optional form, the Legislature of 1900 having enacted that—

> "In case the general committee representing a party in any city or village to which this act is applicable, or in a county wholly within any such city, or in a borough of any such city, shall adopt, by a majority vote, a rule that the nomination of that party's candidates, for specified public offices to be filled wholly from such subdivision, shall be made at the primary elections of the party, then, so long as such rule remains in force, the nomination of that party's candidates, for the public offices specified in such rule, shall be made by the enrolled members of the party at the official primary elections of the party held on the annual primary day."

It is under this provision that the Direct Nominations League, of which Gen. McAlpin is president, is proceeding with its petitions to our county and city committees for a trial of the new plan.

The experience of other States has taught that the details of a direct primary law are considerably more important than was at first supposed. The first point to receive attention generally was the fair and accurate separation of Democrats from Republicans. The party enrolment a year in advance, as required by the existing primary law of this State, provides already one of the most successful means to this end. The requirement of a public declaration of party allegiance at the voting place on primary day has proved less satisfactory in a number of ways. Yet the simple stipulation that a voter who participates in the nomination of one candidate of a given party must not join in any other party's nominations for other offices, is regarded as a sufficient safeguard in some of the States with most carefully drawn primary laws.

Still, even after the packing of one party's caucus by members of the other is guarded against, there remains the question of the method of nomination. Conventions are governed by either majority or two-thirds rules; none of them permits a minority to select the candidate. Manifestly, if the direct system accomplishes its object of bringing out many candidates for important offices, the chance of any one getting a full half of the votes is diminished by that very fact. Should nominations by a mere plurality be permitted under the direct primary? The makers of the last such law passed, that of Illinois, evidently thought not, for they provided that when no candidate in the primary has a majority of votes, the result shall not govern, and a convention is to be held instead. It is out of this objection that the second-choice scheme has developed. A bill which was introduced in the Legislature of 1903 in this State by Mr. McClelland was in its main features similar to the ill-fated "Mary Ann" bill which Gov. La Follette tried to put through the special session of the Wisconsin Legislature just before his resignation.

The idea is that every voter in the primary is to record a second as well as a first choice for the nomination to each office. If any aspirant has a majority of "first-choice" votes, he is, of course, nominated. If no candidate has such a majority, however, the one with the smallest "first-choice" vote is to be dropped from the canvass, and the "second-choice" votes of his supporters added to the "first-choice" votes of the other candidates. The "second-choice" votes of candidates at the bottom are thus added in until some candidate does secure a majority over the others.

This is an untried plan. If three or four candidates are deadlocked in a convention or legislature, the choice is likely to fall on some absolutely unthought-of man proposed as a compromise. Under this plan the resultant candidate should be the contestant who is best able to retain the good will of his opponents. This is not a principle from which any one can well dissent, but the success of the project in practice remains a trifle problematical. Also untried is the Wisconsin plan of convening the State and legislative candidates each year to draw up and pass the party platform.

It has been one of the singular features of primary reform that novel provisions have been so generally copied before they have been tested. There were jeers only a few years ago at the notion of nominating United States Senators by popular primary. As a matter of fact, it has not yet been done in a Northern State; still, every primary law passed in the last three years contains this feature. There is accumulating a

mass of data which our Legislature can study; and when others are so willing to attempt the experimenting, there is certainly no reason for ill-considered legislation in this State.

THE PRINTERS' STRIKE.

The decision of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, on January 2, declaring unconstitutional and void a law restricting the freedom of contract in the employment of labor, falls pat with the strike in the printing trade which began with the first of the year. This is distinctly a strike for the closed shop. That means, of course, a labor monopoly. The Typographical Union would make it impossible for any workmen outside their organization to obtain employment. It would compel all publishers and printers and newspapers to hire only members of the union. Yet it is precisely this spirit of exclusion and tyranny which the Court has just decided to be repugnant to our institutions and laws, and its translation into action violative of the Constitution of New York.

The law in question was one passed in 1887, under the general head of "Coercion by Employers," which forbade the making of an agreement not to belong to a labor union the condition precedent of employment. Such a statute, the Justices of the Appellate Division now declare, was beyond the competence of the Legislature. The Court denies the power of the Legislature to "compel employers, under penalty of fine and imprisonment, to employ union men only." The freedom of contract implies the right of every man "to employ whomsoever he pleases, . . . unless, of course, he makes a contract contrary to public policy." It is alleged, to be sure, that any kind of impairment of the privileges or pretensions of labor unions will lead to unrest and disturbance of the public peace; but the Judges neatly dispose of this by remarking: "We recollect no instance in which it has been held that it is competent for a Legislature to restrict one's constitutional rights upon the theory that, if he be permitted to exercise the same, others will become incensed thereby and violate the law and be guilty of a breach of the peace or create public disorder."

Other questions are involved in the printers' strike, but they are subordinate. One of the demands is for nine hours' pay for eight hours' work. That is a matter fairly to be tried out between the union and the employers. It is mainly a question whether the trade will bear such an increase of wages. That a higher cost of production would be involved, is agreed on all hands. The Typographical Union admits that the eight hours' day would mean an increase in cost of 15 per cent. The Typothetæ figure it at 23 per cent. In either case, the question is whether the added cost can be passed on to the consumer—that "forgotten man" whom the labor monopolists regard, equally with the tariff monopolists, as a stupid and patient beast of burden, who will stagger along under any load piled upon his back. But, as we say, this dispute about more wages is one that is to be decided by an actual test of the labor market. The employing printers aver, first, that they cannot afford to pay the higher rates, since they are neces arily exposed to out-of-town competition; and, second, that they can obtain, with adequate police protection, all the skilled labor they need at existing prices. That is to be determined by experiment. The union is within its rights in demanding higher wages; the employers in demanding that men willing and anxious to work at the rate now paid be allowed to do so. This is elementary.

But behind the money question lies one of vital principle. The union strikes for the closed shop. The employers are fighting for the open shop; which simply means that they are fighting for the right to own and control their own property. Under union dictation, the owner of a printing-office cannot put his own son to work at the machinery in his own composing-room; cannot hire or discharge his own employees; cannot control even his own foreman; and has to submit to every kind of petty tyranny and restriction of output. How these impositions strike a self-respecting American employer may be seen in the plain-spoken circular addressed to the compositors of the Hill Publishing Company by its president. He himself has risen from the ranks—is still an honorary member, he states, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers—and feels strongly about the closed shop, or any other union device which tends to "grade the workmen down. not up." We quote a few of his homely words of refreshing sense and candor:

> "I shall be sorry to see a man go away—especially those who have been with us from the start. I do not believe that you can get better jobs or a more appreciative 'old man.' But this 'old man' cannot stand everything. The savings of a life of hard work are in this concern, and all the fun he can get out of it is to run it his own way, with due regard for the rights of others. He always has worked more than eight hours a day, and always expects to.
>
> "If the officers of a labor union run this concern, some one else will own it—I won't.
>
> "Hereafter the foreman works for the owners, and not for the union.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "Now, the whole thing simmers down to about this:
>
> "You say to us—Shut down this plant another hour per day, pay the same wages that you do now, and place the conduct of the shop in the hands of our union and walking delegate, or we strike.
>
> "We say to you—We insist on our right to run our own concern nine hours per day, run an open shop, and employ whom we please. If that is the issue, go ahead—we will fight."

Few not directly affected are aware of the overweening pretensions and intolerable exactions of the Typographical Union. It aspires to be supreme over both Church and State. Here is an extract from the oath which its members are required to take: "*That my fidelity to the union and my duty to the members thereof shall in no sense be interfered with by any allegiance that I may now or hereafter owe to any other organization, social, political, or religious, secret or otherwise.*" It is not strange that a Catholic priest should have read this oath to his congregation and announced that no person subscribing to it could, in his parish, share in the sacraments of the Church. And every newspaper in whose office the tyranny of the Typographical Union is set up, could testify to the way in which it follows up its assumption of divine right by attempting to enforce the most absolutist claims. Not simply does it claim to dictate in regard to wages, apprentices, machinery, output, etc., but it is rapidly extending its sway over other departments, so that in some instances the proprietors cannot discharge a reporter or hire a skilled proof-reader or dispense with the services of a dramatic critic without first consulting the magnates of the Union. This is one reason why the press of the country should take a deep interest in this strike of the Typographical Union. It is a contest between freedom and tyranny in the whole printing trade. If the open shop wins, there will be gains for liberty all round. The newspapers that are union-ridden may hope to strike off some of their galling shackles. But if the closed shop triumphs, the next thing will be the closed mouth; for it may not be long before the Typographical Union, once able to say in what way opinions shall be printed, will arrogate to itself the right to decide what opinions it will allow to be printed at all.

THE PAY OF MUSICIANS.

The strike of the chorus singers at the Metropolitan Opera House has called attention, among other things, to the wide disparity between the earnings of those at the bottom of the operatic ladder and those on the top rung. A year or so ago Mme. Emma Calvé made a public protest against the inadequacy of the remuneration received by chorus singers in grand opera; yet, so far as known, she did not offer to have part of the demanded extra payment deducted from the $2,000 she received for every performance in which she appeared. Mr. Conried, no doubt, would be happy to pare the highest salaries on his list for the benefit of the lowest, but he naturally hesitates to add to his managerial expenses $1,000 a week. That increase, in an uncertain season, might wipe out all profits, and more.

He had certainly a grievance in this

case. The singers had, of their own free will, individually signed contracts to perform specified duties for a certain number of weeks. They wantonly broke their contract—a proceeding for which employees ought to be liable to some punishment as well as employers—and they aggravated the offence by doing their best to destroy one of the gala events of the season and mar the pleasure of nearly four thousand persons who had nothing whatever to do with their quarrel. But this is the usual union method. The audience was keenly alive to the situation, and when Mr. Conried came forward and announced that he had "firmly and absolutely refused to be dictated to by the chorus as a labor union," there was an outburst of applause such as usually follows only the song of some favorite tenor or prima donna. The public was overwhelmingly with the manager.

Before the chorus took its altogether indefensible step, Mr. Conried had signified his willingness to meet it halfway on the salary question and other points in dispute. After the total disregard of the artistic side of the question shown by the chorus singers on strike, he might question their right to be considered artists. Yet he could hardly fail to see the justice of granting them at least as much as the chorus girls get in the theatres where operettas and musical farces are performed, which is $18 a week. Even that is little enough, considering the hard work to be done; yet the supply far exceeds the demand. When Mr. Savage advertised for a flower-girl chorus for his production of "Parsifal" in England, more than a thousand young women applied.

The incident at the Metropolitan will, no doubt, lead to considerable discussion of the general question whether music pays as a profession, and whether the thousands of girls who yearly flock to New York from all parts of the country had not better stay at home, help their mothers, and get married, following the advice of Hans von Bülow. The vast majority of those who prepare themselves for a career as opera singers or concert-givers end by becoming teachers very soon after their first appearances in public. After having had a training costing years of hard work and thousands of dollars, they find that it is extremely difficult to get a chance for an appearance at an entertainment which the public and the critics are sure to attend. Managers and conductors are beseiged by young musicians, most of them mediocrities, who jostle the better ones and crowd them out by sheer numbers. Most of these are glad to play or sing for nothing for the mere chance of appearing in public; some of them even pay for the privilege of showing off their accomplishments at Sunday concerts or others.

After all, the profession of teaching, to which most of the students of music are condemned, may be a source of as much happiness and emolument as a stage career, with its many worries, uncertainties, and disappointments. There are teachers of the piano or the voice in this country who earn $10,000 or more a year, and command as much respect in the community as any pianist or singer. Many earn half that sum. The rank and file, to be sure, work for much less; but that is the case in all the professions. If we may accept the estimate of a writer in *Harper's Weekly*, "the average earnings of qualified and certified doctors of medicine in the United States do not exceed $600 a year"; that is, the average American physician earns only $300 more in a year than Mr. Conried's chorus singers do in five months; and he has had a much more expensive education. As regards teachers in public schools, it has been found that, in a list including 467 American cities, there were 53,554 positions with annual salaries of $600 and over, besides 14,193 of $500 to $600, and 17,728 annual salaries below $500. Commenting on these figures, Commissioner W. T. Harris has remarked that "no teacher has a right to complain, on a socialistic basis, if he is receiving a salary for his annual services of $600." From this point of view, music pays probably as well, on the average, as most vocations.

Every chorus singer has a chance to become a Sembrich, an Eames, or a Nordica, a Caruso or a Knote. The rewards of success in music are, indeed, so great that it is a wonder that so few men compete for them. In some departments women have things almost entirely their own way; yet a prominent woman teacher complained, not long ago, that musical students of both sexes seemed more and more inclined to go to men for lessons. In London, the members of the orchestras used to be largely Germans; now, the German-visiting conductors have to address them in English, which shows that the prejudice that so long kept men out of music is passing away. In view of the fortunes won by such artists as Paderewski, Jean de Reszke, Tamagno, Johann and Richard Strauss, Arthur Sullivan, and Victor Herbert, American men may well ask themselves whether music does not pay better than they had supposed.

THE MOROCCO CONFERENCE.

To judge merely by the published *agenda* of the forthcoming Morocco Conference, there is no occasion whatever for the nervousness, amounting almost to apprehension, with which it is regarded in Europe. Wars and rumors of war fill the air. It is a "critical situation," declares the London *Times*, and adds: "Is this the moment when British statesmen, philanthropists, and chambers of commerce seriously believe they serve the cause of peace by falling on the necks of our German cousins and embracing them?" This is obviously a fling at Campbell-Bannerman's announced policy of seeking the friendliest relations with Germany; and, for the rest, is in keeping with the rôle of international stabber which the *Times* seems lately to have taken up. But it cannot be denied that many who do not, like it, prostrate themselves at the altar of the great god Jingo every day, yet feel that a great international peril, if not a threat of war, lurks in the conference called to deal with Moroccan affairs.

Its official programme, however, is the most peaceful-looking document imaginable. From the text of the agreement signed by France and Germany on September 28, we learn that the Conference on Moroccan affairs is to discuss the organization of the police; the repression of contraband trade, particularly in arms; financial reforms; and finally the "establishment of principles calculated to safeguard economic liberty." Certain rights of France to police the frontier are reserved, as are also certain commitments of German bankers as respects loans for public improvements in Morocco. Here, certainly, is no appearance of fighting matter.

It is really, of course, in jealousies and collisions extraneous to the Conference proper that the danger lies. In May and June last, the tension between Germany and France was undeniably acute. Even since the *accord* was signed in September, many clouds have risen upon the horizon. Military preparations have quietly been made on both sides of the Franco-German frontier. The press of either country has been suspicious and provocative. Public statements of an official character, in both Berlin and Paris, have not been wholly reassuring. On December 14 the French Government published a "Yellow Book" on the Morocco question, covering the diplomatic correspondence from 1901. It revealed a steadily heightened difference, culminating in the resignation of the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, M. Delcassé, with the solemn warning of Chancellor von Bülow to France "not to delay in a path lined with precipices and even abysses." The most directly damaging part of the correspondence, as published, affected the activities of Count Tattenbach, the German agent at Tangier, who appears to be proved guilty of double-dealing and deception. It is stated, however, that the documents about to be published by the German Government will exculpate the accused Count; so it is but fair to suspend judgment in his case. Also, it should be noted, Germany is submitting some important documents to the French Government confidentially.

If our information is not at fault, another confidential communication was

made by the German Government two or three years ago, not only to France, but to all the European chancelleries, which has a highly important bearing upon the whole controversy. This was an official notification that, when the affairs of Morocco came to be settled, Germany expected to be consulted. If this be true, and we have the best of reasons for so believing it, the "interference" of the German Emperor last spring wears an entirely new aspect. M. Delcassé's diplomacy seemed distinctly aimed at isolating Germany. The *entente* which he negotiated with England was, in the main, a skilful and useful agreement, but one clause of it stipulated that France, so far as England was concerned, might have a free hand in Morocco. Circumstances being what they were, this could be taken only as an affront to Germany. Her protest in advance had been coolly disregarded by M. Delcassé. Her interests in Morocco, as well as her rights as one of the signatories of the Madrid treaty relating to Morocco, she saw ignored—or, at any rate, in the way of being ignored. Human nature being what it is, and German pride what we know it, nothing was to have been expected but such a demonstration as the Kaiser made in his trip to Tangier, or such a dead-set as German diplomacy made at M. Delcassé. The result was that he had to leave office, in spite of his great services and high prestige, amid a feeling on the part of the soberest men in France, including the Prime Minister and most of the Cabinet, that he had made a grave blunder.

Such things rankle in the public mind, however; and it is the persistence of the bitterness which the Delcassé incident evoked which accounts, we believe, for most of the disquietude. But we cannot think it justified. Neither France nor Germany desires a war which would be as causeless, and probably as fruitless, as it would be terrible. In themselves, the questions to come before the Conference are not so insoluble as to cause despondency over the outlook. What the United States is doing in that Moroccan galley is a source of wonder to some. The fantastic explanation from Washington, that our historic bombardments of the Barbary pirates entitle us to a place in the Conference, can hardly be received with gravity by European diplomats, however good their control of their facial muscles. They will, we presume, attribute President Roosevelt's dispatch of envoys to his feeling that, having helped arrange the Conference, he should help give it dignity; and also to his ardent desire to sustain freedom of trade—abroad.

JOHN BARTLETT.

In every university town such as Cambridge, Mass., there is an outside circle, beyond the institution itself, of cultivated men who may or may not hold its degrees, but who contribute to the intellectual atmosphere. One of the most widely known and generally useful of these at Cambridge—whether in his active youth or in the patient and lonely seclusion of his later years—was John Bartlett, best known as the author of the dictionary entitled 'Familiar Quotations.'

He was born in Plymouth, June 14, 1820, was educated in the public schools of that town, and in 1836 entered the bookbinding establishment connected with the University bookstore in Cambridge, under John Owen, who was Longfellow's first publisher. In the next year Bartlett became a clerk in the bookstore, and soon showed remarkable talent for the business. In 1846 Mr. Owen failed, and Bartlett remained with his successor, George Nichols, but became himself the proprietor in 1849. He had shown himself in this position an uncommonly good publisher and adviser of authors. He had there published three editions of his 'Familiar Quotations,' gradually enlarging the book from the beginning. In 1859 he sold out to Sever & Francis. In 1862 he served as volunteer naval paymaster for nine months with Capt. Boutelle, his brother-in-law, on board Admiral DuPont's dispatch-boat. In August, 1863, he entered the publishing house of Little, Brown & Co., nominally as clerk, but with the promise that in eighteen months, when the existing partnership would end, he should be taken into the firm, which accordingly took place in 1865. The fourth edition of his 'Familiar Quotations,' always growing larger, had meanwhile been published by them, as well as an *édition de luxe* of Walton's 'Complete Angler,' in the preparation of which he made an especial and exceptionally fine collection of works on angling, which he afterwards presented to the Harvard College Library. His activity in the Waltonian sport is also commemorated in Lowell's poem, "To Mr. John Bartlett, who had sent me a seven-pound trout." He gave to the Library at the same time another collection of books containing "Proverbs," and still another on "Emblems."

After his becoming partner in the firm, the literary, manufacturing, and advertising departments were assigned to him, and were retained until he withdrew altogether. The fifth and sixth editions of his 'Quotations' were published by Little, Brown & Co., the seventh and eighth by Routledge of London, the ninth by Little, Brown & Co. and Macmillan & Co. of London, jointly; and of all these editions between two and three hundred thousand copies must have been sold. Of the seventh and eighth editions, as the author himself tells us, forty thousand copies were printed apart from the English reprint. The ninth edition, published in 1891, had three hundred and fifty pages more than its predecessor, and the index was increased by more than ten thousand lines. In 1881 Mr. Bartlett published his Shakspere 'Phrase-Book,' and in February, 1889, he retired from his firm to complete his indispensable Shakspere "Concordance," which Macmillan & Co. published at their own risk in London in 1894.

All this immense literary work had the direct support and coöperation of Mr. Bartlett's wife, who was the daughter of Sidney Willard, professor of Hebrew in Harvard University, and grand-daughter of Joseph Willard, president of Harvard from 1781 to 1804. She inherited from such an ancestry the love of studious labor; and, as they had no children, she and her husband could pursue it with the greatest regularity. Both of them had, also, been great readers for many years, and there is still extant a manuscript book of John Bartlett's which surpasses most books to be found in these days, for it contains the lifelong record of his reading. What man or woman, now living, for instance, can claim to have read Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall' faithfully through, four times, from beginning to end? We must, however, remember that this was accomplished by one who began by reading a verse of the Bible aloud to his mother when he was but three years old, and had gone through the whole of it at nine.

There came, however, an event in Bartlett's life which put an end to all direct labors, when his wife and co-worker began to lose her mental clearness, and all this joint task had presently to be laid aside. For a time, he tried to continue his work unaided; and she, with unwearied patience and gentleness, would sit quietly beside him without interference. But the malady increased until she passed into that melancholy condition described so powerfully by his neighbor and intimate friend, James Russell Lowell—though drawing from a different example—in his poem of "The Darkened Mind." While Bartlett still continued his habit of reading, the writing had to be surrendered. His eyesight being ere long affected, the reading also was abandoned, and after his wife's death he lived for a year or two one of the loneliest of lives. He grew physically lame, and could scarcely cross the room unaided. A nervous trouble in the head left him able to employ a reader less and less frequently, and finally not at all. In a large and homelike room containing one of the most charming private libraries in Cambridge—the books being beautifully bound and lighting up the walls instead of darkening them—he spent most of the day reclining on the sofa, externally unemployed, simply because employment was impossible. He had occasional visitors, and four of his old friends formed what they called a "Bartlett Club" and met at his house one evening in every week. Sometimes days passed, however, without his receiving a visitor, he living alone in a room once gay with the whist parties which he and Lowell had formerly organized and carried on.

His cheerful courage, however, was absolutely unbroken, and he met every casual guest with a look of sunshine. His voice and manner, always animated and cheerful, remained almost the same. He had an inexhaustible store of anecdotes and reminiscence, and could fill the hour with talk without showing exhaustion. Seldom going out of the house, unable to take more than very short drives, he dwelt absolutely in the past, remembered the ways and deeds of all Cambridge and Boston literary men, spoke genially of all and with malice of none. He had an endless fund of good stories of personal experience. Were one to speak to him, for instance, of Edward Everett, well known for the elaboration with which he prepared his addresses, Bartlett would instantly recall how Everett once came into

his bookstore in search of a small pocket Bible, to be produced dramatically before a rural audience at a proper time in a lecture; but, this case finding none small enough, chose a copy of Hoyle's "Games" to be produced instead, at the important moment. Then he would describe the same Edward Everett whom he once called upon and found busy in drilling a few Revolutionary soldiers who were to be on the platform during Everett's famous Concord oration, and whom he drilled first to stand up and be admired at a certain point in the oration, and then to sit down again, by signal, that the audience might rather rise in their honor. Unfortunately, one man, who was totally deaf, forgot the instruction and absolutely refused to sit down, because "the squire" had told him to stand up. In a similar way, Bartlett's unimpaired memory held the whole circle of eminent men among whom he had grown up from youth, and a casual visitor might infer from his cheery manner that these comrades had just left the room. During his last illness, mind and memory seemed equally unclouded until the very end, and almost the last words he spoke were a caution to his faithful nurse not to forget to pay the small sum due to a man who had been at work on his driveway, he naming the precise sum due in dollars and cents.

He died on the morning of December 3, 1905, aged eighty-five. Was his career, after all, more to be pitied or envied? He lived a life of prolonged and happy labor among the very choicest gems of human thought; and died with patient fortitude, after all visible human joys had long been laid aside.

JOINT MEETINGS OF HUMANISTS AT ITHACA.

ITHACA, N. Y., December 30, 1905.

The attendance at the joint meetings at Cornell University, on December 26-29, of the Archæological Institute of America, the American Philological Association, and the American Anthropological Association was larger than at any like meeting since the first American Congress of Philologists, which was devoted to the memory of the late Professor Whitney, and was held in Philadelphia in December, 1894. The temporary union of the three organizations was natural and convenient, since most of the classical archæologists are members of the Philological Association, and the most prominent anthropologists are members also of the Archæological Institute. It is understood that the three bodies will meet together again next year, in Washington, in the Christmas holidays.

The arrangements for the recent meeting were satisfactory in every way. In bad weather the distance of the hotels from the halls of meeting might have been disagreeable, but, with the exception of a single evening, the skies were bright and the air mild. The University was most hospitable. Its buildings were thrown open for the meetings of the associations, and the visitors were invited to luncheon each day in Sage College. Ex-President White, in a charming address of greeting, took occasion to correct a more or less prevalent belief in the early hostility of Cornell University and State universities generally to humanistic studies. President Schurmann not only offered a formal welcome, in eloquent and thoughtful words emphasizing the worth of the studies of humanity which the associations represented, but also gave at his own house a reception which, with the luncheons at Sage College, supplied the opportunity for the social element which is always important in such gatherings. A "smoker" at the Town and Gown Club served for a still more informal meeting of the men. The programmes had been arranged so skilfully that the speakers were not hurried, and time was allowed for discussion. That no one could be present in two meetings at the same moment, had to be accepted as the result of a physical law, though often regretted.

More papers than usual were notable as being more than merely learned and scholarly. One of the most interesting was on the East Front of the Erechtheum by Mr. Gorham P. Stevens of New York, recently for two years Fellow in Architecture of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, whose drawings of the Erechtheum attracted much attention at the Archæological Congress held in Athens last spring. He proved most ingeniously and convincingly that this temple had on its east front two windows, the existence of which had not before been suspected, and he showed also the shape, size, and decoration of these windows, and their relation to the door. Similar in its ingenuity and convincing quality was the discussion of a noted so-called Hecatompedon inscription, by Mr. B. H. Hill of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. He showed that the order of the two stones which bear this inscription has been mistaken hitherto, and that nine of the eleven known fragments of the second stone can be assigned to their proper relative places. These papers would have been notable if they had been read before the Berlin Academy of Sciences or any other learned body. Professor Prentice of Princeton University presented an interesting paper on Magic on Lintels and Amulets, interpreting some late Greek inscriptions which appeared unintelligible—explaining some letters as initials of familiar words, and showing other groups to be cryptic substitutes for words in which the Greek letters, taken together, had the same numerical value. Dr. Caroline L. Ransom of Bryn Mawr College, who has recently come to be a high authority on classical furniture, discussed Egyptian stools, chairs, and couches, showing the tendency to give these articles of furniture legs in the shape of animals' legs, as if the chair or couch were walking, and correcting the restorations in several museums, where the legs of the furniture appear to be walking in different directions.

The paper by Professor Burt G. Wilder of Cornell University on the Nomenclature of the Brain was one of the most important of those read before the Philological Association. But no synoptical report of all the papers read can be attempted here, and the highly finished Annual Address of Professor Herbert Weir Smyth of Harvard University, President of the Philological Association, cannot satisfactorily be given in summary. This called attention in particular to the conservative elements in Greek literature and life. Miss Alice Fletcher of Washington, who was to have given the presidential address before the Anthropological Association, unfortunately was detained by illness.

Before a joint meeting of the three associations Prof. E. L. Hewett of Washington presented a careful and authoritative statement of the measures recently adopted by departments of the United States Government for the preservation of American antiquities, and indicated the line of legislation which is desirable. The Committee on the Preservation of the Remains of American Antiquity joined with the Council of the Archæological Institute in approving measures for the preservation of the Mesa Verde remains in Colorado, for the safety of which the Cliff Dwellers' Association has long been laboring.

Professor Elmer T. Merrill of Trinity College was elected President of the Philological Association. The officers of the Archæological Institute and its affiliated Schools of Classical Studies in general were reëlected or held over. But Prof. John H. Wright of Harvard University offered his resignation of the editorship of the Journal of the Institute (the *American Journal of Archæology*), which he has conducted with signal ability and success for nine years. He will edit also, it is hoped, the forthcoming volume of the *Journal*. His successor was not elected. The question of the reconstruction of the editorial committee of the Institute is complicated because of the variety of its publications. A second volume of Supplementary Papers of the School in Rome, a Bulletin of the School at Athens, with an account of the excavations of the last ten years on the site of ancient Corinth, an elaborate illustrated report of Dr. Tozzer, who has been for four years the Institute's Fellow in American Archæology, pursuing researches in Central America, and, not least, Professor Frothingham's great work on the Arch at Beneventum, are only the most important of the publications which the Institute has in readiness for the printer.

The Council passed a complimentary resolution with regard to Prof. W. H. Goodyear's architectural surveys of mediæval buildings. The Archæological Society at Cincinnati was accepted as an affiliated society of the Institute, and similar societies in St. Louis, Kansas City, Indianapolis, and other cities, which were reported as in process of organization, will be accepted on their complying with certain conditions. The statement that $100,000 had been secured as an endowment fund for the School in Rome was received with great pleasure. This fund is almost exactly the same as that of the School at Athens. The income from these funds, naturally, is far from sufficient to meet the necessary expenses of these schools. Most of the necessary income still is derived from annual contributions, chiefly from colleges and graduates of colleges, but the Managing Committees are glad to have at least a considerable part of the necessary income assured. Probably no institutions in the country, with like means, during recent years, have accomplished more important work for the higher education than these schools at Athens and in Rome. The most important item in the report of the School in Palestine was that the headquarters of the School were no longer to be in the Grand Hotel at Jerusalem, but that a suitable building had been secured.

At the opening of the meeting of the Managing Committee of the School at Athens, a brief and informal address was made in memory of the late Director of the School, Dr. Theodore Woolsey Heermance, who died in Athens at the close of last September, and sympathetic letters were read from foreign scholars, full of high appreciation of his work. No successor to Dr. Heermance was appointed, but this appointment, with certain instructions and limitations, was entrusted to a special committee.

THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

BALTIMORE, December 30, 1905.

The opening sessions of the Political Science and of the Historical Associations were held jointly on Tuesday evening, December 26, and were devoted to the address of welcome by President Remsen of Johns Hopkins University and the presidential addresses of Professor McMaster of the Historical Association and Professor Goodnow of the Political Science Association. President Goodnow took as his subject "The Growth of Administrative Discretion in the United States." After calling attention to the fact that a marked characteristic of English and American governmental polity, as compared with that of Continental systems, is the subjection of administrative officials to the control of the judiciary, Professor Goodnow dwelt upon the marked tendency of our courts in recent years to recognize the constitutionality of legislative acts granting great discretionary powers to those entrusted with the execution of the laws. As a conspicuous instance, he cited the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States upholding the validity of the Act of Congress which renders final the determinations of administrative officials with regard to the circumstances justifying the deportation of persons of Chinese descent, even though such persons claim to be native-born American citizens. This tendency to increase administrative powers the speaker showed to be caused and justified by the necessity for greater administrative efficiency if the governmental tasks of our present complex social and industrial life are to be satisfactorily performed. It is, therefore, a development which is not to be deprecated, even though it be away from the political ideas of the fathers of the Constitution. But, together with this increase of administrative powers which he thus approved, Professor Goodnow was careful to point out the correspondingly greater necessity of keeping purely administrative and technical matters beyond the control of partisan politics.

The second session, that of Wednesday morning, was largely devoted to a discussion of "Suffrage Conditions in the South"; Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard University considering the question from the historical and political points of view, and Mr. John C. Rose, United States District Attorney of Baltimore, examining it in its constitutional aspects. Mr. Rose emphasized especially the fact that the Southern States have been able so successfully to disfranchise their adult male negroes, the Fifteenth Amendment to the contrary notwithstanding, not so much because of the limited powers of the general Government, as because Congress has not seen fit to exercise the constitutional powers which it has. Yet doubt was expressed whether, should those powers be exercised to their fullest extent, the negroes would profit by it. Certain formal legal rights would thus be secured to them, but only at the cost of increased racial animosities and social and economic discrimination against them. The reading of the papers was followed by a vigorous discussion of the topic, Mr. H. E. Shepherd presenting the Southern point of view with especial vehemence. Mr. J. T. Stephenson of Pendleton, N. C., admirably supplemented the principal papers by an account of racial distinctions in general as found in Southern statute law since the civil war. The morning session was concluded by a paper from Mr. George L. Fox of the University School, New Haven, on the subject of "Corrupt-Practices-at-Elections Acts since 1890 in the United States." Mr. Fox has for some years taken a very active part in the movement for purifying politics in his own State, and drafted the bill which was recently before the Connecticut Legislature. The conclusion which he drew from his personal experience and from his study of the experiences of other States, was that while such corrupt-practices acts as had been passed had in large measure remained dead-letter laws, there was no insuperable or even very serious difficulty in enforcing them when well drawn and supported by a strong public opinion.

The afternoon session of Wednesday was devoted to International Law and Diplomacy, the papers in the main centring around the recent great international drama in the East. Professor Latané of Washington and Lee University read a paper on "The Use of Neutral Waters by Belligerents," in which he showed the great divergence between the strict views upon this matter held by England and the United States, and the very lax ones held and practised by France. Prof. Amos S. Hershey of the University of Indiana, in an interesting paper, dwelt upon the extent to which recent events, especially those of the Far East, have resulted in still further increasing that friendship between England and the United States which England's attitude during the Spanish-American war so greatly stimulated. The concluding paper at this session was by Judge Simeon E. Baldwin, who compared the results of the Montevideo Congress of the seven South American Powers in 1888 with those of the Hague Conferences of most of the European nations in 1893, 1894, 1900, and 1904. The Montevideo Congress attempted a complete codification and dealt with universal rules, and its conclusions have been ratified by but a few Powers. The Hague Conferences more wisely confined their attention to a few subjects, such as marriage, guardianship, etc., and their conclusions upon them have been ratified by most of the European States. Mr. Arthur K. Kuhn of the New York bar, in discussing Judge Baldwin's paper, adverted to the extent to which American citizens are often hampered by local rules against aliens in litigating in European countries, and urged that, to correct this evil, as well as for other reasons, the United States should no longer keep aloof from the efforts that European nations are making to harmonize, upon particular points at least, their respective systems of civil jurisprudence.

The meeting of Thursday morning was a joint session with the American Economic Association, the subject for discussion being "The Municipal Ownership of Public Utilities." The principal papers were read by Mr. F. C. Howe of Cleveland, O., and Prof. W. M. Daniels of Princeton University. Mr. Howe emphasized the advantages to be obtained from municipal ownership. The real question he declared to be not a commercial one, but one of democratic government, inasmuch as it is the corrupting influence of private franchises that is responsible for most of the corruption in our city politics. Professor Daniels, on the other hand, doubted whether the economy of municipal ownership has as yet been sufficiently demonstrated; and, as regards the purification of politics, was inclined to lay greater stress upon a better organization of city governments.

"The cure for our economic ills is to be found primarily in a political readjustment of the framework of city government. As I view the matter, there is no escape under a representative government from reposing responsibility in some person or persons. Let political responsibility be undivided, and let it be located so clearly that concealment is impossible; let the task of cashiering the dishonest or the incapable administrator or legislator be stripped of all indirection or subterfuge, and reduced to the greatest simplicity possible by a radical cut in the number of elected officials—and the choice between municipalization or a franchise policy becomes the comparatively simple question of the relative advantages of widening public control or of enlarging governmental administration."

At the session of Thursday afternoon, four papers dealing with different questions of politics were read. Miss Mary L. Hinsdale of Radcliffe College considered the history of the efforts that from time to time have been made to obtain admission of the heads of executive departments to the floor of Congress. Mr. Theodore Marburg of Baltimore presented a philosophical discussion of the principles of State interference. Whereas, in former years, liberty meant freedom of the individual from restraint by the State, it now often means State interference to protect the individual against oppression by others. Mr. Henry Jones Ford of Baltimore, in a vigorous paper, criticised those political scientists who, like Professor Burgess, would limit the scope of their inquiries to the analysis of the developed States of Europe and North America, thus excluding from study the very States—China, Russia, and Turkey—whose activities are at the present day the centres of disturbance in world politics. The last paper of the meeting was read by Mr. A. Maurice Low, who took for his topic "The Usurped Powers of the Senate." The usurpations upon which he particularly dwelt were the control that the upper house of Congress has gained in the matter of dictating Presidential appointments, or amending treaties and even of participating in their negotiations, and of the control of both revenue and appropriation bills.

Thursday evening was devoted to informal meetings of two of the various "Sections" which have been organized within the Political Science Association. The business meeting of the Association and the election of officers took place on Friday morning. The chief matter of business discussed was the future policy of the

Association in the matter of publications. A strong sentiment in favor of the issuance by the Association of a quarterly journal was manifested, and a committee was appointed to consider the feasibility of the project, and thereupon to take the steps necessary for its realization. Dr. Albert Shaw of New York City was elected President of the Association, Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, Mr. F. N. Judson, and Prof. H. A. Garfield, Vice-Presidents, and Prof. W. W. Willoughby of Johns Hopkins University, Secretary and Treasurer. Providence, R. I., was selected as the place for the next annual meeting. W. W. W.

AFTER TWENTY YEARS OF RESOLUTE GOVERNMENT.

DUBLIN, December 16, 1905.

The "twenty years of resolute governernment" which, according to Lord Salisbury, would settle the Irish question, have more than passed. Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Parnell, Lord Salisbury, have gone to their rest. Home Rule holds a place in the hearts of Irishmen much as it did twenty years ago. The demand for it is not accompanied by violence and disorder; therefore Englishmen do not now feel its necessity. A Liberal Ministry is in office. Lord Aberdeen has returned as Lord Lieutenant. There is none of the enthusiasm here that there was twenty years ago, when Mr. Gladstone and his party were in power. It is true that Mr. Morley, Mr. Bryce, and others who have ever since and all along shown the clearest conception of the necessity for radical change in Irish affairs, are now in the Ministry; but, as I have intimated, they are not backed by the enthusiasm that prevailed in England in the eighties. On both sides of the Channel we are older and graver. Seeing the peace which prevails here, the creditable manner in which county and local government committed to the people has been managed, and the better knowledge that prevails of the country through its having been opened up as a tourist resort, it is impossible that the former fierce opposition to Home Rule, based on the essentially iniquitous character of our people, could be maintained. On the other hand, the attitude of our Members towards the education question in England has left a soreness in the hearts of our English Liberal friends that is not likely ever to be fully eradicated. Here in Ireland, although Home Rule theoretically holds its old place and as many Members as formerly are pledged thereto, the inclination to sacrifice much for it has somewhat cooled. Local government and land legislation have satisfied many. There is less belief here than of old in any one measure, or any number of measures, affording a cure for all our ills. It is much to be doubted whether ecclesiasticism is really in favor of radical change; and the liquor interest, a powerful factor, alas! in our politics, better organized than formerly, cares more for itself than for the general good of the country.

Ireland, such as is left of it, though more shaded in opinion, its energies less concentrated and united towards one aim than in Mr. Parnell's time, is more generally really alive than then. Education has been doing its work. The Gaelic League has been an important influence for good in the country, giving the rising generation, male and female, other opportunities of showing their love for Ireland than by attending political meetings and swallowing all there uttered. We are not likely ever again in Ireland to find men wielding such unquestioned power as did O'Connell and Parnell. A section of Orangemen, while professing themselves still opposed to Home Rule, are coming to lose their dread of their Catholic fellow-countrymen, and to see that their mundane interests are identical. There is, perhaps, a more general opinion than ever before pervading all classes in the community that the present Castle régime must be changed. The workings of different land laws, of a different system of county government and education, the absence of an Established Church, render it more and more impossible for Englishmen to understand our affairs and legislate for us. Under Mr. Parnell's rule, the open expression of separatist opinion merged in the immediate hope of some form of nationality. A not insignificant body of our young men—their sentiments voiced in the columns of an able weekly, the *United Irishman*—now argue in favor of separation from England, at least on the Austro-Hungarian model, as the only satisfactory settlement. They heap ridicule on the Parliamentary party, and stigmatize Gladstonian Home Rule as but shadowy nationality.

It is best that these opinions should be openly expressed—that Englishmen should realize that Home Rulers are, in truth, the moderates. There is little doubt that, under a satisfactory settlement, such feelings would die out, as they did in Canada and Australia. Left to the management of our own affairs, the advantages of the connection are too patent not to be realized. We in Ireland have no record of self-centred nationality to hark back to, as there was in Italy, Hungary, Poland, and Finland, and as there is in Scotland. The unions existing between Sweden and Norway, and Austria and Hungary, were never of the clearly defined, incorporating character of the union Ireland generally would be willing to accept. It is unfortunate that, in the discussions of ten and twenty years ago, the connections of Norway-Sweden and Austria-Hungary were cited in favor of the union then contemplated between England and Ireland. Sweden and Norway have separated; there is a chronic state of unrest between Austria and Hungary. The Unionists are now naturally pointing with effect to the dénouement between those countries as the one certain result from material alteration in the present relations of England and Ireland.

Unity in political action is Ireland's only chance. There has, it is true, during the last hundred years been as much political union here as in other countries, but the majority has never occupied an official position where it could make itself respected. Therefore parties here always appear inchoate, and the least difference of opinion is put down to an ineradicable weakness in our character. At our corporations and public boards, in the management of our railways and commercial undertakings, there are no more serious differences of opinion than in other countries. The majorities rule, and we consequently hear nothing of their underlying disagreements. There are few instances of a country showing itself so generally united as Ireland, electing as it has done for the last quarter of a century a steady majority of four to one in favor of a particular measure. More striking still is the fact that four-fifths of her representatives, most of them poor men, many of them very able men, have resisted all the blandishments of London life and Government patronage, and have stoutly preserved their independence. All but Irish Nationalists who enter Parliament are sustained by the inspiring possibility of attaining Cabinet rank, of receiving titles, or securing lucrative settlements for life.

One of the strangest transformations that have ever occurred in public life has been performed by William O'Brien, once the spoiled darling of the Irish people, the embodiment of the idea of unity and discipline, the reuniter of parties after the Parnell split, the founder of the United Irish League. Two years ago he differed from three-fourths of his colleagues, including the ablest of them, upon a question of policy. He "retired from public life," "effaced himself," stopped the issue and sold off the plant of his paper, the *Irish People*. This "retirement" and "effacement" soon resolved themselves into a torrent of speech and oceans of print in virulent abuse of his old friends and comrades. He has, under the name of an "advisory committee," started what is in truth an organization in opposition to the League, and influenced a Parliamentary coterie apart from Mr. Redmond. He has now recommenced the publication of the *Irish People*. Through his marriage with a wealthy Russian lady he has large resources at command. There is no saying what trouble he may give in the coming elections.

To brace Ireland up for the election, to test the strength of Mr. O'Brien's following, to define the policy of the country, a convention was lately held under the presidency of Mr. Redmond and the Lord Mayor, in the Mansion House, Dublin—in the fine circular chamber built for the reception of George IV. in 1820, and mentioned in Byron's "Irish Avatar." Over 3,000 delegates attended from most parts of Ireland—a smaller proportion of them than usual from the south, where Mr. O'Brien's influence most prevails. It impressed me as the most representative and the weightiest of the conventions that have been held in Ireland during the past thirty years. The establishment of elective county, district, and urban councils has brought a larger proportion of thoughtful and responsible men to the front. Eleven hundred of the delegates were of this class. Sixty-three Irish members were present, and nearly three hundred Catholic clergy. There was a sprinkling of Protestants. The proceedings lasted two days and were harmonious. But one person spoke, and no one voted, in favor of Mr. O'Brien's proposals. Gladstonian Home Rule, as an "irreducible minimum," was demanded. The usual popular measures concerning land, laborers' dwellings, and education were ventilated.

Irish politicians are satisfied with Campbell-Bannerman's declarations so far. They have, however, been chilled by the admissions of Mr. Morley and others, whom they

most depended upon, that the Irish question in its wide sense is not now pressing. Mr. Bryce is one of Ireland's most convinced friends. Many regret that he is coming over as Chief Secretary. In the administration of the present hateful system, which he condemns, he can scarcely avoid finding himself in an unpopular position. There is some danger of opponents of a reasonable settlement setting pitfalls for him. It is possible that a man of such refined feelings, of such a literary and abstract turn of mind, may be disgusted and alienated by the rough necessities of his new responsibilities. William E. Forster would most probably have continued to follow Mr. Gladstone's lead in Irish affairs had he not been thrown in opposition, partly through the influence of the permanent officials through whom he worked in the same post that Mr. Bryce now fills.

It is unlikely that the full measure of Irish desires, such as Mr. Gladstone offered, can or will soon again be proposed by the Liberal party. All that can reasonably be expected at first is, that they will give themselves seriously to the passage of wide measures of devolution, such as handing over the principal Castle boards to an elective assembly, having at its disposal a definite portion of revenue drawn from Ireland. Without abating their conviction of the necessity of a more radical settlement, the Irish party could not refuse to support a Government that initiated changes which in their estimation would tend towards and prepare for a complete settlement. If, when Parliament meets, such are not promised or taken in hand, there is likely to be trouble between the Liberals and their former Irish allies. A good beginning is not being made in the retention as Vice-President of one of the principal Irish boards of Sir Horace Plunkett, who has not commended himself to national feeling.

Ireland has no desire to run the risk of further alienation from the Liberals on behalf of the English Catholics concerning education or otherwise. She may, however, through clerical influence, be driven into it. If this should happen, the relations between us and the Liberals may become more complicated even than at present.

Before closing, I may note an incident illustrative of the extraordinary character of Irish Castle government. Mr. Downes Martin, a Tipperary landlord, and his tenants have agreed as to the sale and purchase of an estate. It appears that the Castle had issued private instructions to the Estates Commissioners that wherever there was supposed to be intimidation on the part of the tenants, sales were to be indefinitely postponed. Two policemen have sworn that there was intimidation in this case. The landlord, his agent, and the tenants, all declare there had been none, that the arrangements between them had been freely and openly come to. The two policemen are believed, and the sale of the estate against the desires and to the loss of both landlord and tenants is broken off.

D. B.

LAMARTINE'S MARRIAGE.

PARIS, December 21, 1905.

Lamartine's reputation as a poet was made almost in a day; he could say, as was said of Byron, that he lay down and woke up famous. The 'Méditations,' which will be read as long as a French language lasts, were published in 1820. We know now, in all its details, the story of the relations of young Lamartine with Madame Charles, who was his inspirer; we know what influence this lady had upon him, and to this influence we may attribute the purity of the 'Méditations.' After her death, Lamartine was inconsolable, and it may be affirmed that he never again cherished the dream which he had cherished with Madame Charles in the solitude of Savoy. The 'Lac' will remain undying testimony to the character of the lofty passion of the young poet and of his inspirer.

The year which followed the death of the woman whom Lamartine has made immortal under the name of Elvire was the most unhappy of his life. He was entering on his twenty-ninth year; he had no object, no profession, no fortune. His family, on account of his delicate health, had prevented him from entering the army; literature was not, in those times, considered a paying profession; he had tried to enter the diplomatic service, but, so far, had not been successful; he spent most of his time at Milly, in the neighborhood of Macon. He fell ill towards the beginning of 1819, and went to Paris, to get medical advice. He was invited to several houses, where he recited some of his verses; he was handsome, had a melancholy and poetical face—his person had as great a success as his verses; but he received no encouragement from the Foreign Office, and he left, very much discouraged, for Aix-les-Bains with his friend Aymon de Virieu, in August, 1819.

He met there a young Englishwoman, whom he had seen already at Chambéry; he had forgotten her, but she had not forgotten him. Marian Eliza Birch was the only daughter of William Henry Birch and of Christina Cordelia Reessen. The father was dead, and she was living with her mother at Chambéry in Savoy. Lamartine first saw her there; she had heard much about him at the house of some French friends, and had heard him recite some of his verses. She became enthusiastic over him. She was twenty-nine years old, and when they saw each other again at Aix, their acquaintance rapidly became intimate.

Among the family papers which are kept in the Château of Saint-Point was found an envelope bearing this superscription in the hand of Mme. de Lamartine: "Letters of the year 1820, on my marriage." The envelope contains all the letters which the poet wrote for months to his future wife, from the time when he declared his love to her to the day of their marriage. There is found, besides, the official letter in which Lamartine's father asks for the hand of Miss Birch for his son. The correspondence, so carefully preserved, was at first secret. The first letter bears this endorsement: "Alphonse, Aix, 14th August, 1819"; it is a proposal of marriage. "I would beg you not to judge with severity the means which necessity forces me to take, and to read this letter to the end." It is clear from this beginning that Lamartine had received no encouragement from the mother of Miss Birch; in fact, after having declared his love, he says:

"We shall probably find on both sides obstacles of equal force, but no obstacle will be as strong as the sentiment which guides me. This sentiment, which I have known once in my life, could be torn from my heart only by the loss of what I loved. Since that time I have lived in a state of perfect indifference; but I have made your acquaintance, I have found in you so many perfect qualities, so much similarity between our tastes and feelings, so many perfections unknown perhaps to yourself, that I feel that I should be the happiest of men in uniting my days and destiny with yours."

The answer to this letter was not unfavorable, notwithstanding the efforts made by a friend of Miss Birch, Mademoiselle de la Pierre, who tried to hinder Miss Birch from getting engaged to Lamartine, and reminded her of his passion for Madame Charles. Mademoiselle de la Pierre represented Lamartine as a selfish man, who cared for nothing but her fortune. Long letters were written by Lamartine to Miss Birch in answer to the insinuations of Mademoiselle de la Pierre, and, after some hesitation, Miss Birch wrote to him a letter which was a formal promise.

There arose now a more difficult question, namely, to obtain the consent of the two families to the marriage. Lamartine had returned to Milly, where he unbosomed himself to his mother. Madame de Lamartine was anxious to see her son married, but Miss Birch was a Protestant; the brother-in-law and sisters-in-law of Madame de Lamartine, with whom she was anxious to be on the best of terms, were pious Catholics, and did not view with favor a union with a foreigner. They looked upon their nephew's project as too romantic and risky. Notwithstanding these difficulties, M. de Lamartine, the father, wrote on the 21st of September an official letter asking the hand of Miss Birch for his son. Mrs. Birch was still at Chambéry; Lamartine himself wrote also to her on the 26th of September, "in order to try to dissipate the unfavorable impressions which might perhaps be created in her mind by the differences of country and religion, and to allay the fear, so natural, of separation from what was dearest to her." He offered not only to live with her, but to spend a part of the year in England. Mrs. Birch sent, by return post, an answer to these two letters; it was a somewhat harsh and very decided refusal. She had evidently the impression that Lamartine was seeking for her fortune, and wrote: "My fortune is not considerable, and my daughter will have nothing in my lifetime but what I may give her." Moreover, in her answer to Lamartine she insisted upon the fact that he had no employment and very little fortune.

The formal opposition of her parent did not discourage Miss Birch; her mind was fixed, and she continued to correspond with Lamartine. "All my sorrows were forgotten," he wrote on the 22d of November, 1819, "the day I read that your sentiments had not altered, and that you had no part in the refusals which my family has received." He goes on to say that he had foreseen

that the question of his fortune would become a difficulty, and he adds:

"It is well that you should know exactly my position in this respect, as I have frankly set it before your mother. My family comes from good and ancient gentry, occupying by its origin and its fortune the first rank in its province. My father is the youngest of six children, having two brothers and three sisters; he alone is married. The totality of the fortune is about equally divided between all; this fortune, which, naturally as well as by their authentic intentions, reverts entirely to my sisters and myself, amounts to at least thirteen hundred thousand francs in land. . . . The declared intention of my parents, who live in the most perfect union, is that each of my sisters shall one day have one hundred and fifty thousand francs; there are five of them, which makes seven hundred and fifty thousand francs. You see what is to come to me. . . ."

The religious question, which was another difficulty, was settled by Miss Birch, who seems to have spontaneously offered Lamartine to turn Catholic. "I read," he writes to her on the 6th of December, 1819, "to my mother the little item in your letter on the point of religion; she was very much moved by it." In the same letter he avows having incurred some debts in his youth which were paid by his family. He confesses to have been one of "those inconsiderate and prodigal characters of whom you speak; I have indeed expiated it." Lamartine remained all his life one "of those inconsiderate and prodigal characters." He lived always too much in the world of dreams. Immediately after a long account of his money affairs, he sends to Miss Birch the last "Méditation" which he had composed—"La Prière," beginning with

"Le roi brillant du jour se couchant dans sa gloire."

"I am sorry," he says, "to have covered a page and a half with these verses, but if they please you a moment, I pardon myself." They did please Miss Birch, and we cannot wonder at it. She loved the poet, and would have none of the questions which occupied the two families of Lamartine and Birch come between them. What she was as a girl, she remained as a woman; Lamartine was really her god.

Lamartine's reputation as a poet was rapidly extending. We have all the letters which he wrote to Miss Birch from Paris; he was named *attaché d'ambassade*, and Mrs. Birch's opposition to the marriage ended at last. The 'Méditations' appeared on the 13th of March, 1820. They formed a volume of 116 pages, containing twenty-four poems, without any author's name. Lamartine wrote to Miss Birch: "I have just published a small volume which has a success here that astonishes me, especially in this anti-poetical time. I have kept the first copy for you. The beginning and the end of all my actions belongs now to you." He was thinking of her when he wrote these verses:

"Au fond de cette coupe où je buvais la vie
Peut-être restait-il une goutte de miel.
Peut-être l'avenir me gardait-il encore
Un retour de bonheur. . . ."

—an allusion to the past which Miss Birch well understood. The marriage contract was signed in May. Mrs. Birch gave her daughter 10,000 pounds sterling, keeping for herself the income, a part of which only (6,000 francs) went to Lamartine and his wife. The marriage ceremony took place at Pugny, near Chambéry; the father of Lamartine was represented by Count Joseph de Maistre. Thereupon Lamartine and his wife left for Italy, with Mrs. Birch. Madame de Lamartine remained always what we have seen her at first; she was entirely and absolutely devoted to her husband and to his glory.

Correspondence.

FOOTBALL REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Most of the suggestions that have been made public concerning the reform of college football, seem to go wide of the mark, because they are not aimed at the real evil. The maiming, or even the killing, of a boy now and then during a game is not of great consequence except to the boy himself, and to his family and friends. The real evil of the game, under present conditions, is the debasing of the ideals, not of college boys alone, but of all the boys in the country that are large enough to wear trousers. The most captivating honors in school are now to be won, not in the classroom, but on the athletic field. It is the monstrous disproportion between work and play in school life that needs reforming, not the rules of the game.

So long as a dozen youngsters are permitted to go out and earn $50,000 in a day, playing football, and, worse yet, are permitted to spend it all for sport in a single season, it matters not what the rules of the game are. A pillow-fight for such stakes would be as mischievous.

What could be more grotesque than the make-believe efforts of college faculties to keep college sports on an amateur basis, by prohibiting the earning during vacation of a few dollars in playing the game by the members of a team, and permitting them to make it their main business, in term-time, to train, get into condition, and earn thousands of dollars by the same means?

The point of view of the candidates of the teams is that of the professional; the training for the games is that of the professional; and the spirit in which the games are played is worse than that of the professional, who allows no unfair slugging, even in prize-fights. The American college undergraduate is fast losing all conception of any difference between amateur sport and professional gaming.

If the playing of college games for money were prohibited, and the sports otherwise were put on a purely amateur basis, with some moderate restrictions as to the amount of time that may be devoted to sport in term-time, the matter of the rules of the game might safely be left with the boys, where it belongs; and it seems likely that, after a little while, work and play in school would resume their proper perspective.

Frank W. Proctor.

Fairhaven, Mass., December 29, 1905.

WHAT THE NAVY NEEDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have a briefer answer than yours to the question What the Navy Needs. It needs destruction. There are reasons for believing that the time has come when the Christian nations must face the question of disarmament. The rampant militarism bred by war and breeding war in its turn is not only a gigantic crime: it goes to the limit of senselessness and absurdity, and excites the disgust of all right-minded men. This implies, of course, that the President is not a right-minded man. I have read carefully what he says in his recent message about "demagogues of peace" and disarmament, and I seem to be the only man in the country that has done so. That such argument should be accepted without comment is sufficient proof of the intellectual and moral confusion of the times.

Roosevelt to the contrary notwithstanding, I here affirm that there are no "demagogues of peace," and cannot be in the present condition of human opinion; and that the Rooseveltian proposition that "disarmament can never be of prime importance" is the contrary of the truth It would be nearer the truth to say that it alone is of prime importance. But here a misapprehension must be corrected. It is not, as the President assumes, "the free peoples, the enlightened, independent, and peace-loving peoples, who, on the whole, stand for justice," that are invited to disarm; there are no such peoples on the globe. The armies and navies that menace the peace of the world and impose upon us an intolerable burden of taxation, are now maintained by the "barbarisms" and "despotisms" that call themselves "Christian"; and it is this stupendous mockery and hypocrisy that the handful of men whom the President stigmatizes as "demagogues of peace" would abolish.

"There is more need to get rid of the causes of war than of the implements of war," says the President. But what if among the causes of war the implements of war hold a conspicuous place? What if a navy is a challenge to combat rather than a guaranty of peace? What if the Rooseveltian doctrine of the navy as a guaranty of peace is contradicted by universal experience and discredited by enlightened reason?

Alvah F. Hamilton.

Granville, O., January 1, 1906.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF MUSEUMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue, Professor Moore finds danger in a policy of choice in museum collections between objects of artistic interest for public exhibition and objects of scientific interest for private study. Nevertheless, that such a policy has the sympathy of the instructed public, is indicated by a quotation from the last number of *Le Musée*, which has come to hand as I write:

"The public is accustomed to consider the Louvre as a museum of art, and it does not look favorably upon the choice of works which have merely the interest of curiosity. We have secondary museums where the learned can accumulate to their hearts' content the paintings and sculpture of minor artists, noteworthy mainly for their rarity. Here belong also collections of archæological fragments which, however they may aid us in following the artistic or political developments of nations, are nevertheless incapable of giving either a vision of art or a vital lesson, and have significance only under the glass of the expert."

(*Le Musée*, Revue d'Art Antique, Paris, Nov.-Dec., 1905, II. 6. 'Le Carnet de l'Amateur,' p. 2.)

Very truly yours, I. L. M.

January 5, 1906.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in preparation a so-called "manuscript edition" of Thoreau's complete writings, limited to 600 sets, "each containing a page of Thoreau's autograph manuscript." The illustrations will be from photographs. The last fourteen of the twenty volumes will contain the Journal, edited by Bradford Torrey.

J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, have in preparation for the spring 'The Fall of Tsardom,' by Carl Joubert; 'Consumption: Its Relation to Man and Civilization,' by John Bessner Huber, M.D.; and 'Heroes of Discovery in America,' by Charles Morris.

A new, extensively revised edition of Champlin's 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Common Things' will be issued directly by Henry Holt & Co.

The *Vossische Zeitung* of Berlin reports the details of a contemplated chronological edition of Goethe's poems under the auspices of the Berlin Gesellschaft für Deutsche Literatur. In the address of the chairman, Prof. Erich Schmidt, in which the work was outlined, attention was drawn to the fact that Goethe had himself emphatically refused to publish his works in chronological order, and that Heine and Scherer regarded the æsthetic arrangement adopted by the great poet as indispensable for the proper appreciation of their beauties. But Schmidt considers a chronological edition demanded for scientific and literary reasons, and proposes to arrange the poems under the following heads: (1) The poems down to the Strassburg period, 1770; (2) to the autumn of 1771; (3) to November, 1775; (4) to the Italian journey; (5) all others according to Goethe's own arrangement.

Mr. Justin McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times' (Harpers) is brought to a close by the recent publication of the fourth and fifth volumes. These carry the story from Queen Victoria's Jubilee in 1897 to her death in 1901. Mr. McCarthy's method, style and point of view are too widely known to require comment; it will suffice to say that the level of previous volumes is maintained. A considerable space is devoted to a retrospect of the social, literary, and artistic aspects of Victoria's reign.

A very interesting personage is the subject of a thesis by Mr. A. E. Shaw entitled 'Michel de l'Hospital and his Policy' (Henry Frowde). L'Hospital stands out among his contemporaries in France nearly as strongly as More does in England; and although Mr. Shaw does not venture on the broad field of historical parallels, yet he does useful work by his painstaking summary of the subject.

In his 'Monopolies, Trusts, and Kartells' (London: Methuen), Mr. F. W. Hirst contends that competition is still the life of trade. Even as to railways, he holds that the case for great combinations has not been made out. Experience, he thinks, is against the assumption that competing roads will come to an agreement as to traffic for which they are rivals. Admitting that competition cannot entirely solve the transportation problem, the author favors, not nationalization, but control which will fix rates, encourage competition, discourage amalgamation, and prevent personal discrimination. Railway monopoly, at most, merely means a margin of superiority over waterways, trams, busses, and human legs! As weapons of defence, public authorities may employ alternative means of transport, especially canals, and potential rail routes, as well as taxation, in dealing with roads charging high rates or "unrighteously struggling after monopoly." Mr. Hirst charges protective tariffs with the entire responsibility for Trusts. The balance of economies of large organizations has not increased in the last fifty years; and Trusts, he thinks, have betrayed in times of emergency the same signs of weakness as competitive industries. The real purpose of Trusts is to raise prices; and in free-trade countries no Trust can raise prices above the natural or international level. He says, in fact: "Most if not all the English Trusts are merely large, well-organized business concerns which are so cleverly managed that they earn for a time enormous business profits, and perhaps undersell and ruin most of their competitors, so as to establish temporarily a quasi-monopoly. In course of time, however, they decline and fall before new and more energetic competitors."

In our recent remarks on "Yale Studies in English," no reference was made to the latest member of the series, No. XXIX. (already published then, but not at hand), a voluminous edition of Ben Jonson's "The Devil is an Ass." The editing, by Dr. W. S. Johnson, if not inspired, is on the face of it an honest attempt at scholarly thoroughness. As against 122 pages of Jonson's text, there are 200 pages of introduction, notes, etc. This material a more experienced and self-denying editor, for example Professor Dowden, would undoubtedly have managed to condense, omitting many of the notes. It is questionable whether "the present editor" has denied us any of the "results" of his "study." In fact, like several other members of the series, this seems to suffer from what may be called a lack of artistic restraint in annotation. Shunning difficulties by silence is more common.

A new revision of the Schlegel-Tieck German translation of Shakspere, by Professor Conrad, has just made its appearance in five elegant volumes issued by the Deutsche Verlagsanstalt of Stuttgart. That a revision of this standard text was necessary had been recognized on all hands, and efforts in this direction had been repeatedly made. Conrad's labor has been expended largely on the metre, the exact reproduction of the thought, and the correction of blunders on the part of earlier translators.

Ferdinand von Richthofen's last work, an incomplete report of the 'Ergebnisse und Ziele der Südpolerforschung,' which he had begun to prepare by direction of the Kaiser, has been printed at the special request of the latter, and published by the house of Dietrich Reimer, Berlin. The famous geographer gives a thorough survey of the problems to be solved by the south-polar expeditions, and describes particularly the services of the German expedition under Von Drygalski, a pupil of Von Richthofen, in this direction, above all in the investigation of the fauna and flora of the regions explored. This is the extent to which Von Richthofen had completed his work, but no materials have been found to indicate how he intended to continue it, beyond a discussion of such problems as the meteorology and kindred subjects of the polar world.

The *Deutsche Medizinische Wochenschrift* reports that the fears entertained some years ago, when women were admitted to the study of medicine at the German universities, that they would in the course of time prove serious rivals to male practitioners, have been proved unfounded. Official statistics, as well as the special investigations of Dr. Johanna Maass, have shown that, since the year 1900, only forty-six women have been admitted to practice in Germany, and only six have become dentists. Only thirty-one women physicians could still be traced, and, of these, nine are found in Berlin; of the six women dentists only one is in the capital city. Of the thirty-one reporting, twenty-four confine their practice to women and children, four are specialists, and three are assistants at medical institutes. State examinations were taken by these women in eleven university towns, and thirty took academic degrees. Four are married.

The Cultus Ministerium of Rumania has arranged with the German Government to establish a Philological Seminary for the Rumanian language in connection with the University of Berlin. The new arrangement is to go into operation during the present winter semester, and the work is to be in charge of Dr. Heinrich Tiktin, who will bear the title of ordinary professor in the University. The Rumanian Government devotes 20,000 francs per year to this new departure.

The Japan Year-Book Office in Tokio issues for one dollar, gold, a 'Japan Year-Book' of 400 indexed pages in 29 chapters, with appendix, giving the usual facts, figures, and descriptions appropriate to such a publication, including a sketch of the late war, diplomacy, finance, texts of the Anglo-Japanese alliance and the Korean treaty, and (what will interest foreign readers more than anything else) 60 pages of biographical data concerning "contemporary worthies," forming a pretty fair beginning for a Japanese 'Who's Who.' Though written by Japanese, the English is very good, and next year's edition is promised for May.

While Japan affects the benevolent assimilation of Korea's foreign policy and professes virtuous abstinence from interference in her domestic concerns, it is good to have an independent critic, with at least respectable powers of observation and judgment, who is bold enough to speak the truth as he sees it. The delayed October number of the *Korea Review* contains a powerfully written arraignment of "Japan as a Colonizer," showing the abominable customs of the low-class subjects of the Mikado. From them, and not from the polished gentry, comes the typical man now domineering this Oriental Finland. They "do not hesitate to kick and beat and rob Koreans right and left"; they "build in Seul on a prominent site a huge brothel, housing hundreds of the votaries of vice, and flaunt it in the face of Koreans"; they have "not

one word of genuine sympathy nor a hint as to real helpfulness," nor have the official class of Japanese "the primary and fundamental qualifications for successful handling of the Korean people." The article on "The Korean Customs Service" is a valuable historical review of what is righteous and what is rotten in the finances of the now prostrate empire virtually absorbed by Japan. In the news calendar we read that "experiments with American cotton seed in Korea having proved successful beyond expectation, the Cotton Association has arranged to establish thirty seed-cotton farms in various sections of Korea."

The trade of the United States with the principal countries of the world will be the subject of a series of articles to be published weekly during the coming year by the Department of Commerce. It began on January 1 with the United Kingdom, showing what our trade with that country was in 1905, and the principal articles which formed the exports and imports, and comparing present conditions with those of earlier years. The design of the series is to stimulate the public interest in this study of our foreign commerce.

The October number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* began publication of Washington's Household Account-book, 1793-97, in the Society's possession. The first eighth is in the handwriting of Tobias Lear, the rest in that of Bartholomew Dandridge. Of more curious interest is a translation of parts of a one-act drama, with analysis of the whole, by "Polonius" Kotzebue, called "The Quaker," in which the principal actors are Lord Howe and his son and Warner ("Walter") Mifflin and his. The verisimilitude on the Quaker side is noticeable, and the interview seized upon is historic. The translation is by Amelia M. Gummere.

A correspondent writes: "In last week's *Nation* (December 28) there is, under Notes, a brief notice of the latest issue ('Lear') of the pocket edition of the First Folio, 'so scrupulously edited by Misses Porter and Clarke.' I have just read 'Hamlet' in this edition, and surely every teacher and student of Shakspere must feel under obligation to both editors and publishers. The least excellent part of the editorial work is to be found, under 'Literary Illustrations,' in the interpretation of difficult passages, where the light of the New English Dictionary seems to have been shut out, and old guesses are repeated."

—Against the proposed rate legislation the charge of impracticability is brought with great force, in the January *Century*, by President Samuel Spencer, of the Southern Railway. The burden of his argument is that no such commission as is proposed could deal effectively and satisfactorily with the innumerable intricate questions which arise, and many of which must receive almost instantaneous adjustment unless serious injury is to be done to important business interests, often involving extensive sections of the country. The railroads themselves, we are told, find it necessary to employ about eight hundred traffic experts, in addition to something like three thousand soliciting and travelling freight agents, whose duty it is to study the peculiar and constantly changing conditions of their various sections. Can this intricate mechanism be subjected to the positive rate-making power of an outside commission, necessarily composed of comparatively inexperienced men, without serious danger of throwing vast business interests into disastrous confusion? President Spencer thinks not. Congressmen who are proposing to pass beyond the punishment and restraint of actual abuses and take up the positive direction of the traffic business, would do well to ponder the reasons for his opinion. For the Franklin anniversary, the *Century* has had the good fortune to secure a paper by the late Secretary Hay, on Franklin in France, prepared for delivery in Chicago some years ago, but never used because of Mr. Hay's ill-health at the time. Mr. Hay humorously calls attention to the fact that our first foreign minister was a defeated candidate for Congress, Silas Deane, who was sent to France some months in advance of Franklin and Arthur Lee. "A quiet legation is the stuffed mattress which the political acrobat wants always to see ready under him in case of a slip."

—The selections from Bancroft's letters and diaries, which have been a marked feature of *Scribner's* for some months past, come to an end in the January issue with the close of his diplomatic service at Berlin. The extracts are largely of a personal nature, and bring the reader into contact with many eminent characters, including Lepsius, Bekker, Ranke, Trendelenburg, Hofmann, and Curtius, together with various men of high political rank. In one letter we have an account of the escape of the Empress from Paris, in 1870, the details of which Mr. Bancroft had from Dr. Evans himself, shortly after the event. One of the most pleasant incidents of his service was the formal renewal, by the University at Göttingen, of the doctor's degree which he had received just fifty years before. Thomas F. Millard, writing of the settlement between Japan and Russia, shows an emphatic unwillingness to believe that any lasting equilibrium has been established. Korea is simply held under Japanese tutelage by force, with no hope for a restoration of freedom, and there is no promise of any genuine reversion to Chinese administration in Mantchuria. On the basis of personal observation during repeated sojourns in Mantchuria, he expresses the conviction that Japan, during her short occupation of southern Mantchuria, has done far more to destroy Chinese autonomy than Russia had ever done. Of course, there is the inevitable corollary, from the whole situation, that the United States should largely increase its naval strength in the Pacific. If the germs of that conclusion do not exist in any premises whatever, it will at once appear by spontaneous generation.

—Judge Francis C. Lowell opens the *Atlantic* with a plea against the adoption by this country of a strictly professional diplomatic service. We could ill afford, he thinks, to adopt a method which would in the past have excluded from our foreign service such men as Motley, Bayard Taylor, Choate, Lowell, and Andrew D. White, ministers whose general culture and ability have proved of far more value to us than any amount of mere professional training. Our ministers to Great Britain during the past half-century are compared with the lists of British ministers to this country and to France, to the decided advantage of the American list. The European method, he thinks, sacrifices initiative to routine, and so fails in great emergencies. Incidentally he touches upon one serious result of the fact that small salaries have led gradually to the almost exclusive selection of our leading ministers from the wealthy classes. Forced to use of their own funds, they expend altogether too lavishly, and so establish a precedent very burdensome to any successor of less, or possibly even of similar, wealth. To establish conditions under which no one but a multi-millionaire would consent to hold an ambassadorship, would evidently be a great misfortune. The growing evil should be controlled, he suggests, by setting the salary at a reasonable figure, and giving strong intimation to the incumbent that expenditure beyond this sum would be looked upon with serious disfavor. Samuel P. Orth writes of special legislation in our State Legislatures, with reference to the possibility of some substitute. Many requests for such legislation are inherently equitable, but the whole field of private bills belongs rather to the realm of adjudication than that of legislation, and the Legislature should be relieved by the creation of some properly constituted body to deal with business of this nature. Great advantage would be gained, he thinks, by a return to the old New England idea of local self-government. In the absence of some effective method of dealing with merely local and private matters, constitutional prohibitions are and must ever be ineffective to prevent special legislation.

—Among the innumerable exceptions to Dr. Osler's famous dictum we beg leave to catalogue one Dr. Lavendar, of Old Chester, Pennsylvania, who, at an age of presumable incapacity, again steps forward, in the pages of *Harper's*, as leading character in a new novel. Is it not about time for the establishment of a Carnegie fund to lighten the labors of aged characters in the field of fiction? Mr. Nevinson's slave-trade investigation continues in the same depressing strain. He believes, though admittedly without conclusive evidence, that efforts were made to poison him by parties interested in suppressing his revelation of present conditions. A forecast of his closing paper, to appear in February, indicates a severe arraignment of England for her neglect of alleged responsibility in the matter, and an urgent call to our own Government to enter vigorous protest against the continuance of the evil. Less harrowing to the nerves are a number of articles of more remote ethnological interest, including a description of recent mound explorations in the Black Warrior River region of Alabama, by H. Newell Wardle of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, a collection of legends of the City of Mexico, by Thomas A. Janvier, and a paper on the Indian music of South America, by Charles Johnson Post. The Easy Chair is moved by the Conway autobiography to moralize entertainingly on the old problem whether there was really any possibility that the evils of the past should have been by choice avoided, while Dr. Alden, in the Study, still continues to find grounds for an optimistic view of present-day literature.

—The quarterly periodical by way of eminency, the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde), continues in its January issue the

letter R (Reign-Reserve) under the direction of Mr. W. A. Craigie. The prefix re- of course plays an extensive part in this section—Reign to Reserve—and it would puzzle not only a foreigner but a native to distinguish it in every case, and to pronounce rapidly the words here found in juxtaposition. Reigning, Reignite, Reillume, Reim, Reimage, are examples found on the first page. We have marked for notice some proofs of the birthright fluidity and redundancy of our speech. Relation (kinsman) is recorded for 1502; Relative, at a decent interval, for 1657. From 1485 Repository was spelt with penultimate *o*: in 1862, Dean Goulburn (or shall we rather say his printer?) preferred *a*, and now one may take his choice. In 1832 Harriet Martineau used the form Reproduceable; in 1834, Reproducible, the handier of the two. Repertory, in the sense of 'index, list,' goes back to 1552, and first in 1845 annexes the meaning of dramatic stock; from 1847 to 1885 the French *répertoire* was adopted as French; in 1897 one no longer feels called upon to italicize the word, whose naturalization is assured by dropping the accent of the first *e*. We have now, consequently, two English equivalents. Similarly, in 1451, Replevy was English for the writ, side by side with the Anglo-French Replevin. Renown (by way of Anglo-French) was well established in the fourteenth century, but Chaucer took over Renomee' from Old French, while Lord Berners, translating Froissart in 1523, adventured Reno'me, which it would have been handy to keep for poetic resource (as would Remenant for Remnant). Finally, the spellings Repellant and Repellent have an equal age and authority.

—There are plenty of people who still need to be told that Reliable is a grand old English word (1569), even if it came into familiar use only some three centuries later, Coleridge meantime (1816) building Reliability upon it; Mr. Craigie briefly sets this forth, with a mention of analogies and a proper reference to the late Fitzedward Hall's standard work on adjectives in -able, -ible. Under Religion is noted Cicero's derivation (*relegere*, 'to read over again'), along with our modern preference for *religare*, 'to bind,' in the effort to find a definition and a sanction. Under Reins is a curious quotation from Wyclif's version of Ezekiel ix. 2: "O man . . . clothid with lynnen, and an ynkhorn of a wryter in his reynes," where the King James version reads: "And one man among them was clothed with linen, with a writer's inkhorn by his side." Reporter (for the press) turns up in 1815, but the verb to Report only about 1850—Reportorial, which seems not to have been laughed down as irregular, in 1860. Reminisce, which suggests journalistic coinage, began as transitive verb in 1829, and was in intransitive employ in 1882. Addison (1702) is cited for Republic of Letters, showing one phase of the Oxford Dictionary as a book of familiar quotations. The older parties grow, the more difficult it is to formulate their principles, so we will conclude with Mr. Craigie's account of what constitutes Republicanism in the United States: "A party . . . which favors liberal interpretation of the Constitution, extension of the central power, and a protective tariff."

—The eleventh annual meeting of the Central Division of the Modern Language Association of America occurred at Madison, Wis., December 27-29. "The attendance," writes a correspondent, "was somewhat smaller than on former occasions, yet about one hundred were present at the opening session. As hosts, the faculty of the University of Wisconsin were ideal. Their hospitality was Western in its cordiality, Southern in its graciousness. To receptions, luncheons, and smokers the members of the Association have been accustomed; but to a hospitality that included the entertainment of the visitors during the entire meeting at the homes of the members of the general faculty of the University, they have hitherto been strangers. Of the papers presented at the meeting it is impossible to speak in detail. The chairman's address does, however, demand special mention. Professor Blackburn chose as his theme 'A Neglected Branch of the Teaching of English.' This neglect he defined as 'training in talking, in the oral use of the mother tongue—not oratory, lectures, etc., but the use of speech in the ordinary events of life.' Professor Blackburn pointed out the fundamental distinction between learning to speak a language and learning to read and write it. The one depends upon the memorizing of facts, the other upon the gaining of skill through practice. They are, therefore, two distinct branches. But modern social life, while rendering both indispensable, has provided very inadequately for the former. The child acquires such knowledge of the mother tongue as he may through the associations of home, playground, and the street; a large part of the instruction thus given being ill fitted to develop correct habits of speech. In the secondary school the conditions are scarcely more favorable. Here the training in oral speech is confined mostly to the correction of bad habits of speaking, and does not tend toward the development of either fluency or correctness. In the college, conditions are, if possible, still more unfavorable. Here special attention is given to practice in writing, while practice in speaking is almost wholly neglected. The result of all this neglect of systematic training in the use of the spoken word is a lamentable inability on the part of most of us to express our meaning clearly and forcibly when occasion calls for it. The causes of this inability are many. One of the commonest is a lack of a stock of words thoroughly at command. Another cause is inexactness in the use of words, due to ignorance of their meaning and connotation. Mispronunciations, grammatical faults, slovenly utterance, and similar defects make up the sum total of the deplorable lack of skill in the use of speech so apparent among us. The remedy is to be found in more practice. Professor Blackburn suggested the use of oral themes as a part of the rhetorical training in school and college classes. He urged also that all recitations in any subject be treated as exercises in the development of correct habits of speech. In the study of foreign languages, ancient and modern, is afforded the best possible training in oral speech, since translation is a kind of oral composition. By such means, without burdening the overcrowded curriculum of the schools with new subjects, may teachers do much to supply the defects of early training in the use of the mother tongue. At the business meeting which concluded the sessions, officers for the ensuing year were chosen as follows: For chairman, Prof. E. P. Baillot of Northwestern University; for secretary, Prof. C. B. Wilson of the State University of Iowa, to succeed Prof. Raymond Weeks, whose resignation was accepted with regret. The executive committee will consist of Profs. T. A. Jenkins of the University of Chicago, H. M. Belden of the University of Missouri, and M. F. Liberma of the University of Cincinnati. The next meeting will be held at Chicago. The increase in membership of the Association during the past year has come largely from the Middle West. The total active membership is now 708."

SEA POWER IN 1812.

Sea Power in its Relations to the War of 1812. By Capt. A. F. Mahan, D.C.L., LL.D., U. S. N. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

In these handsome volumes, uniform with his other works on Sea Power, Captain Mahan is at his best. He has descended from the clouds of prophecy and speculation to walk with firm tread upon ground which he has made peculiarly his own. The involved and obscure style, so appropriate to the utterances of the seer, has disappeared, remaining, if at all, only as an occasional echo from the past, while the vigor of his sentences reflects the confident holding of opinions wherein lurks no shadow of doubt. Combined with these beliefs is a fine sense of responsibility to make others share them, and to present the course of the events which led to the War of 1812 as the inevitable result of certain economic and maritime doctrines carried to their logical extreme by one nation, which possessed an abundance of sea power, against a second, comparatively destitute both of the means and the will to resist. Others have recited the chronicles of the War of 1812, but it was reserved to Capt. Mahan to write its history. As an analyst, he traces the vexations and irritations precedent to hostilities back to their ultimate source; as a strategist, he describes the several campaigns and their incidents, both naval and military; and, as a naval officer, he perceives and preaches the inconceivable folly of not providing, in time, some respectable measure of defence.

The high plane from which he views this period can be best illustrated by suggesting that he appears to consider military and naval events, interesting and memorable as they are, as of no greater importance than the occurrences which brought them about. A few fights on land and sea are to him of less moment than the mighty flow of a country's development. A political principle, whether right or wrong, adopted by a sturdy people, maintained with inflexible resolution for nearly two centuries, accepted as the only possible means of self-preservation, regarded as the fountain of national prosperity, and never formally abandoned, is a large enough factor in the world's affairs to challenge the respect of the author, and to warrant his devoting to its unfolding over one-third of his eight hundred and thirty-odd pages. No better index of the general scope of this

work is needed than the large proportion it gives to antecedent and determining causes, a subject which Mr. Roosevelt, for example, in his 'Naval War of 1812,' very properly dismisses in half a dozen pages, as being aside from his purpose.

Capt. Mahan is quite right in saying that "it may seem at first far-fetched to go back to 1651 for the origins of the War of 1812; but without such preliminary consideration it is impossible to understand, or to make due allowance for, the course of Great Britain." The Navigation Act of that year, framed with the intent of forcing commerce into English bottoms as an indispensable agency for reaching British consumers, directed that "no merchandise from Asia, Africa, or America, including the colonies, should be imported into England in other than English-built ships, belonging to English subjects, and of which the master and mariners are also, for the most part of them, of the people of this commonwealth." "Foreign merchantmen," so Capt. Mahan points out, "might import into England the products of their own country; but both they and English vessels must ship such cargoes in the country of origin, not at any intermediate port." Later, a concession to foreign vessels was

"further qualified by heavier duties, called aliens' duties, upon their cargoes; and by the requirement that three-fourths of their crew entering English ports should be of the same nationality as the ship. The object of this regulation was to prevent the foreign state from increasing its tonnage by employing seamen other than its own. This went beyond mere protection of English vessels, and was a direct attack, though by municipal law, upon the growth of foreign shipping."

Having stated the aim of this and subsequent legislation by Parliament, the building up of British commerce, and the increasing of the number of English seamen available for employment in time of war, the author proceeds steadily and surely, by a chain of exceptional occurrences and through the devious paths of diplomacy and negotiation, to the day of our rupture with Great Britain, fortifying his conclusions at every step by reference to original documents or other acknowledged authority. England's attitude on the ocean towards foreign vessels was a natural corollary to the position she had assumed in her great Navigation Act. It was that of the strong man who deliberately ignores the rights of the weak. Adopted at first for selfish reasons, its maintenance in the gigantic struggle with Napoleon was held to be essential to England's very existence. No British writer could more luminously or powerfully write the brief for his own country's policy than has Capt. Mahan, in his desire to do strict justice to both parties to a quarrel wherein no adjustment was possible without sacrifice of principles conceived to be vital. Even the impressing of British seamen on board American ships, on the ground that allegiance was inalienable and that the King was entitled to the services of his subjects wherever found, which is commonly supposed to have been the chief ground for hostilities, had a certain show of reason at a time when, without sailors to man her ships, Great Britain would have fallen under the French sway. The practice was not at all universally reprobated by leading Americans at the very time. Galling beyond description were the restrictions put upon our shipping.

"The American found exerted over his national commerce a control indistinguishable in practice from that of colonial days. From what ports his ships should sail, whither they might go, what cargoes they might carry, under what rules be governed in their own ports, were dictated to him as absolutely, if not in as extensive detail, as before the War of Independence."

Under such conditions as these, the only wonder is that the break was so long deferred.

These opening chapters could not be shortened without injury. They are of absorbing interest, dealing with happenings often of a thrilling nature, and with a vivid play of human passions and prejudices on the largest scale. Their reading must, not infrequently, be exceedingly painful to us Americans, even if we do not all share Capt. Mahan's contempt for Jefferson, whose preference for gunboats, non-intercourse acts, and embargoes distinctly invited the indignities and insults to which the flag was subjected. The latter was not respected even when hoisted on board a national vessel. We can see how a little firmness and preparation, in season, would have spared us much humiliation, probably war itself. We must grieve over the position of the United States, whose commerce seemed likely to be crushed out of existence between the upper millstone of the Berlin Decrees and the nether millstone of the Orders in Council, and we blush for our duplicity in contending with France that the Emperor had not rescinded the Berlin Decrees, and, at the same instant, with Great Britain that we had. We shall never be great as a people until we cease being "smart."

In his preliminary discussion of the theatre of war and the strategy dictated by geographical conditions and by our own paucity of naval force, Capt. Mahan points out that the United States on the land could move offensively only on the Northern frontier, where reasons of both political and military expediency combined to impose prompt action. On the sea, she might harrass British commerce to some extent, but she could deliver no really effective blow against Britain's overwhelming fleet. Upon these two considerations might have been based a correct plan of campaign, involving a skilful disposition of our few ships, on the one hand, and a vigorous use of our army, on the other. It is interesting to note that, of the three officers whose opinions were asked by the Navy Department, to Commodore John Rodgers, who alone held broad and sound views as to the employment of our scanty marine, fate denied the opportunity of personal distinction which fell to the lot of his colleagues, Decatur and Bainbridge. He advised combined action and the moving in squadrons, while they favored dispersion of the ships and "relying upon the enterprise of their officers." The Department endeavored to adopt both suggestions, with the natural consequence of failure to secure the benefits of either. It is observable that Capt. Mahan apparently sees no valid ground in the events of this war for changing his often-expressed opinion as to the inconclusive nature of privateering, a subject which he deals with fully and sympathetically in his Chapter XIV.: "The achievement of the naval vessels was to that of the private armed nearly as three to two. These results may be accepted as disposing entirely of the extravagant claims made for privateering as a system, when compared with a regular naval service." His Chapter V. is worth reading for its careful exposition of conditions at the moment hostilities began, both as to men and means, and especially for its definition of the author's point of view.

The touchstone of Sea Power is applied even to the operations on our Northern frontier during the entire war, which, despite their seeming confusion, are now shown by this form of analysis to have been consistent and coherent. We were oblivious, as Brock was alive, to its potency; hence his successes at Detroit and elsewhere, and our own failures until Perry's victory on Lake Erie, after which the Northwest returned to the American fold. While using this principle as a guide through the tangle of events, it must not be supposed that the author has written a thesis in its defence; yet its truth, assumed from the outset, is tested at every point.

With the varying phases and incidents of this war, we are all so familiar that a new writer can hope only to elucidate some rather obscure point, such as Elliott's conduct at the battle of Lake Erie, Lawrence's mental attitude when he engaged the *Shannon*, and the tactics of certain encounters on sea and land, unless, as is the case with Captain Mahan, he brings to bear some fresh method of analysis to stimulate on the part of the reader an interest which monotony of previous narration had somewhat dulled. In considering both sides of the struggle, Captain Mahan is impelled to remark that "it is in such study of reciprocal action between enemies that the lessons of war are learned and its principles established, in a manner to which the study of combats between single ships, however brilliant, affords no equivalent," unconsciously emphasizing the difference between himself and his predecessors. At the same time he goes minutely into the operations of the various campaigns, so that any one who cares may learn all the tactical incidents of each action.

He finds that the harrying of our coast towns and even the burning of our national capitol were less influential in producing a willingness on our part to end hostilities than the rigid commercial blockade established and maintained by the British south of Narragansett Bay. American commerce, it appears, dwindled rapidly until, in 1814, it was practically annihilated. A few ships of war, instead of Jefferson's preposterous gunboats, would have repaid their cost a hundredfold. The universal distress created by the close grip on our harbors and estuaries is mentioned by all the historians who write of this period, notably by McMaster and Henry Adams, but its value as a military measure is best exhibited by Captain Mahan. One might almost say that the distinguishing feature of this history of a famous war is the prominence given to the indirect effects of its less striking naval movements.

The final chapter, giving the details of the peace negotiations, is most interesting. Hampered by the arbitrary demands of the British Government, the commis-

sioners were unable to agree even when both countries were heartily tired of war. Happily, at the critical moment, the sensible counsels of the Duke of Wellington turned the scale, and a treaty was signed wherein not a single principle for which we had unsheathed the sword was even mentioned. Wise in its day, and establishing a precedent which might well be followed now, Downing Street insisted on ratification without change or amendment in any particular, thus wantonly depriving our Senate of a rare opportunity to display its ability to undo good work.

There were, throughout the struggle, gallant deeds on sea and shore reflecting credit on Americans and British alike, but the story is, after all, saddening. Like many wars, this was ill-considered and foolish; like most wars, it was entirely avoidable. Of a prudent making ready in advance, as the Japanese have recently done, there is no trace. Our strategy was faulty to the verge of childishness; our military leaders at the outset were superannuated and incompetent; our own people, divided in sentiment, were so keen after gain that they traded with the enemy whenever and however they could. Ruthlessly destroying Newark, Ontario, we provoked the legitimate response of Ross and his invading army in the burning of our national capitol. Having neglected to fill the ranks of our regular army in season, we trusted to a militia that, but too frequently, broke and ran after the first volley.

On the other hand, the impressment of seamen, though never formally abandoned as a right by Great Britain, has not been practised by her since the Treaty of Ghent. So discordant were the various communities in our political body, and so conflicting their interests, that one is tempted to believe, with the historian, that only through the external pressure exerted by a strong and somewhat unscrupulous enemy could they have been welded into a self-contained and interdependent State; the Revolution finding its complement in the War of 1812. The former freed us; the latter made us into a nation. Herein we find such consolation as we may in reading one of the most scholarly and absorbing in the series of recent American histories, and eminently worthy of a place on the library shelf beside the larger works of Henry Adams, McMaster, Rhodes, and Woodrow Wilson.

The Flower Book. By Sir Edward Burne-Jones. London: The Fine Art Society. 1905. 300 copies numbered; no further issue.

It seems impossible that color reproductions of water colors could be carried to greater perfection than in this 'Flower Book' facsimile by the firm of Piazza & Co., Paris. At the Society's rooms in Bond Street opportunity has been given to compare the reproductions with the original designs in the book itself. The lack of imaginative art at the present moment, when technique alone and truth to nature are aims held in view by most artists, to the exclusion of beauty, has been much commented on and deplored; it is therefore of immense benefit that this work, containing all the best qualities of imaginative design, should now be within reach of so many more people than before, and should stimulate individual effort in seekers after the ideal. To the unremitting two years' labor of Signor Piazza and the immense strides in the process of reproduction this good work is due.

'The Flower Book' was the pastime of Burne-Jones's holidays, in his home at Rottingdean-by-the-Sea. He delighted in collecting beautiful names of flowers, of which in many cases the meanings had been forgotten, and for which he found his own interpretation—for no flower appears in any of the pictures; they represent the subjects the names suggested. The designs are circular, six inches in diameter, painted in gouache (water color mixed with body color and gold) on Michallet rough paper. They were begun in 1882, and during sixteen years thirty-eight designs were completed. Many were left slightly sketched in pencil, but these are not reproduced. To quote from Lady Burne-Jones's introductory note:

"He began the series, keeping by him a list of beautiful names that he had met with, choosing subjects from among them from time to time. . . . And first he thought any lovely or romantic name would lend itself to his purpose, but soon found that it was not so, and that comparatively few were of use. Such as had too obvious meaning—as, for instance, Odin's Helen, or Fair Maid of France—he rejected because there was not any reserve of thought in them for imagination to work upon. A picture, he held, should be no faint echo of other men's thoughts, but a voice concurrent or prophetical. It was easy enough, he said, merely to illustrate, but he wanted to add to the meaning of words or to wring their secret from them."

Among these designs are some of Burne-Jones's most beautiful inventions, *e.g.*, Golden Gate," in which angels are bringing out the sun from the opened gates of heaven to shine on the world; "Morning Glories," in which angels of the Byzantine type, so characteristic of the master, are spreading out clouds at dawn; "Star of Bethlehem," where, in the midst of a rocky landscape, the kings in gorgeous apparel of red and blue and orange are making their way towards the tiny manger in the middle distance, above which shines the star. Splendid in solemnity are "Black Archangel," Satan, sitting enthroned amid flames: "Arbor Tristis," in which the base of the tree of the cross grows up through steps of bare rock against a twilight sky with a window-lighted city below. In some of the subjects we find the themes of Burne-Jones's pictures treated again entirely differently—"Witches Tree," for instance, in which we have Merlin and Nimue; "Golden Cup," representing the Holy Grail; and "Grave of the Sea" with the mermaid and her drowned lover; "Venus's Looking-Glass," in which the moonlight is beautifully rendered, shining into the lake and on the face of Venus. These pictures all have the atmosphere of fairyland; they are like visions of scenes in a crystal ball or magic mirror—creations of fancy full of spontaneity and beauty. They vary much in style, the later ones becoming more Byzantine in character.

The letterpress, consisting of an introduction by Lady Burne-Jones and short explanatory notes to each subject, has been done in script by Mr. Graily Hewitt, this form being considered more suitable to the delicacy of the drawings. The book is bound in dark-green sealskin, or the pictures can be had mounted in sunk mounts separately in a box. Some copies are bound with handtooled decoration designed by Mr. Douglas Cockerell in a more elaborate and costly style.

In the Name of the Bodleian. By Augustine Birrell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

The president of the Board of Education in the new Liberal Ministry is an expert in the composition of the semi-serious essay. Less frivolous and freakish than Mr. Andrew Lang, but quite as humorous, he writes with a penetrating acumen that has been happily fostered by his legal studies. What mythology and ethnology are to Mr. Lang, the law is to Mr. Birrell, a thing to be taken seriously in the many-colored medley of subjects that must be touched lightly or left alone—Hannah More, for example. At the end of the present volume, named none too attractively from the first of its twenty-seven essays, two have been slipped in that are purely legal—that on "Contempt of Court," and "5 Edward VII., Chapter 12"; the latter, at any rate, is too technical for its company, and had best have ended where it must have begun, in some legal periodical.

With these exceptions, the volume is fully equal in interest to its charming predecessors. It is mainly about books and bookishness, and many of the essays are sublimated book reviews. One of the most charming is "A Connoisseur," a description of the personality of Mr. Birrell's father-in-law, the poet Frederick Locker-Lampson. It is a delicately intimate tribute which will appeal to all readers of 'London Lyrics,' and should increase their number. The late owner of the famous Rowfant Library is best known by these lyrics and by his anthology, 'Lyra Elegantiarum,' a collection of occasional verses which was suppressed by Landor's publishers on a question of copyright. But Locker wrote, or rather compiled, besides these, a 'Patchwork' (the title reminds one of a famous Miscellany of Clement of Alexandria), published in 1879, which had no great circulation, but has proved a boon to many a pressman at a loss for quotations or anecdotes.

Now that Mr. Birrell has taken his place as a Cabinet Minister, adding yet another to England's admirable list of literary statesmen, it is amusing to read an essay written in 1898 and included in this collection, "Our Great Middle Class"—a backward review of Arnold's famous indictment, in 1871, of the English middle class. Mr. Birrell points out that Arnold's message in 'Friendship's Garland' was unheeded by the barbarian aristocrats, and unread (at four-and-sixpence a copy) by the working classes.

"No; it was the middle class, to whom Mr. Arnold himself belonged, who took him to honest hearts, stuck his photograph upon their writing-tables, and sounded his praises so loudly that his fame even reached the United States of America. . . . They did not mind being insulted; they overlooked exaggeration; they pardoned ignorance. Yet though meek in spirit they have not inherited the earth; indeed, there are those who assert that their chances are gone, their sceptre for ever buried. It is all over with the middle class. . . . The crowds that flocked to hear Cobden and Bright, that abhorred slavery, that cheered Kossuth, that hated the income-tax, are now watered down by a huge population who do not know, and do not want to know, what

the income-tax is, but who do want to know what the Government is going to do for them in the matter of shorter hours, better wages, and constant employment. Will the rabble we wonder, prove as teachable as the middle class? . . . In the meantime it would be a mistake to assume that the middle class counts for nothing, even at an election. . . . As to ideas, have we got any new ones since 1871? . . . Would that we could revive Arminius, to tell us what he thinks of our new Ariel [Mr. Chamberlain] girdling the earth with twenty Prime Ministers, each the choicest product of a self-governing and deeply involved colony. Is it a vital or a vulgar idea?"

These essays are all short, abound in anecdote and gossip about literary men and politicians—there is an excellent one on Disraeli—and it would be a limited taste indeed that could not extract from them several half-hours of entertainment.

Les Troubles de Hollande à la Veille de la Révolution Française. By Henry de Peyster. Paris: Picard.

This is an extraordinarily thorough and minute study of Dutch affairs during the period 1780-1795. Throughout these fifteen years a series of crises, both domestic and international, distracted the Seven Provinces, and left them no alternative but that of settling their disputes by calling in the foreigner. M. de Peyster begins his survey of the situation by sketching the social life of the Dutch at this time, and then proceeds through an account of internal organization to a portraiture of the party leaders. After thus describing the general conditions which marked the domestic situation, he goes on to bring in foreign Powers, such as England. Prussia, and France. In a word, the monograph is a political study, but not in the narrowest sense of the word. The first chapter, for example, with its graphic delineation of Dutch society, might be wrested from the context and published with perfect propriety as an independent essay.

In the political portion of his narrative, M. de Peyster finds space to discuss each of the leading motives at great length: the trouble between the House of Orange and the middle class, the skill of Harris in bringing about the English alliance, the intervention of Prussia, the personal policy of Wilhelmina, and the appeal of the Dutch Democrats to France. As an individual figure, no one stands out so clearly in these pages as Van de Spiegel, Grand Pensionary after the Restoration of 1787. As for the Restoration itself, M. de Peyster calls it the first step on the sad path which eventually led Holland to its salvation. The indolence and apathy of the Dutch on the eve of the Revolution were almost incredible when one considers what the same race had accomplished three generations earlier. At the same time, the country was not without its grandiose aspirations, among which the chief was a project for bringing about a reunion of the seventeen provinces without the use of force or any considerable expenditure. Although the Republic had no real army and was in a bad financial position, it did not realize the extent of its own weakness until it suffered itself to become overshadowed by the influence of England. If Van de Spiegel is the most striking figure of the present piece, the most insignificant is William V. The ancient hold which the House of Orange had possessed upon the affection and allegiance of the masses could not be weakened even by his instability of character, but he managed to lose touch with the middle class altogether, while in his relations with Prussia there is a strong flavor of the burlesque.

In his remarks about the intervention of France, M. de Peyster shows great judgment and fairness of spirit. In 1795 the Dutch fancied that they really wished to secure something like solidarity with France. The exactions of the Directory soon dispelled this dream, and under the Empire the first plots which arose against Napoleon were hatched in Holland. It was then discovered that what was wanted was neither the friendship of England nor of France, but independence. What the Dutch gained from the French Revolution was not so much the birth of new institutions as a fresh stimulus to the democratic spirit, in the recognition of a new ideal to be sought through unity and equality. The régime of Stadtholder and oligarchy disappears before the new conception of a truer citizenship than that of the eighteenth, or even of the seventeenth, century.

This excellent work is solidly based upon a large accumulation of original materials, nor is it less thoughtful than learned.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin, James. Robinson Crusoe Written anew for Children.—Thirty More Famous Stories Retold. American Book Co.
Champault, Philippe. Phéniciens et Grecs en Italie d'après l'Odyssée. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Disraeli, B. Lord George Bentinck. Dutton. $2 net.
Eaton, Arthur Wentworth. Poems of the Christian Year.—Acadian Ballads. Thomas Whittaker. $1 net.
Flores de España. Edited by C. Fontaine. American Book Co.
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Jappe, Thomas H. Elements of German Grammar. American Book Co.
King, Henry Melville. Rev. John Myles. Providence: Preston & Rounds Co.
Lawson, Thomas W. Frenzied Finance. Vol. I.: The Crime of Amalgamated. The Ridgway-Thayer Co.
Little, Mrs. Archibald. Round about my Peking Garden. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Moore, Mabel. Carthage of the Phœnicians. Dutton. $1.50.
Mott, Sarah M., and Maude B. Dutton. Fishing and Hunting. American Book Co.
Oxford English Dictionary. Edited by Dr. James A. H. Murray. Vol. VIII.: Reign-Reserve. Henry Frowde.
Poems and Extracts chosen by William Wordsworth. Henry Frowde.
Roden, Robert F. The Cambridge Press, 1638-1692. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Scott, Duncan Campbell. John Graves Simcoe. Toronto: Morang & Co.
Scott, Duncan Campbell. New World Lyrics and Ballads. Toronto: Morang & Co. 60 cents.
Shakespeare's Venus and Adonis. Facsimile of first edition. Edited by Sidney Lee. Henry Frowde.
Supplementary Papers of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome. Vol. I. Macmillan. $3.
Walpole, Horace. Letters. Edited by Mrs. Paget Toynbee. Vol. XVI., Index. Henry Frowde.
Waste Not, Want Not Stories. Retold by Clifton Johnson. American Book Co.
Wordsworth's Literary Criticism. Edited by Nowell C. Smith. Henry Frowde.
Wright, Theodore F. The Spiritual Exodus. Boston: Massachusetts New-Church Union.
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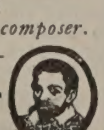

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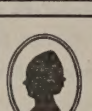

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 18, 1906.

The Week.

Senator Hale's frank admission in the Senate on Monday that he wished the President had sent no delegates to the Morocco Conference, suggests fresh inquiry what its work is to be. It is to concern itself with the internal reforms needed in that country. It is to discuss, first of all, the organization of the police and the suppression of the contraband trade in arms. Next in order is the reform of the nation's finances, which calls for the establishment of a state bank, improved methods of collecting duties, and the creation of new revenues. Then comes the "outlining of certain principles destined to safeguard the economic liberty of Morocco." In addition, there is on the programme the special question of the policing of the Moroccan and Tunisian boundary and the controlling of the traffic in arms across it, which naturally concerns France and Morocco exclusively. Just which of the nations shall undertake this work of reorganization will, of course, be the knotty point in the discussions. Old residents of Morocco are firmly of the opinion that, however sympathetic the Sultan may be, the Moroccans themselves cannot be depended on to carry out the reforms. What is needed is such an economic upbuilding as that which has gone on in Egypt under Lord Cromer—an administration under which peace and order shall be permanent, and every inhabitant profit to the fullest extent by the national outlay. At the same time, the Sultan's independence is not to be assailed, and the reorganization of the country is to be beyond all else carried on by peaceful methods. The fanaticism of the inhabitants and their intense hatred of foreigners will call for quite as much tact and wisdom in the actual carrying out of the reforms as Lord Cromer has displayed in Egypt.

The mere statement of the problems to be considered must increase the wonder of Senators that the United States should be participating in the Algeciras Conference. If we really have any business in settling the national affairs of Morocco, we must be prepared next to go to work in Crete and Macedonia, and to take part in any future coercion of the Sultan of Turkey. Our trade relations with Morocco are so slight as not to call for a separate item in the monthly and yearly summary of our foreign commerce, being grouped under "All other Africa," which is credited with exports of only $33,813 for the eleven months of 1905 ending with November, and imports of $478,140 during the same period.

It was a Republican Congressman, Mr. McCall of Massachusetts, who on Friday exposed in the House the hollowness of the pretence that the tariff would one day be "revised by its friends." "If the tariff cannot be revised when two-thirds of the membership of both houses is Republican, when," he asked, "is revision to come?" He went on to make the prediction, implied in the letter of Gov. Guild of Massachusetts to President Roosevelt, that if the Republicans prove unequal to the work, the country will put the Democrats in power to do it. But there is one form of tariff revision for which the Republicans are reported ready—revision upwards. They cannot take off 10 per cent. to relieve Americans, but they can clap on 25 per cent. to fight Germans, and make the plight of Americans worse than before. In tariff wars both combatants are certain to lose, yet it is upon a tariff war with Germany that Congress is now preparing lightheartedly to enter. In answer to the protest of our alarmed exporters that our stupid tariff policy endangers their business with Germany, it is proposed to make it more stupid, and, if possible, cut off business with Germany altogether. All this from the party of enlightenment, at the very moment that the policy of tariff retaliation is being trampled under foot in England!

The postmastership of Podunk is, after all, the vital question before Congress to-day. A few private citizens, whose desires are unworthy of consideration, seem to be anxious about the construction of the Panama Canal, about railway rate regulation, the Philippine tariff, revision of the Dingley schedules, and Statehood; but real statesmen know that the progress of the country depends upon the distribution of pap. Thus, Representatives Overstreet of Indiana and Denby of Michigan have —in the expressive language of transcendental politics—"gone up in the air" because they could not "land" their men. Two of the Missouri delegation have openly joined the Republican insurgents against the Statehood bill, and others threaten to follow—not because they care a rap about Statehood one way or the other. The noble principle for which they stand is that the Missouri postmasterships belong to them. For that cause they will pour out their life-blood and kill every bill that is dear to the President or the Speaker. Representatives are no fools. They see that if they cannot settle questions of patronage, statesmanship is a hollow sham. The only thing left for a Congressman is to frame laws, prepare arguments, and discharge his duties as member of committees. But that is beneath the dignity of the Representative of a great commonwealth—mere work for office-boys and private secretaries. No man of parts will fritter away his talents over legislation when he should devote them to fighting for jobs for his henchmen. The government at Washington must and shall be preserved.

As was expected, the bill for consular reform has been reported by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations with nearly all the reform knocked out of it. A system of appointment and promotion by merit is too strong meat for the weak Senatorial stomach. What it needs is pap—the pap of patronage. Senators simply loathe the idea that consuls should be originally selected for capacity and promoted for efficiency. The adoption of such a plan would be a terrible blow to party "workers," and would even impair Senatorial grandeur. Consequently, the bill which Secretary Root advocated as a means of taking the consular service out of politics, and making it responsive to the needs and demands of American business men, has been reported in a sadly mangled condition. Consuls are to be named, transferred and promoted "as at present"—that is, by political favor. The Senate is willing, however, that they should be classified and their salaries increased, involving, we suppose, the abolition of the fee system. But the thoroughgoing reform pressed by the State Department the Senate will none of. Here is an excellent opportunity for the President to "do it anyhow." He would be entirely justified in making rules for the first appointment and subsequent promotion of consuls purely in accordance with the merit system. His friends have asserted from time to time that he would take such a step. If the Senate persists in treating the consular service as spoils, American commercial interests will turn to the President with redoubled appeals to rescue it.

Since the Washington air is surcharged with rumors of American expeditions to be landed at Canton or Shanghai, San Domingo or mayhap Venezuela, the report of the army Genera' Staff in regard to our lack of transports is very enlightening. It is published by Senator Gallinger as part of his argument for the ship-subsidy bill, thus showing that the General Staff has civilian uses as

well as military. Over against the grim threats a week ago of landing Gen. Funston and two brigades in China in the twinkling of an eye, the General Staff admits frankly that to move a force corresponding to our present military establishment "would require practically all the American shipping of suitable character in Atlantic waters, and more than the entire tonnage in Pacific waters." Most Americans, we fancy, will regard this lack of army transports as far from an undesirable state of affairs. If it will only keep the present Administration from plunging into oversea adventures, it is a condition to be tolerated. At least, it should make the Government see how impossible would be any offensive war with a great Power. Even if Senator Gallinger and the other subsidy men could, by enriching private ship-owners, create a great fleet of available transports, the question of coaling, provisioning, and landing abroad would still be impossible of solution, on a large scale.

Gov. Higgins's reasons for fearing an investigation of the various departments of his Administration, especially Insurance and Banking, are painfully obvious. Nobody is in the least deceived by the shallow pretext that the Legislature has no legal right to investigate. Such paltry quibbling is unworthy of a high-school debating society. There is one reason and only one why the Governor of New York dreads publicity: He knows, as every one else knows, that his two personal cronies and political supporters, Hendricks and Kilburn, are either dishonest or grossly incompetent. Their presence in office is a public scandal and offence; but they command so much influence that Higgins dares not touch them till their terms run out. The Fiscal Supervisor of Charities, H. H. Bender, is resorting to every technicality in order to escape the consequences of his violation of the civil-service laws; but the Governor is too timorous to move against him. The Corporation Tax Bureau rests under specific charges of venality, but the Governor wants to keep the Legislature from interfering. The shocking revelations secured by the Armstrong committee have roused suspicion against the whole Administration—notably the Railroad Commission; yet the Governor dreads to clean house or to have any one do it for him. He would rather have the State government stew in its own corruption.

The rejoicing of this country over the unprecedented steel exports in the month of December would mean more if we knew the prices at which these consignments of metal were disposed of abroad. It is not such a remarkable achievement to sell goods of any kind, even in the largest quantities, if one is willing to put the price low enough, and some other customer stands ready to bear whatever loss may accrue. How, as a matter of fact, did the purchasers of these rails and billets and structural materials fare by comparison with American consumers? It is not known exactly, but the details of many similar transactions are public property. Testifying before the Merchant Marine Commission a year and a half ago, for instance, James C. Wallace, then vice-president and since president of the American Shipbuilding Company, said:

> "Recently one of our largest steel mills sold abroad 100,000 tons of steel plate. They delivered it, I understand, at Belfast at $24 a ton. That would practically mean, with ocean rates as they are, $22 a ton at tidewater. They are charging us to-day at Pittsburg $32 a ton."

If such a difference existed with reference to the 52,000 tons shipped from Eastern ports alone in December—leaving out all consignments from Southern and Pacific Coast points, it meant a discount of approximately a half-million dollars in a single month to the foreign purchaser. But, of course, all the excess price paid by the home consumer goes straight to the pockets of honest American workingmen, and they, and not the Trust, would suffer were Congress to equalize this by a change in the tariff.

The late President Harper of Chicago University habitually deprecated the fame he had attained as a money-getter, and would have chosen to be remembered by the innovations he framed in university administration and teaching. It was these that fairly gave him his nickname, "the business president." Efficiency was his watchword long before it was Lord Rosebery's; and most of his peculiar policies were based on the conviction that our traditional methods of higher education are backward and time-wasting. Thus, at the outset he abolished the long vacations, or, rather, made them optional with students and professors, continuing the University terms throughout the calendar year. This permitted the diligent student to shorten his course, the provident instructor to accumulate vacations beyond the regulation three months, and required the occasional recruiting of the faculty by temporary (quarter-year) appointments from outside. All these changes were in the direction of flexibility. Again, when it was discovered that the University of Chicago lacked college life and spirit, college life and spirit were straightway improvised, or at least encouraged, by the appointment of a famous athlete to the faculty, and later by the building of dormitories. No detail of university life escaped President Harper. He urged the duty of frequent publication and a discreet publicity upon his professors, as he did that of enthusiasm upon his students. To slow methods of incubation he was temperamentally averse, whether it were a case of a scholastic *magnum opus* or of alluring the minor colleges and universities of the Middle West into feudal relations with the University of Chicago. When one considers the actual accomplishment of his fourteen years' tenure, it must be admitted that rarely has so much thought and energy been thrown in an equal time into a similar work.

The colleges are at last making athletic reform hum. At Harvard the overseers have forbidden football to be played until the rules are changed to their satisfaction; Yale is said to be willing to desert the old Rules Committee; at Union, football has been abolished, and, strange to say, by vote of the students; the University of Wisconsin has faced the athletic problem broadly by instructing its delegates to the Western conference to vote for the suspension of intercollegiate contests. Everything indicates that the agitation is serious, and that this time something will be done. Meanwhile, it is wise to distinguish between athletic abuses that are a result of American conditions in general, and those that pertain to any particular branch of sport. The much-advertised reform of football should be regarded as merely a beginning of a new dispensation in college sport generally. It might, theoretically, be possible to impose upon interlocked rushlines the leisurely affability of so many "floorwalkers," and yet the inflated expenditure, the overcrowding, the generally exaggerated excitement attending the games would persist. The remedy, for the present, lies in a reduction of intercollegiate games to the minimum, and in encouraging sports within the colleges. By this means, the field demonstration of the effect of new football rules, which President Eliot is said to desire, could best be effected.

London's first pollings destroy the last hope of the Tories, that they might yet escape disastrous defeat. If they cannot save their seats even in London, it is all up with them. In 1900 the Tories carried 55 out of the 62 metropolitan constituencies; at the present rate they may win barely 20. And the Liberal triumph goes on mounting throughout the country. Seat after seat reckoned securely Tory has been snatched. Mr. Balfour's brother Gerald went down at Leeds on Monday, and another member of his Cabinet, the Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Long, was beaten at South Bristol. Even Liberals must regret the defeat of Lord Hugh Cecil and Gibson Bowles. Both were ornaments of the House for industry, wit and character, and the debates will be duller for their absence. The fact that both these Unionist free-traders owed their defeat to a Chamber-

lainite running independently against them, will further embitter the party against Chamberlain. His plight is pitiful. Hard on to seventy years, and with a Liberal Government before him good for four or five years, his dream of becoming Prime Minister on the protection issue must now have vanished.

Tory as for the last twenty years Manchester has been, Saturday's polling shows that it is still loyal to the fundamental doctrine of that school of political thought to which it gave its name. In the Corn Law days it was Liberal and Radical. Nearly seventy years ago, when Gladstone was not yet twenty-eight, and when he was fast becoming what Macaulay, a couple of years later, called him, the rising hope of the stern and unbending Tories, Manchester would have none of him. In 1837, in consequence of the death of William IV., Parliament was dissolved. Gladstone was put up for Manchester, but he was left at the bottom of the poll. In the next half-century both the statesman and the city changed position. Gladstone, first a Free Trade Conservative, then a Liberal, had for the last thirty years of his life, in the eyes of his Tory opponents, all the seeming of a dangerous Radical. Manchester, thoroughly and uncompromisingly Liberal so long as Protection in any of its forms was at all a political issue, drifted towards Conservatism when Free Trade had been, as it then seemed, definitively won.

Even before the great Liberal leader's championship of Home Rule had split his party elsewhere, Manchester had passed over to the Tories. At the election of 1885, when Parnell was still ordering his followers to vote against every Gladstonian candidate, the Conservatives carried five of the six divisions of Manchester. Since then their party has never held less than one-half of its seats, and, for the greater part of the time, of its six members only one has been a Liberal. At the election of 1900 there was no Liberal candidate at all for Northwest Manchester, the very division for which Winston Churchill was on Saturday returned by a majority of 1,241. Six years ago, in the other five divisions, the aggregate Conservative majority was 6,000 in a total vote of 41,000. On Saturday every division was contested. There were upwards of 57,000 votes returned. Mr. Balfour and every other Conservative candidate were beaten, and the aggregate Liberal and Labor majority was 13,000. For the first time since the passage of the Reform Act of 1868, no Conservative will sit in the new Parliament for the great cotton metropolis. In proportion to the total vote polled, the overturning in Manchester is as great as that which would be required to turn McKinley's plurality of 143,000 in New York in 1900 into a Democratic plurality of 325,000 in 1906. It may be noted in passing that, though the total vote was much the heaviest ever returned in Manchester, it is only about half that which is cast at a warmly contested election in an American city of the same size. Manchester has about as many people as St. Louis or Baltimore. In 1900 the former cast 125,000 votes, and the latter 113,000.

Forty-one writers, artists, and scholars in Germany have memorialized their English colleagues for a better understanding between the two nations. They regret extreme anti-British expressions made in Germany during the Boer war, and they protest against false and reckless statements in the British press which embitter relations and render most difficult the task of peace-making that lies before the Morocco Conference. These Germans maintain that the two nations have been and are bound together by reciprocal ties of culture, religion, art, and scholarship, and bespeak a setting aside of prejudice and a more cordial recognition of the solidarity of British and German civilization. To such an overture of good will but one answer was possible. Forty-one British worthies promptly welcomed this open letter, and responded with counter expressions of friendship, and with sincere deprecation of "the affected belligerency of some of our journals." Such an interchange of good wishes must in a measure make against the chauvinism that equally afflicts both nations; and if it be said that these pacific sentiments are adopted only by certain *intellectuels*, without influence upon the masses, one can only reply that international understandings have historically always begun among this educated class.

To show that the German protest against unfriendly treatment by the British press is not made without reason, we cite a characteristic instance, not from the yellower precincts of the Strand, but from the *Times*. Shortly before December 27, the German Emperor, speaking in a private gathering, denied that there was a war party behind him, professed the most pacific intentions, praised the "tact and firmness" of M. Rouvier in the thorny Morocco negotiations, and declared that the "most conciliatory instructions" had been given to the German Ambassador at Fez. This most welcome news was forwarded by the *Times's* Paris correspondent under date of December 27, and printed briefly as a "rumor." Next day the Paris correspondent had his doubts. The alleged Imperial statement was purely unofficial. A "trustworthy source" had provided a supplementary clause, in which the Kaiser had subordinated his zeal for peace to the maintenance of national honor. There were reports of military preparations on the railroads near the Belgian frontier. The third day, the Imperial utterance being officially confirmed, the Berlin correspondent points out that it means no essential change in attitude; the Paris correspondent finds that the overture "does not appear to have made any impression on the French public—at all events, not the kind of impression which was apparently intended"; this, that, and the other Paris journalist remain skeptical. A formula based on this case would run as follows: Subject all news creditable to German good sense and feeling to these three operations: (1) Print it without emphasis; (2) question its authenticity; (3) if that be established, minimize its value and challenge its sincerity. Evidently the gospel of peace itself would come off badly in the *Times* office under the application of this rule of three.

Count Witte's answer to his critics might be in the words of the French statesman when asked what he did during the Reign of Terror: "I lived." The Russian Premier has survived an unparalleled series of risings against the powers of government, and, if order does not reign in Warsaw and Moscow, chaos at least has not taken its place. He has not, it is true, won over the antagonists who distrusted him when he assumed office. Even semi-official papers, like the *Slovo* and the *Novoe Vremya*, continue to speak of him as a juggler; reactionaries and bureaucrats detest him; Moderate Liberals and Conservatives give him but guarded support, while Radical Liberals concede to him at best the ability of a Necker, with all the limitations of the French financier. "Witte's ideal," says Prince Kropotkin, "is a liberal, half-absolute and half-constitutional monarchy, of which he would be the Bismarck, standing by the side of a weak monarch. He will not be a great statesman, because he scoffs at those who believe that in politics, as in everything else, complete honesty is the most successful policy." Witte himself has deplored the fact that only the revolutionary elements in Russia seem to have a common purpose, while the friends of order are divided and unwilling to support the Czar and his Government. To foreign criticism of the arbitrary acts of his Ministry he replied: "Foreigners, in truth, do not understand Russia at all. Before the events of last October they were agreed that all would be well as soon as a Constitution was granted. Now they are frightened because everything appears to be in disorder. As a matter of fact, their anxiety is just as exaggerated as was their previous hopefulness."

CONGRESS ON ROOSEVELT'S HANDS

Without accepting too confidingly all the stories that come from Washington, it is evident that the relations between the President and Congress are strained. From the beginning of the session things have not gone smoothly. The Administration programme has visibly stuck on the ways. And a personal element has contributed to the tension: many Congressmen have taken offence at Mr. Roosevelt, for one reason or another, and do not conceal their pique. That the President himself has lost something of his customary amiability, we may believe without depending upon the gossip, partly amusing, partly disquieting, which is traceable to recent callers at the White House. Mr. Roosevelt's message to Congress last week was one long burst of ill temper. It argued a frame of mind poorly fitted either clearly to perceive the actual situation in Congress, or to deal with it.

President Roosevelt obviously suffers from never having served in Congress, and so caught something of its point of view. Next to his lack of legal training, his frequent inability to hit off the tone of a representative and legislative body is perhaps his greatest handicap as President. Only think of McKinley's unfailing skill in that regard! He had an instinctive feeling for the Congressional way of looking at all questions, and seldom failed to adjust himself to it with the nicest tact. Whenever he stroked Congress, the resultant purr was audible; but Mr. Roosevelt seems usually to rub the fur the wrong way, and to elicit such angry spittings and clawings as we now see. It is a defect at once in his experience and his temperament.

The trouble between President and Congress springs partly from the old curse of patronage. Even in the hands of a President who had been a zealous civil-service reformer, that governmental evil has lost little of its power to work mischief. Exasperated Senators and inflamed Representatives are as thick in Washington as in the days when the spoils system frankly reigned. And the worst of it is that the President appears to be using the arguments of a spoilsman at the same time that he is professing to make appointments in the spirit of a reformer. That is to say, in his efforts to aid Speaker Cannon in rallying a party majority in the House, the President urges, appeals, and threatens, on the ground of patronage, just as a McKinley or a Grant might have done. This is happy neither way: it does not satisfy or appease Congressmen; it does not make reform appear either strong or consistent.

Behind patronage, policies. Some of those which the President is backing are distasteful to Congress. While dear to Mr. Roosevelt's heart, he cannot arouse public enthusiasm about them, because the public is almost wholly indifferent. Where is the evidence that the people care a straw about San Domingo? The President's Panama troubles are likewise a matter largely between himself and Congress; the public cannot be made excited about them. Thus Mr. Roosevelt is left to fight those quarrels unaided. The old heart-filling hurrahs from the people do not come to spur him on. Meanwhile, the causes upon which he might have appealed strongly to the general sentiment of the country are held in abeyance. The Machiavellian "railroad schemers" whom Mr. Roosevelt's friends so often see in affrighted visions, must be chuckling over the way in which the railroad-regulation bill has been subordinated to San Domingo, Panama, Mr. Bishop, and Mrs. Morris.

One cause of President Roosevelt's impatience with Congress is his consciousness of being still the people's darling. There is no sure sign that his popularity has diminished appreciably; he even added to it by his part in bringing about peace between Russia and Japan, last summer, and by his tour through the South; how, then, dares Congress to withstand him? But there is an old political truth which Mr. Roosevelt does not appear to have sufficiently weighed. This is that an Administration, no matter how strong it may seem in popular support, no sooner begins to live than it begins to die. Mr. Cleveland perceived this in 1892. Shortly after his triumphant election in that year, he wrote a letter to Mr. Lamar which predicted the troublous days of his coming Administration, and which is a monument to his political sagacity. A President once in office, and pledged as Mr. Roosevelt is not to seek another term, becomes a more negligible quantity than he likes to think. Political interest soon centres elsewhere. Who is to be the successor? What faction, what machine of the many which are assembling their parts, is to force the next nomination? Those are the instinctive questions of politicians who always hasten to prostrate themselves before the rising sun. They are doing it in Washington to-day. So many Presidential booms are in the making that the authority of the President who has been made is necessarily impaired. Congressmen are more anxious to be "solid" with Fairbanks or Shaw, Foraker or Taft, Root or La Follette, than to wait upon orders from the White House every day. It is this scheming within the party which partly accounts for the President's inability to whip it into line for his pet measures. And when we add to that the inveterate and unyielding greed of the protected interests, against which the President's Philippine bill has run as against a stone wall; the disposition of Congressmen selfishly to consult their individual political fortunes more carefully than the President's; and Mr. Roosevelt's ill-judged acts and utterances, we have little difficulty in explaining the coil into which he has got himself with Congress.

It would be rash to prophesy that he will not pull himself out gracefully, or at least victoriously. He has immense resources; real political skill; proverbial good fortune. Once fairly in a corner, he knows how to yield with a smiling face, and claim a great triumph. So it is possible that the present war-clouds on Capitol Hill will roll away; but meantime we are to have a severe test of the President's political generalship.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE BOSSES.

Current rows and heartburnings at Washington over Federal patronage raise again the whole question of the complicity of the National Government in fastening the tyranny of corrupt bosses upon States and cities. Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, in his *North American* article on the triumph of honesty at the polls in Philadelphia, points to the extraordinary fact that the whole effective power of the Administration at Washington was against the reformers. This was because the President had allowed the Pennsylvania Senators to dictate all the appointments. Consequently, though Mr. Roosevelt might express sympathy with the good cause privately, and though Secretary Root might openly wish the honest citizens of Philadelphia godspeed in their efforts to oust "a corrupt and criminal combination masquerading under the name of Republicans," the whole force of Federal officials was working night and day to save the bosses from the wrath to come. Mr. MacVeagh states, in dwelling on the "alliance between the Executive Department of the National Government and the bosses cynically engaged in despoiling Philadelphia and Pennsylvania," that "almost every person in Pennsylvania who had been honored with a commission bearing the signature of President Roosevelt, was the avowed, persistent, and reckless opponent of that decency and honesty in politics for which President Roosevelt has so courageously battled all his life."

That is sorrowful history. The lamentable present fact is that the same process is apparently in full vigor once more at Washington. In meekly knuckling to the demands of Senators in the matter of appointments to office, Mr. Roosevelt is, by so much, declaring himself in favor of the rehabilitation of the bosses. Ever since last November's election the question of thoughtful citizens has been: "Shall we be able to secure the fruits of the people's victory? Are the smashed machines to remain in fragments, or will they be put together again and set running more remorselessly than before?" Well, the repair gang has called upon the

President for aid, and he is giving it to them.

For example, note the significance of his throwing just now an extra appointee to Senator Beveridge of Indiana. It is promptly and properly taken as a favor to the Beveridge machine. The newspapers are beginning to reckon up how many "men" the Senator now has on guard. Thus, we read in the Washington *Post* of Thursday:

"With this appointment, Senator Beveridge will now have in the Federal building at Indianapolis the following personal appointments: Judge Baker, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals; Judge Marsh, pension agent; Elam Neal, collector of internal revenue; H. W. Bennett, postmaster; Mr. Pettit, United States marshal, and Mr. Rothschilds, surveyor of the port."

We are far from asserting that Senator Beveridge is a corrupt politician. He has, it is true, shown a pretty taste in spoils. With Scriptural zeal, he has insisted that the Government provide for those of his own household. We suppose, however, that he wishes to create and control a machine more for political than for pecuniary objects. Yet the same vicious system is illustrated in his case, tolerably innocent though that may be, which in Pennsylvania, in Illinois, in Ohio, in New York, and New Jersey has fixed upon those Commonwealths and their chief cities a ruthless organization of plunderers.

Let there be no mistake about this. A local boss, just in proportion as he is cunning and corrupt, reaches out his hand for Federal patronage. It is not, of course, his smirched palm that is thrust into the President's face; a respectable Senator is sent to do the asking. But we all know how endless are the affiliations, the plottings, the secret influences, the threats, the bribes, the trickeries, the betrayals of the boss. Nothing is too small for him to attend to; nothing too large for him to aspire to control. His "system" works up and down through all the commercial and political life of his State. It was easy for Quay to get "eminent bankers" or "distinguished jurists" to back his pet scoundrels. Writes the blunt Mr. MacVeagh: "What Mr. Jerome has recently said of some of the judges of New York, is eminently true of some of the judges of Philadelphia and throughout Pennsylvania, in all the grades of our judiciary." The machine knoweth its own. Having created judges and Senators, it calls upon them to fall down and worship their creator. The messenger to the White House may be a Senator, but the principal is waiting in some secret office, miles away, with his ear to a telephone, anxious to learn whether the President has made one more place for a serviceable tool. When Senator Dick was demanding a consulate last year, what surgery could have dissected out his real personality from that of Boss Cox? In Pennsylvania, Penrose and Durham were blended indistinguishably. The President could not smile upon the Senator without fawning upon the Boss.

Here in New York we see the peril threatening. In the room of the deposed Odell, it is proposed that Aldridge or Woodruff be set up. Either would soon make Odell seem fairly respectable. In any case, the restoration of the New York machine with a new boss is buzzed about all over the State, and the implication is that the President will turn over the desired patronage. The Senatorial intermediaries do not count with us just now, but it will not be long before the new machine has its errand-boys in the Senate, and then the question will be whether Mr. Roosevelt will help forge anew the chains of political slavery for us. He will do it infallibly, just as he will do it in other States, if he abdicates his Constitutional function in favor of the Senate. No overmastering desire to obtain legislation from that body—as to which he may easily be betrayed again—should blind him to the fact that the surrender of the power of appointment to Senators means giving fresh courage to the bosses everywhere. The very best fight against the return of the crew which the people spoke their minds so emphatically about last November, would be made by a Chief Executive who should point clamorous boss-made and boss-allied Senators to the Constitutional provision: The President shall nominate."

ONE WAY OUT OF THE PHILIPPINES.

Congressman McCall has revived a plan to get this country out of the Philippine difficulty. He has introduced a resolution authorizing the President to enter into negotiations with the Powers of Europe for the purpose of making neutral territory of the Philippine archipelago, with an independent government recognized internationally. This proposition would spike the guns of those who are seeking, on one pretence after another, to tie us up to the Philippines indefinitely for purposes of commercial exploitation. It has been their favorite contention that if we should withdraw from the archipelago, Japan or Germany or some other Power would immediately pounce upon the prey. For us to permit any such aggression, it has been alleged, would be nothing less than a breach of faith with the Filipinos, for no other country could possibly have such humanitarian motives as ours.

What Mr. McCall proposes can be assailed on the ground neither of precedent nor of feasibility. Switzerland and Belgium have long been neutralized by international agreement. Switzerland would in all probability have been absorbed by envious neighbors had it not been that her perpetual neutrality and the inviolability of her territory were guaranteed in 1815 by Austria, Great Britain, Portugal, Prussia, and Russia. No nation has ever tried to violate this agreement, and none would be allowed to. The same is true of Belgium. In 1831, Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia settled the quarrel between Holland and Belgium, provided for the separate existence of the latter, and declared it to be thenceforth a perpetually neutral state. When the Belgian frontier was menaced by the war of 1870, Great Britain served notice that she would take sides against whichever combatant should violate Belgium's territory. This warning was enough. Neither France nor Germany cared to bring England into their strife.

This idea that a territory can be put beyond the reach of land-grabbing Powers by national agreement, has by no means been overlooked in the years since 1831. The United States, by the Monroe Doctrine and its subsequent interpretations, has practically assumed to do that very thing for South America. Later, Secretary Hay, in his efforts for the open door in China, induced the great nations to promise to keep their hands off China during the war between Russia and Japan. And the Portsmouth treaty of peace, together with the new Anglo-Japanese pact, has practically neutralized China for a long time to come. Mr. McCall's suggestion is therefore in line with our best traditions as well as in accord with the historic American spirit of fair play towards those who are weak. Its adoption would free the future of the Filipinos from uncertainty. More than that, there is not a single obstacle in the way of an international agreement. Japan and England would welcome it as simplifying the Eastern problem in which they are deeply concerned, while the German Emperor would undoubtedly seize the opportunity to show once more his genuine friendliness towards the United States, and confute those Jingoes who, ever since the blunders of his Admiral Diedrichs in Manila Bay, have insisted on his hostile intentions. France, Russia, and Italy could also make no possible objection. Indeed, if Mr. Roosevelt would but bring to the task a tenth of the astuteness, enthusiasm, and energy which he applied to the Russian and Japanese peace negotiations, the matter could be carried through within the year.

But the hitch, it may be said, will come over the proposed independent government. Secretary Taft will be certain to rise up once more and solemnly argue that no man must utter the word independence out loud and couple with it a promise or a date. But there are signs that his party has got well beyond him. His own specially organized excursion to the Philippines failed to arouse enthusiasm among its members. If President McKinley could return to earth he would be astounded at the change in sentiment. He would hear many party leaders privately wishing

the islands anywhere but in our care. He would be surprised by the number of Imperialist newspapers, like the Minneapolis *Tribune*, which are heartily sick of the whole business; and would find Congress in a sad snarl over the simple question of giving the Filipinos a chance to export their sugar and tobacco free of any tax. But far more significant is the total absence of any real interest in the Philippines in the current debates. Mr. Taft and the President may appeal all they please to the honor and generosity of Congressmen; the latter want nothing except to wash their hands of Philippine affairs.

In this hurly-burly, Mr. McCall's proposal should fall gratefully. The fact that it is fathered by a Republican Congressman and is to have the endorsement of Senator Crane in the Senate, will relieve from the charge of party irregularity any Republican who speaks or votes for it. Best of all, it can be said for the neutralizing plan that it would be an act of justice, relieve us from the expense and worry of maintaining troops, forts, and fleets to guard them, and enable the Filipinos to begin to govern themselves at once, free from interference, no matter how many times they may stumble and fall before they learn to stand on their feet.

DARIUS GREEN'S PROGENY.

In one respect, at least, the development of the art of flying by human contrivances has been unique. General public interest was not aroused in steamboats until one was able to propel itself; there was never a public view of the telegraph until it was so perfected that messages could be sent by it; and most other inventions, whether small or great, have been given to the world when they had been made workable, and not before. But the progress toward a practicable flying apparatus has all been made in the open. Inventors have, of course, carried on their experiments with the customary privacy, but as each one has worked out only some small part of the problem, the public has been enabled to watch substantially every step. The Aero Club's exhibition, which opened in this city on Saturday evening, has thus one entirely novel aspect. It is, in a sense, an assembling, from all parts of the world, of the constituent elements for an invention which has not yet been made, namely, a machine that will fly after the fashion of a bird.

The steering of balloons was at first the only problem that aeronauts considered practical. According to the accepted physical formula for determining the sustaining power of a column of air, a bird the size of a duck would have had to expend the better part of a horsepower to keep itself off the ground; and to lift a man, let alone an engine, by means of wings or planes, appeared absolutely visionary. Only rural "cranks," of the Darius Green order, seriously tried the thing. Then came the series of experiments that not only exploded the old formula, but showed it to be comparatively easy to construct an engine that will lift its weight against the air. Sir Hiram Maxim constructed a large apparatus with wide supporting planes and rotary propellers which could be started along ordinary rails, and, when it reached a certain speed, would rise so that its wheels ran along the under side of another set of rails placed above the first. The assumption then was that if such a machine were launched in a spacious enough place, it would fly, and the difficulty of finding such a place in England was the reason why the inventor paused.

As a matter of fact, the question of balancing, which was then considered a secondary matter, has since been realized to be the crux of the whole problem. Otto Lilienthal, who met his death in pursuit of his hobby, studied the art of soaring from a height by means of rigid wings that were elevated or depressed merely by the balance of the operator's body. Professor Langley of the Smithsonian Institution has made several models that "flew," but it was too erratic flight that wrecked his last creation, the "Buzzard." The success of the Wright brothers in controlling aeroplanes has received much notice in the last two years, and their invention has just been bought by the French Government. So progress has been made in the art of actual navigation as well as on the purely mechanical side.

In the meantime, Santos-Dumont and his disciples on both sides of the water have brought the dirigible balloon to such perfection that it will run against a very light breeze, and in still air can perform any evolution. Of course, the gas-filled airship is a fundamentally different thing from a craft which rises by its own power; but the experimenters with the former have been steadily lightening their motors, and every reduction in the number of ounces per horsepower is a help to the work of the other group.

"Man will be able in due time to soar after the manner of the eagle, which utilizes the energy of the wind against which it flies for its own propulsion." This is the prediction of Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, one of whose kites only this month performed the feat of lifting, thirty feet above the ground, a 185-pound man with tackle weighing 62 pounds. Professor Bell's device has never yet been made a part of an airship or been combined with an engine and propeller, but it is unquestionably one of the most important inventions yet made in connection with the conquest of the air. On the lines followed by the pioneer inventors, it might be possible to make a small apparatus practicable where a large one would fail. With a given design, while the sustaining power increased with the square of the dimensions, the weight would increase with the cube. Even the box-kite, with which many experimenters have worked, requires bracing whenever several kites are bound together, and increases in weight faster than in lifting power.

Professor Bell's tetrahedral kite overcomes this objection. It is merely a frame of six sticks of equal length fastened at the corners so as to form a triangular pyramid. Two sides are covered with some thin fabric. Each of such units is absolutely firm and stable, needing no additional bracing; and they can be bound together in any desired number without impairing their efficiency. So, according to the published studies, the lifting power increases exactly as the weight. Ten units weigh ten times as much as one and will lift ten times as much. There would seem to be no theoretical obstacle to constructing such a kite or aggregation of kites capable of lifting any given weight into the air. If a man and his chair, why not a motor and propelling fans? Should this turn out to be the solution of the problem, the flying machine of the future will bear the appearance not of one great bird, as it is commonly figured, but of a flock of little birds, for that is what the photographs of the Bell kite most resemble.

Kipling's navigators of the twenty-first century are made to speak disparagingly of the days when men "flew kites over thorium engines." It looks as if commonplace steam and vapor engines would have to come first. But even that stage is awaited with impatience. We have seemingly accomplished the preliminaries; but who will be the man to make the airship as practicable as the automobile?

PAYING THE DOCTOR.

When a New York dentist was said to have charged Prince Louis $1,000 for filling four teeth, the general comment, public and private, was that the bill was outrageous. The question of doctor's fees is raised again by correspondence printed in a recent issue of the *Medical Record*. A New York surgeon asked $1,000 for an operation for gangrenous appendicitis; the mother of the patient, after consultation with friends, offered $600. The surgeon politely protested, cited testimony of brother physicians to prove that his fee was not unusual, and finally received the remainder. The letter enclosing the last check ran thus:

"My discussion with you has been a friendly one, and so you will not, I am sure, suspect me of any acrimony when I say that my feeling about the present excessive charge of surgeons is a very general one, and the reflection of a sentiment that is

everywhere one of surprise and dissatisfaction. We do not question your ability, but we feel you make us pay too dear for it."

Indubitably, the writer of the letter just quoted voices a common sentiment; and that sentiment is not without basis in fact. Some surgeons seem to have adopted the motto, "Your money or your life." They charge a patient as much as they think he can possibly afford. This, of course, is refined and intelligent highway robbery. On no theory whatever can it be defended. There are, however, certain principles, perfectly clear, though not always well understood or consistently applied, which explain why a twelve-minute operation for appendicitis may be worth more than five or six hours of tooth-filling.

In the first place, all professional fees are graded according to the standard of living in the community. In small cities and villages the doctors, dentists, and lawyers, often extremely skilful, would never dream of asking what New York doctors and lawyers regularly ask. Surgeons in Poughkeepsie, Albany, New Haven, and Springfield can probably remove the appendix as successfully as any one in New York, but they might charge their richest patients no more than $500, and possibly as little as $150. People who are unfamiliar with New York prices are therefore aghast at the thought of fees which hardened New Yorkers take for granted; and the voices of these strangers within our gates help to swell the chorus of complaint.

Moreover, the position of a doctor differs widely from that of a lawyer or engineer. The latter are not called upon in crises of life and death to give their services freely. Every surgeon of standing devotes much time and energy to hospital practice and cases in which his fees are merely nominal. As a humane man he cannot do less. He expects and his patients expect that he shall partly reimburse himself from those who can afford to pay handsomely. Physicians as a class are not consumed with greed. The vast majority set professional honor and their services to mankind above other considerations, and are content with a moderate return for their labor. A surgeon is entirely warranted in fixing a maximum fee, say, $1,000, or even more, for appendicitis, demanding this maximum from his rich patients, and charging others less, according to his private judgment as to mercy and justice. By this we do not mean that when he saves the life of a millionaire he shall capriciously set his figures in the thousands or tens of thousands, but that his maximum shall be determined seriously and honestly.

In such a reckoning he may often take account of factors which a layman (as the correspondence already referred to shows) might overlook. The element of time, for instance, is often relatively unimportant. A physician carries a child through an ordinary case of measles in three or four calls, and charges for each call. In a prolonged but not grave illness he may not deem it quite fair to charge rigidly for every call. For a twelve-minute operation for appendicitis he properly asks far more than for the hours spent over measles or mild lingering sickness. The seriousness of the malady, the difficulty and risk of the operation, and the skill and previous medical training required must all be considered. A painful flesh-wound from an accident may take five times as long to heal as an incision for appendicitis; the surgeon may dress it daily for weeks; and yet the flesh-wound may never threaten life itself, and the treatment may be so simple and easy that it demands from the surgeon nothing but attention and average knowledge. An abdominal operation may—thanks to extraordinary special knowledge, acquired at great expense—be so quick and brilliant that, though the patient has literally been snatched from death, he and his friends may imagine that nothing much was the matter. He is subjected to less inconvenience and agony than he might suffer from having four of the most workmanlike gold fillings put in his teeth. The bills, however, should not be the same.

THE FUNCTION OF AN ENDOWED PRESS.

Rumors are current that one of our greatest universities is soon to be endowed with a press; if so, let us hope it will be put to good use, for it would be altogether hasty to assume that a university press is of necessity a blessing, and dangers of the most obvious kind are readily to be foreseen. It may, for one thing, become the servant not so much of learning and education as of the institution it represents; it may be run, in plain words, to advertise the university and to push its graduates. The evil is evident in the gross, but extends far in subtle and demoralizing ramifications. Such a policy would, for instance, incidentally tend to encourage the promiscuous printing of doctors' theses, and foster the spirit of hot-bed forcing that is the chief cause of the immaturity and crudeness for which too much of our American scholarship has made an unfortunate reputation. Closely akin to this is an evil not unknown even to the Pitt and the Clarendon Presses. These institutions enjoy the special advantage of knowing beforehand the subjects to be set for university examinations, and they suborn young scholars whose time might be far better and hardly less remuneratively spent, to prepare text-books for these examinations. With our system this could not so largely be the case; yet who can doubt that text-books and doctors' theses might easily become the chief product of such a press?

There is another danger, even more grave, that requires statement at some length, for it opens up the whole subject of the teaching of literature at our universities. Yet this is no incidental matter, for the press, after all, is the greatest of the teachers of literature. Under the influence of men with much special but little general education, work would probably be published unworthy of a university in its standard of expression It is perhaps an indirect result of the present extraordinary effort in the teaching of English and literature that both teachers and learners, to say nothing of those who are neither teachers nor learners, have measurably lost sight of what literary expression is; whence their ill success. One of the most deplorable things at our universities is to see men who profess literature, consciously or unconsciously setting before their students the idea that literary expression is an end to be achieved by direct study, and which may be turned to commercial advantage. But literary expression is nothing more than a means to an end: it is the employment of the symbols of written language in the manner most closely adapted to conveying thought. We must learn to think first, and after that learn to convey what we have thought. Most of our teaching, however, is how to express ourselves regardless of the cultivation of the intellect, and this teaching is carried on with such intensity that thought which should be stimulated by literature is, on the contrary, crushed out by it.

Literature under this system tends to become a specialty. The masterpieces of English prose and verse are no longer the sacred repositories of the highest thought of our race, claimed by every educated man as his equal birthright; they are delegated to specialist educators—the term is a fit one—as instruments for technical study and preferment. At many, if not all, of our universities, English literature is already suffering from undiscriminating specialism, and many of those engaged in other pursuits affect an often comforting disdain for literary expression as a matter that concerns some learned colleague, but not themselves. They forget, those who have ever known it, that a clear thought can be crystallized only by a clear expression. And so, to leave generalities and come to particulars, we find that even in the study nearest akin to that of literature, namely, that of history, something distinctly worse than bad style is winked at and, on occasion, encouraged. Is it safe, under such circumstances, to trust a college faculty with a press?

And yet the need for an endowed press is crying. To enumerate all the good purposes it might serve would be to exceed the unavoidable bounds of this ar-

ticle, and only one will be adverted to, one not generally recognized and yet perhaps most important of all—the production of serious literature at a low price. It is one of the weaknesses of our Anglo-Saxon civilization (for in this matter the argument applies to England even more than to ourselves), that whereas the price of newspapers, of magazines, and of fiction has steadily tended downwards, such has not been the case with what may be described conveniently as serious literature—literature that ranges from poetry through history to philosophy. How seriously our national position is affected may be shown by a comparison with France. That country happily has a standard price of publication, 70 cents a volume, at which the bulk of current literature, both light and serious, is produced. Bourget's latest novel and Henri Houssaye on Waterloo appear on the bookstall side by side and at the same price, and as often as not the good Paris bourgeois purchases the more valuable book. And to say that this is simply because French serious literature is better written than ours is an enormous exaggeration, as may be demonstrated. A few years ago a London publisher set out to produce a translation of the complete works of Nietzsche. The first volume met with little encouragement; the second was accompanied by a slip from the publisher stating that unless the public responded better he would have to abandon the enterprise; the third has never appeared. In France, all of Nietzsche's works have long since been translated, and the least sold had run some years ago into several thousands.

Here we have not a question of style, but of price; not of the positive value of Nietzsche, but of intellectual curiosity. And here we get a rough demonstration that in France, with less than forty millions of people, there are probably from five to ten persons who buy serious books to one in the English-speaking countries with nearly four times the population. If that is so, if it is only approximately so, it is a terrible reproach to our civilization, and it is largely the result of the inflated prices charged for new works of serious literature. It should not be forgotten that the class of the community which buys, or might buy, such books, is one that feels very keenly the difference between paying less than a dollar or from two to six dollars. In Paris the publisher who should raise his price would lose his public; in London or New York the publisher who should lower his price would find the public unprepared and irresponsive. From the publishers there is nothing to hope, for the present, save cheap reprints of works out of copyright, but might not an endowed press, working with steady policy over a course of years, help us? By inflexibly demanding adequate literary expression, by standardizing its prices at a low figure, by giving unknown authors a chance on their merits, by supporting scholars in difficult but little-trodden paths, it might serve a great national purpose, and in time shake the publishers and the public out of the vicious rut into which they have insensibly slipped.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.

HAVERFORD, December, 1905.

The experiment of holding a meeting of a learned society in a small town is generally regarded as hazardous, but in the two cases in which the Modern Language Association has tried it—at Charlottesville, Va., and this winter at Haverford, Pa.—the result has been most satisfactory. The total attendance, though smaller than the gatherings in New York, Cambridge, and Baltimore, has been quite up to the average; while the proportion of members actually present at the sessions has been larger than usual, and, most important of all, the opportunities for social intercourse have been better than they ever can be amid the varied distractions of a city. About half of the members, this time, chose to take rooms in the Philadelphia hotels, which can be reached almost as readily from Haverford as from the University of Pennsylvania; the others were comfortably housed in the college dormitories. Meals were served on the grounds, and a fine club-house offered everything that the most exacting taste could require. Reduced railway rates added to the general cheerfulness.

Many of the visitors this year were attracted, no doubt, by the prospect of hearing an address from Professor Gummere, president of the Association for 1905; many, too, were interested in seeing a college so highly esteemed yet so little known. Neither of these expectations was disappointed. The presidential allocution consisted, as had been generally hoped, of an exposition of some of Professor Gummere's views concerning the production of ballads. This kind of poetry, being in its origin essentially a game or an outgrowth of the dance, is naturally dramatic rather than narrative; it portrays a single scene, and develops its theme by a process that is aptly called "incremental repetition." In conflict with this congenital immobility is the world-old love of story-telling, which tends to transform the ballad into a little epic, substituting a complete tale for a self-explanatory situation. A delightful feature of the address was the reading of ballads illustrating the two types.

It is safe to say that few of the outsiders left Haverford without a twinge of envy for those colleagues whose lot is cast in this homelike little college. Beautiful grounds, extending apparently as far as the eye can reach, where the happy professors dwell, untaxed, in a friendly community of their own, enjoying all the pleasures of rural life within easy reach of a great city; adequate but unpretentious buildings; a comfortable endowment, which makes it possible to offer unusual inducements to exceptional men; a sensible administration, a small but well-selected corps of instructors, a choice and not overlarge body of students; a high standard of scholarship, combined with a total absence of vulgar boastfulness and blatant advertising—these advantages make Haverford a model of what the little college should be. Would that more institutions had the same opportunity and could follow the same enlightened policy!

The programme was of evenly good quality. Constant attendants at the Association meetings have noted, from year to year, a marked improvement in the choice of subjects and the presentation of them. There are now none of those intolerable bunglers who do not know what they have written and cannot read their own handwriting; there are few of those enthusiasts who have to be gently plucked by the coat-tail at the expiration of their allotted twenty minutes; and there are not many of those microscopic specialists whose work is too technical to be followed even by a scientific audience. The regulations adopted some years ago prevent crowding and leave plenty of time for debate. Discussion, this year, was abundant and lively, and the repose of somnolent members was full of interruptions. Of the twenty-two papers read, not one could be called feeble; scarce half-a-dozen were really uninteresting—and even these were so well written and so convincingly delivered that the hearers half believed they understood. Six or seven were sufficiently general to entertain any educated public. All the papers but one dealt with literary topics, and that one was of a purely popular character. English literature naturally predominated, but French and German were ably represented, and there was an agreeable sprinkling of other languages. A welcome surprise was the appearance of a lady among the readers. One striking feature of the programme was the size of the Cambridge delegation; nearly half of the speakers were men now or formally connected with Harvard. Equally striking was the absence of any direct offering from Johns Hopkins. We may see in these facts evidence of a notable increase in productivity at Harvard, without (let us hope) postulating a corresponding decline in Baltimore. Contributions were made by twenty-one colleges or universities, scattered across the continent from Montreal to the Pacific Coast; only one, however, came from the South. The papers actually read were divided among fourteen seats of learning.

The two that called forth most comment were "American Speech," by Mr. Leigh R. Gregor of McGill College, and "The Prosody of Walt Whitman," by Prof. F. N. Scott of the University of Michigan. Mr. Gregor took as his starting-point Henry James's address "On the Question of our Speech," and, in the form of a highly amusing dialogue between John Bull and Brother Jonathan, discussed with great sagacity the chief linguistic differences between England and America, dealing impartially with the shortcomings of both; he then considered the possibility of maintaining separate standards for the two countries, and the chances of a final reconciliation through mutual concessions. Professor Scott demonstrated that Walt Whitman's poetry was by no means an impetuous production, but was the fruit of long experiment, thought, and study. Collecting all the poet's utterances about his art, he noted Whitman's belief

that prose is a more elastic and less conventional form than verse, his susceptibility to large, free movements and rushes of sound, his fondness for the swaying, gliding effects that characterize rhythmic prose. Following his previously published theory that prose rhythm is essentially a combination of pitch variations, while verse rhythm consists in sequences of varied stress, Professor Scott showed that Whitman's prosody "is an attempt to construct with the units of prose rhythm a pattern similar to that which other poets had constructed with the materials of metre." This thesis was illustrated by readings and comparisons. It may be added that Professor Scott evidently does not regard Whitman's creation as likely to have any lasting effect on English poetry. Among the other papers, mention should be accorded to Dr. W. W. Lawrence's "Structure and Interpretation of the 'Widsith,'" a masterpiece of argument and presentation, and Dr. Karl D. Jessen's penetrating study of "Margaret Fuller's Criticism of Goethe."

In 1904 there was presented to the Association the "Report of a Joint Committee, representing the National Educational Association, the American Philological Association, and the Modern Language Association of America, on the subject of a Phonetic English Alphabet." The proposals of this body, though approved as a whole, were criticised in some details, and a committee of five, consisting of Professors Sheldon, Grandgent, Bright, Hempl, and Weeks, was appointed to revise the work. The new committee reported at this meeting, suggesting certain modifications in the alphabet, which make it simpler, more logical, and less divergent from other systems. The report was unanimously adopted; similar action was subsequently taken by the Philological Association, in session at Ithaca. The plan is to urge all makers of dictionaries and text-books to use this alphabet in indicating pronunciation; and some hope is entertained that, as the public gradually becomes accustomed to the phonetic notations, the logical spelling may ultimately replace our traditional orthography. The new alphabet is well adapted to both these ends, being easy, clear, systematic, and not too outlandish in appearance. The prospect for phonetic spelling now seems brighter than ever before. The Association also voted approval of "the proposal to hold an international conference of experts in phonetics for the purpose of considering a uniform method of graphic representation of the sounds of speech."

The president for 1906 is Prof. H. A. Todd of Columbia. The Association has received from President Hadley an invitation to hold its next meeting at Yale.

THE AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT BALTIMORE.

BALTIMORE, January 4, 1906.

The eighteenth annual meeting of the American Economic Association was held with the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore during the Christmas recess, jointly with the American Political Science Association, and simultaneously with the sessions of the American Historical Association. In large and representative attendance, in sustained interest and spirited discussion, and in general helpfulness to the science and its devotees, the meeting was one of the best in the history of the Association. It is hoped that the social arrangements were found agreeable, and that the opportunities for personal contact and informal intercourse were adequate.

The general plan of the meeting was the selection of five general topics—Economic Theory, Regulation of Railway Rates, Municipal Ownership, Labor Questions, Economic Future of the Negro—and the assignment of one session to the consideration of each such topic. In most cases two papers were submitted, presenting the respective sides of the matter in controversy, which were discussed first by designated persons, and thereafter, to the amount of time available, by the general meeting. On the whole this plan, to which the Association has for some years been steadily drifting, worked admirably. In some instances the issue was drawn too narrowly, and academic calm in at least one instance was replaced by unnecessary warmth. But the discussions were more unified and profitable.

The opening session of the meeting on Wednesday morning, December 27, was devoted to Economic Theory. Prof. Jacob H. Hollander of Johns Hopkins University presented a formal paper on "The Present State of the Theory of Distribution," and this was discussed by Profs. John B. Clark of Columbia University, William M. Burke of Albion College, Charles A. Tuttle of Wabash College, Roswell C. McCrea of Bowdoin College, Frank A. Fetter of Cornell University, and Simon N. Patten of the University of Pennsylvania. After pointing out that the theory of distribution has been the primary endeavor of economic inquiry during the largest part of its systematic pursuit, and briefly outlining the development of the doctrine, Professor Hollander stated that the theory as now current is discredited by two recognized criteria of scientific progress—(a) practicable applicability, and (b) agreement as to fundamental principles. This deficiency is due less to incompleteness of result than to the use of inappropriate method. Three conceivable methods may be employed by the economist in his search for a theory of distribution, conveniently distinguished as: (1) Historical; (2) Metaphysical; and (3) Analytical. Whatever hope may have been entertained as to the usefulness of the historical method in constructing a body of economic doctrine, was born of reaction. The metaphysical method is a mean between closet speculation and dialectical hypercriticism bearing insufficient relation to the concrete facts of economic life. The analytical method, on the other hand, assumes that the details of economic distribution are capable of observation, arrangement, and classification; that when so arranged they reveal certain uniformities, that these uniformities may be formulated as hypotheses, and these hypotheses may be demonstrated as laws. It is the method of positive science capable of application to every field of systematic study other than the purely philosophical disciplines. The successful use of the analytical method by the economist has been delayed by the absence or inadequacy of necessary material required by the deductive student for his actual synthesis and for his ultimate verification; by the inductive investigator for his essential subject-matter. The corrective proposed, therefore, by Professor Hollander is an arrest of further text-book didacticism, an abandonment of hypercritical dialectics, and a reduction of metaphysical speculation, as the exclusive apparatus serviceable in search for the law of economic distribution, to a minor rôle. Measurably in lieu thereof, and largely in connection therewith, was suggested a detailed systematic acquaintance with the actual contemporary subject-matter, as the preparation and equipment for its scientific interpretation.

President Taussig's address on Wednesday evening, on "The Love of Wealth and the Public Service," was a notable departure from the narrower limits of economic theory and practice into the broad field of social philosophy. He undertook to consider the motives that actuate able men in the conduct of large industrial enterprises, and the possibility of enlisting in greater degree the services of such men in the administration of public business. The complex desire for wealth was analyzed into four constituent elements: first, love of ease and comfort; second, desire for distinction; third, the impulse to activity; fourth, the passion for power and mastery. The most potent of these forces, the impulse for achievement and for mastery, finds nothing attractive in the administration of public affairs in consequence of the peculiarities of the political machinery of our own country. Not until our political life offers some reasonable chance of prolonged tenure and substantial power, will it attract men of the needed stamp. Even thereafter, all the elaboration of more effective governmental apparatus will prove useless unless the public really wishes for better government.

As to the ultimate outcome, President Taussig ranged himself unhesitatingly on the side of the angels:

> "Our political machinery is improving, and is likely still further to improve. The worship of wealth is diminishing, and the respect for public service is increasing. Men of character and capacity will win, in the long run, the suffrage of the people, and corruption and jobbery will be rebuked. The fundamental virtues are not lacking, and we may base upon them our devices for enlisting high-minded ability, for raising general intelligence, for bettering the working details of government. We may expect that the sphere of public enterprises will be enlarged, as the lessons necessary for the successful conduct of such enterprises are learned. We may hope for greater repression of the selfish motives and the sordid activities, for freer play to noble ambition and public-spirited effort, and not only for a stronger government, but for a better and purer democracy."

The session of Wednesday afternoon was devoted to "Railway Rate Regulation," with Hon. Martin A. Knapp of the Interstate Commerce Commission in the chair. Prof. Hugo R. Meyer of the University of Chicago and Prof. B. H. Meyer of the State Railway Commission of Wisconsin were scheduled to present the opposed sides of the question in issue, and Prof. Frank H. Dixon of Dartmouth, Mr. L. G. McPherson, lecturer on transportation at Johns Hopkins, Prof. Don C. Barrett of Haverford, and Prof. Willard C. Fisher of Wesleyan undertook to discuss the papers. As a matter of fact, the inspiration of environment was overpowering, and the announced

topic was relatively neglected. "The Chicago Meyer" paid his respects in emphatic terms to the record of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and "the Wisconsin Meyer" prefaced his formal paper by a spirited and direct arraignment of the statements and citations of the preceding speaker. Some such conflict was perhaps inevitable, but the profit of the discussion suffered.

The interest of current affairs was reflected by a joint session on Thursday morning with the American Political Science Association, devoted to "The Case for and against Municipal Ownership." Principal papers were presented by Mr. Frederick C. Howe of Cleveland and Prof. Winthrop M. Daniels of Princeton University. Thereafter a vigorous and competent discussion was carried on by Prof. Leo S. Rowe of Pennsylvania, Prof. John A. Fairlie of Michigan, and Dr. M. R. Maltbie.

Labor questions engaged the attention of the meeting on Thursday afternoon. Prof. H. W. Farnam of Yale presented a quantitative study of the labor movement in new groupings of the statistical data made available by the United States Commission of Labor, and suggested a larger use of diagrammatic apparatus and exhibits in the publications of that body. United States Commissioner of Labor Neill took part in the interesting discussion which followed. The second formal paper of the session was by Prof. Thomas S. Adams of the University of Wisconsin, on the extent and tendency of violence in strikes, and this was entertainingly discussed by a social philosopher in the person of Prof. N. P. Gilman, of Meadville; by an economist, Dr. George E. Barnett, of Johns Hopkins, and by a labor leader, Mr. William B. Prescott, ex-president of the International Typographical Union.

In keen interest and actual substance the closing session of the meeting on Friday morning, devoted to "The Economic Future of the Negro," left nothing to be desired. Mr. Alfred H. Stone of Mississippi and Prof. W. E. B. DuBois of Atlanta University read the principal papers, and Prof. Charles L. Raper, of the University of North Carolina, Mr. Theodore Marburg of Baltimore, Prof. M. B. Hammond of the Ohio State University, and Mr. R. C. Bruce of Tuskegee submitted minor communications. Manifestly here was a group of men qualified in very unusual degree to speak upon the matter under discussion, and, with barely an exception, the papers were positive and acute. But the contrariety of opinion—indeed, the opposition of facts—was so marked as to depress even the most optimistic believer in the possibility of a "solution" of the negro question. On the one hand, the black was shown to be a thrifty, reasonably industrious peasant, whose standard of life rises rapidly under favorable conditions; and, on the other hand, he was characterized as a besotted degenerate, from whom neither progress nor even stability may be expected. The session was barely rescued from utter agnosticism by requesting the Executive Committee of the Association to consider the propriety of a committee to collect facts bearing upon the industrial position and prospects of the negro.

Two business meetings of the Association were held, at which the constitution was so amended as to replace the overgrown Council, as a governing board, by a somewhat enlarged Executive Committee. The affairs of the Association, as reported by its officers, were found in prosperous condition. Progress was also made in the long-considered plan of further publication activity. Prof. J. E. Jenks of Cornell University was elected to the presidency; and Prof. W. M. Daniels succeeded secretary-treasurer Fetter, whose long and efficient service received appreciative recognition. The association adjourned to meet at Providence, with Brown University, in the Christmas recess of 1906. J. H. H.

Correspondence.

OUR FAULTY MONETARY SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The editorial in the current issue of the *Nation* (No. 2115) upon Mr. Schiff's warning is eminently sound and pertinent. Nevertheless, neither it nor Mr. Schiff's remarks, as it seems to me, quite touch the root of the evil, so far as our banking and monetary system is concerned. That evil is inherent in the system as at present constituted. It is undoubtedly true, as you have pointed out, that the recent stringency in the money market is attributable, not to the working of our Sub-Treasury system, bad though that may be, but to the locking up in Stock Exchange speculations of the free loanable capital upon which the commerce of the country is dependent. It is also true that "this autumn's episode" is "a disgrace to a civilized community," and to the banking fraternity in particular.

But what are the bank managers to do? As certainly as the summers come around, does this loanable capital, temporarily freed from use, accumulate upon their hands. They pay interest upon it—with rare exceptions; unwillingly, it may be, but of necessity because their competitors do so. The country bankers, having no use at home for their accumulations, send them to the cities, where they get interest upon their balances at a rate not governed by market conditions as in other countries, but fixed for the entire year. The banks in the smaller cities, being similarly situated as regards the plethora of loanable funds, pass their surplus along to the larger cities; and they in turn deposit theirs with the banks in New York. What, then, should the New York bankers do under these circumstances? Refuse to take the capital on deposit and pay interest upon it? That would be the wise and prudent course, but it is a course they dare not take. Self-interest interposes. The few who perceive the danger are helpless; should they turn away deposits for which their rivals are clamoring, they would injure their own business without relieving the general situation.

This capital—deposits or credit balances, as they call it, or "money," in the parlance of the Street—must be forced into use regardless of the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of withdrawing it when needed for the active commerce of the autumn and winter. If, in their effort to find employment for the "funds" thus committed to their charge, the bankers play into the hands of the millionaire speculators, they are not so blameworthy as it may seem when viewed from without. These speculators are among the very best customers of the banks; they carry the largest balances without interest; they offer the most readily marketable security; they control, directly or indirectly, many sources from which the banks derive profitable business. Moreover, the purpose for which loans upon collateral are negotiated, is not, as a rule, known to the lenders. Even the personality of the borrowers is commonly hidden when brokers are employed. Nor is this all. Much of the borrowing is from individuals, trust companies, insurance companies, and also from banks in other cities. But, whoever the lenders, the pressure comes upon the New York banks, where the credit balances are carried.

From their intimate relation to the financial transactions that pass through their hands, the bankers cannot plead ignorance of what is going on in the field either of legitimate business or of speculation. But individually they are not free agents; the working of the system is more powerful than they are. Collectively, they do not act; the number of independent rival institutions precludes concerted action even for the protection of themselves and the general public. What is needed is radical reform in both our banking and currency systems. As now constituted, our banking system may aptly be compared to a high-pressure boiler under full and steadily increasing duty, but without a safety-valve. Such a safety-valve would be afforded by a bank currency like that of the Canadian banks. By contracting automatically when commerce slackens, it would put pressure upon the banks at the season when it is needed, thus preventing in large measure the excessive accumulations that are now such a fruitful source of trouble. But, to be stable, such a currency must be issued by large institutions under stringent provisions as to redemption, and careful supervision in other respects; to work smoothly and efficiently it calls for branch banking. It thus involves a sweeping change in our present system—if system it can be called—of several different kinds of banking institutions, all pushing each other into more or less unsound practices, but pulling apart and forcing disaster when a crisis becomes imminent.

Commenting editorially upon Mr. Schiff's address, the Chicago *Record-Herald* remarks, concerning proposed remedies, that "the differences of the experts are very perplexing to the lay mind." The cause of these differences is that most of the bankers, few of whom are really experts on these matters, are blinded by self-interest or fear. Therefore, poor makeshift propositions are put forward, though fathered and supported by weighty names. Even those who see clearly what should be done assert that it is hopeless to try for it, since the country bankers, to a man, are set against branch banking. There is force in the argument they adduce, that no system is proof against the consequences of bad management; but a bad system, such as that we now have, compels wrong practices, which under a good system would as inevitably be discouraged. Frederick W. Gookin.

Chicago, January 14, 1906.

THE CANAL AND THE COST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If the Panama Canal is opened for traffic in ten years, and has then cost us, including interest, which is already running, $500,000,000—which seems not an improbable amount—then at four per cent. the interest on the cost will amount to $20,000,000 annually. If the average charge for each vessel passing through is $4,000—about that of the Suez Canal—it will require the passage of 5,000 ships a year to meet interest charges alone. If $6,000 a ship is required, it would still require 3,333 vessels a year to meet interest charges. Is any such amount of traffic supposable?

Moreover, the cost of maintenance cannot of course be estimated at less than $1,000,000, more probably at $2,000,000; and to meet this alone, at an average of $6,000, would require the passage of 333 vessels.—Yours, H. A. P.

Cambridge, Mass., January 13, 1906.

Notes.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in preparation 'Hawaiian Yesterdays,' by Dr. Henry M. Lyman of Chicago, a missionary's son, who now presents his boyish recollection of island life.

In the course of the present month Messrs. Bell & Sons will publish 'The Itinerary in Wales of John Leland in or about the years 1536-1539.' The editor is Miss L. Toulmin Smith, who is already well known to students of English on both sides of the Atlantic. In this volume are gathered together and arranged the portions relating to Wales scattered through four parts of Leland's works; the place-names are identified, and there is a map and a full index. The book is intended to form part of a new edition of Leland's celebrated 'Itinerary through England and Wales,' upon which Miss Smith is still engaged.

In the *Globus*, R. Lehmann-Nitzsch announces that Mr. E. Antran of Buenos Ayres recently found in the heart of the Argentine Republic twenty-eight unknown letters of Alexander von Humboldt. They were addressed to Bonpland, and have been handed down in that naturalist's family as a portion of his literary remains. They are to be published in the near future in connection with the posthumous writings of Bonpland. A preliminary report on the whole find has been made public by Ed. L. Holmberg.

The Royal Association of Sciences in Copenhagen and the Academy of Sciences in Berlin have agreed jointly to prepare a catalogue of the Greek and Latin medical writers. The ulterior purpose is to submit this to the International Association of Academies with a view to having a complete and scientific edition of all the medical works of classical antiquity prepared and published. The next convention of the International Association, to be held in Vienna in 1907, at Whitsuntide, is expected to take definite action in the matter.

After the present year the works of Heinrich Heine will no longer be protected in France, where copyright extends fifty years after the death of an author. The *Gaulois* declares that interest in Heine is still growing in France, and the demand for his works now greater than ever.

Probably the first edition of Goethe's poems to be issued in Japan made its appearance recently in Tokio from the publishing house of K. Nakane, in a volume of 244 pages, embellished with a portrait of Goethe and a reproduction of the well-known picture, "Goethe's Familie." The author is Tadao Hashimoto, already known for an early edition of Heine and for his advocacy of the study of German literature; and, besides the poems, in the German letter, there are translations of some forty-eight of Goethe's best-known ballads and lyrics, with explanatory notes in Japanese. The translations, in Japanese verse, do not, of course, satisfy the metrical conditions of the original. In his introduction Mr. Nakane presents the question, What is the character of the poetry of Goethe which has been so much praised? For his part he finds in the poems of the German Olympian unusual vigor, fulness of life, an earnest spirit that is always a confession of the soul, a mysterious strength and calmness that yields sound like that of music, abundance of touch with human life, simplicity of style, and a form that is in strict accord with the content. The editing of Goethe's works, Mr. Nakane says, was a labor of love, undertaken for the youth of Japan, who are as yet quite unfamiliar with the poet. There is also a preface to the work by a friend of the editor, who styles himself *Chiku-fu*, or "The Wind in the Bamboo," and who compares Goethe to a kettle into which all kinds of metal have been poured and melted to effect his unique genius. The Japanese, says *Chiku-fu*, are very fond of Heine, whom they know rather well, but he is only a sort of *shuju* or "Confucius-disciple" of Goethe, and between Heine and his master there is as much difference as between earth and heaven.

Two more volumes in the Arthur H. Clark Co.'s reprints, "Early Western Travels, 1748-1846," embrace three interesting narratives; the longest, Gregg's 'Commerce of the Prairies (1802-1839),' being also the most valuable—indeed, a well-established classic, accurate and well written. This author describes the barbarous New Mexican sport of *eorrer el gallo*, which still survives (or did up to the civil war) in our Southern States as "gander-pulling." Gregg has also a brief section on the Mormon settlement in Independence, Mo., but has most to tell of the aborigines and the fauna of their country as observed by a veteran trader of the Santa Fé Trail. A New Bedford Quaker, George W. Ogden, relates his experiences as tourist and sojourner in the Ohio Valley, 'Letters from the West, 1821-23.' The common sights of slavery on the Southern side of the river draw from him strong expressions of humane displeasure as well as of pride in his sect's testimonies against slavery; he devotes a closing section to this subject. W. Bullock, an intelligent Englishman, keen for natural curiosities for his museum, supplies a 'Journey from New Orleans to New York, 1827,' which has for its chief feature (though of minor interest) a description of Niagara Falls.

Various causes have delayed our noticing three sumptuous folio volumes which we owe to the courtesy of the State Department of Mexico, entitled 'Mexico: Its Social Evolution.' Plain "History" would have answered as well as "Evolution," as the publishers (Mexico: J. Ballescá & Co.) seem to feel. The original composition was in Spanish, in 1899, for the close of the century; and the retrospect has been thought worth translating into English. It was popularly conceived and entrusted to many hands, as is usually the case in such album works; and this involved some repetitions, witness the Mexican war, to which there is a return under "The National Army." The most valuable chapter we judge to be that on "The Public Treasury," so large a factor in Mexican history of the past half century; and with it we should couple the chapter on "National Education," though it is one of the most poorly translated. The work was set up and printed in Barcelona, and while literal errors are comparatively few, a faulty idiom throughout makes reading difficult, to say nothing of the Spanish literary habit, which manifests itself in needless abstractions and verbiage. The lack of a general index is to be regretted. There are two folding maps of Mexico, one for her railroads, and a great profusion of process illustrations of a high order, including numerous portraits. From these last and from the architectural views Americans may acquire a chastening respect for the civilization of our Southern neighbor.

The books on Egypt written since the great Napoleon virtually rediscovered it, and his savants for the first time tried to describe scientifically its physical features and archæological treasures, would fill a large library. Some of them, like Eliot Warburton's 'Crescent and the Cross,' were written under the inspiration of an enthusiastic afflatus which gave a rosy color to the most commonplace scenes; but others, like H. W. Dunning's 'To-day on the Nile' (James Pott & Co.), were mere handbooks of travel. In a dahabiyeh, which was the only vehicle for travel on the Nile half a century ago, and which is still the most delightful, a traveller may dream away three months of delicious leisure and intellectual enjoyment while covering the same length of river as is ploughed in a fortnight by a steamer filled with a noisy, unsympathetic crowd of tourists, who are hurried from temple to temple and from tomb to tomb by a dragoman with a kurbash. The traveller in the dahabiyeh will take beside his Wilkinson, Maspero, and Budge, his Warburton and Prime and Amelia Edwards; but the tripper on the Cook boat or the Anglo-American steamer cannot do better than prepare for his journey by reading Mr. Dunning's popular but scholarly chapters on Egyptian history and mythology; and, as he rushes about, he will have no more than leisure enough to supplement and even to correct the harangue of the dragoman by Mr. Dunning's concise description of what he will see, for the physical fatigue of exhausting Egypt in a fortnight leaves neither time nor power for thought.

'Animal Heroes,' by Ernest Thompson Seton (Scribners), gives the histories of a cat, a dog, a pigeon, a lynx, a rabbit, two wolves, and a reindeer. The stories are more or less composite, the author says, but are each founded on the life of a veritable animal hero. "A hero is an individual of unusual gifts and achievements."

Whether it be man or animal, this definition applies; and it is the histories of such that appeal to the imagination and to the hearts of those who hear them." Mr. Seton thus defines his subject and his literary aim. Probably few readers will unsettle their enjoyment of his stories over the question whether it is he or Mr. Burroughs that is right about the existence of animal heroes, or whether they see his animals in the light of his fancy or that of common day. He does touch the heart and the imagination, his methods are not sensational, his literary art is excellent, his knowledge is wide. Of all the modern nature students in whom the human interest in wild creatures dominates the merely scientific interest, he is, in Mr. Burroughs's opinion, the best, though with "romantic tendencies" that must be remembered when one reads his works as natural history.

Ernest Crosby's 'Garrison the Non-Resistant' (Chicago: The Public Publishing Co.) is in effect one of the now rather numerous minor biographies of that philanthropist. It is not, however, structurally organic; one part has, avowedly, been published before, and probably several. Thus, chapter v. is on "The Civil War," but also chapter x. is on "Garrison and the Civil War." There is much desultory discussion of whether war was the best way to end slavery, and of the politico-social results of the war at the South, disfranchisement, lynching, etc. This gives the little volume the aspect of a tract, but, if not strictly pertinent, it is often suggestive, as, conspicuously, the story of the Beast book at page 108. In the personal narrative there are several minor errors of fact, and at page 16 it is implied that the doctrine of immediatism was first urged by Garrison in the *Liberator* instead of in the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*. The apocryphal story of slapping a soldier on the back (p. 85) shows a defective criterion of testimony; slapping any one on the back was not Mr. Garrison's style. The point of view selected by Mr. Crosby is perfectly just, being fundamental; but, as a whole, his presentation cannot compare with that other, also of Tolstoyan non-resistant provenance, Tchertkoff and Holah's admirable 'Short Biography,' published in London in 1904.

Miss Ella Noyes, who contributed an excellent volume on Ferrara to the "Mediæval Towns" series, has written 'The Casentino and its Story' (London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton), a book in which picturesque description and historical reminiscence are pretty equally blended. The Casentino, it need hardly be said, is that beautiful region of the upper Arno, shut in by mountains, which abounds in scenery, old towns and castles, and in rich associations. Vallombrosa looks down into the valley on the west, La Verna, the rock of St. Francis, guards it on the east. Dante, who spent part of his exile here, immortalized the brooks of the Casentino in one line of "Hell," and fought in the battle at Campaldino. Here the Counts Guidi, Dante's friends and patrons, upheld the Ghibelline cause. Here St. Romualdo founded the first monastery of the Camaldoli. Miss Noyes describes all this, and much more, with enthusiasm. She has an unusual talent for making pen pictures of scenery vivid, and she seems to have overlooked none of the literary, artistic, or historical memorabilia of the valley. If at times her material is spun rather thin, that is a defect inevitable in works of this kind. The illustrations, by Miss Dora Noyes, really add to the interest of the book. There are twenty-five full-page sketches in color, and as many more line drawings which give the true Tuscan quality of scene, of tone, and of peasant life.

The Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde) publishes a very beautiful collotype reproduction of the Bodleian manuscript of Jerome's Latin version of the Chronica of Eusebius. The editor, Mr. John Knight Fotheringham of King's College, London, has written an Introduction and four critical appendices, showing most careful examination of the manuscript and thorough comparison of it with all others known to exist. Two other appendices, by Dr. R. L. Poole and Mr. C. H. Turner, add greatly to the interest of the publication. The appendix of Mr. Turner is a bibliographical study of Bishop Jean du Tillet of Meaux (d. 1570).

The December Bulletin of the New York Public Library contains a notable list of its works relating to woman in the several manifestations of her training, talents, occupations, and aspirations. One subdivision consists of a 'Dictionnaire de la Femme: Encyclopédie manuel des connaissances utiles à la femme' (Paris, 1877); an 'Illustrirtes Konversations-Lexikon der Frau' (Berlin, 1900); and a 'Dictionnaire des Précieuses' (Paris, 1856).

We have already announced the University of Chicago's two new periodical ventures, *Classical Philology* (quarterly) and the *Classical Journal* (monthly, November to June). The prospectuses now before us show in the editorship a very distinguished array of American scholars, impartially distributed among the universities, together with Prof. Wallace M. Lindsay of St. Andrews, Scotland. The managing editor is Edward Capps. We are told that "in so far as *Classical Philology* shall fulfil its object, it may . . . be looked upon as an offshoot of the *American Journal of Philology*, and as a witness to [Professor Gildersleeve's] influence upon American classical scholarship." The *Classical Journal* will be directed by the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, and will meet the wants of teachers. The managing editors are Gordon J. Laing and Arthur Fairbanks at the University of Chicago.

The Balkan conditions were graphically described by Mr. James Bryce in a recent address before the Balkan Committee, of which he has been president for three years. From the fact that he spent some weeks last autumn in Macedonia and Bulgaria, additional force was given to his statements. He said that there was no open war nor massacres on such a scale as those of two years ago, but in many districts isolated murders are frequent. "At present, no native's life or property is safe." As to the success of the new scheme for financial control, he could not express a confident opinion; but unless constant pressure is exerted to carry its provisions into effect, it will be of little use. "The local officials will do nothing unless such pressure is steadily applied. Indeed, they can do nothing; for what strikes one on visiting the country is that even the better officials—and sometimes the Turkish officials are honest, well-meaning men—can accomplish little, because they are thwarted in good or compelled to do wrong by orders from Constantinople." He emphasizes the absolute need of doing everything to induce the Christian races to abandon their guerrilla warfare, which is lamentable in itself and ruinous to their common cause, and profitable only to the Turkish Government, which does its best to foment the strife. If conditions are not improved it will be impossible to prevent a war between Bulgaria and Turkey.

The little mountain principality of Montenegro has entered upon a new era in her eventful history. Prince Nicholas has abolished the autocratic and patriarchal system of government which he inherited and has administered for forty-six years, and has substituted in its place a parliamentary system. In a proclamation issued last October, the opening paragraph of which asserts that "every man belonging to civilized society should be a free citizen," he calls upon "my gallant people" to select Deputies: "Let them assemble around me; I shall teach them their duties, and by our united action we shall bring about a great development of the liberties and prosperity of our country." On November 27 there was elected one Deputy from each of the fifty-six military districts and four towns; the Prince reserving to himself the nomination of six ministers of state and three ecclesiastical Deputies, representing the Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Mussulman churches. Various reasons have been assigned by friendly and hostile critics for this extraordinary step on the part of the Prince.

The main causes of the present anti-foreign movement in China have been ascribed to Japan's victory over a European Power, the influence of Chinese students educated in Japan, and the leniency, interpreted as a sign of weakness, with which our Government has treated the boycott. A British merchant who has closely studied the situation during a recent business tour through the leading cities of China, calls attention (in a letter to the London *Times*) to another significant way in which the movement is being fostered by the Pekin authorities. The Dowager Empress not long ago issued an edict cancelling the old curriculum for the official examinations, and ordering examinations in Western learning in their stead, without, however, providing for the details of such a vital change in the established order of things. The result is that all those Chinese men of letters who, in the ordinary course of things, would have become officials, are deprived of their careers, and are converted into a mass of discontented men spreading all over the Empire. In addition, some 200 printing-presses, formerly employed in printing text-books and educational matter under the old system, are idle, and the employees are added to the malcontents. The writer points out that this state of things strongly resembles that produced by the reformed edict which preceded the Boxer outbreak of 1900.

Mlle. Dosne, the sister-in-law and heiress of Thiers, has presented to the Institute the famous historic Hôtel Thiers in Paris, together with the beautiful gardens surrounding it on the Place St. Georges, with the proviso that it is to be used as a

library of historical writings. The venerable lady, who is known as the editor of Thiers's 'Notes et Souvenirs,' has already established the "Fondation Thiers" for the stimulation of university students. The new gift is the famous structure that on two occasions, in 1870 and in 1871, was about to be demolished by the Paris rabble, and was saved only by being declared to be "national property." When the Commune was crushed, the demolition was already under way, and Thiers had a good deal of trouble in restoring the structure.

—Last July a weekly journal of reputable standing and wide circulation printed in facsimile, with an accompanying article, a part of a *Cape Fear Mercury* of June 3, 1775, containing resolutions purporting to be those adopted by a convention held in Mecklenburg County, N. C., on May 20, declaring independence of the crown of Great Britain. At first sight the article, written by one unknown among writers on history, S. Millington Miller, seemed a bit of midsummer madness, intended to amuse by an historical fiction. The tone of it, however, and the number of documents reproduced, carried weight, and aroused much interest in the South, where the tradition of such a convention and declaration has persisted for a century. The *Mercury* was sought by many, and large sums were offered for it if proof of its being genuine could be furnished. Finally, the Historical Commission asked Mr. Worthington C. Ford, head of the manuscripts division in the Library of Congress to study the newspaper held by Miller. His report was that the document was a forgery, a very clever one in its general manufacture, and that the evidence presented in support of it by Miller could not bear examination. It is hardly possible that a sale will now be made, but it is unfortunate that some steps cannot be taken to impound such a forgery and punish the forger.

—'The Bird Watcher in the Shetlands, with Some Notes on Seals—and Digressions,' by Edmund Selous (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a summer continuation, made two years later, of the spring studies of little-known Northern sea-birds recorded in the author's 'Bird-Watching.' Mr. Selous has his own place among naturalists, by virtue of his unfamiliar fields, his originality of thought, and his power of giving to truly scientific matter the medium of a strong and cultivated literary style. This last distinction may well belong to a wilderness-lover and book-lover, whose idea of an earthly paradise is "the veldt or Brazilian forests, or Lapland or the Spanish Marisma, with the British Museum library round the corner." A close student of nature and of Darwin, Mr. Selous is a kind of scientific free-thinker, a zoölogist without gun or cabinet, who goes afield prepared to see and to think. He unites with faithfulness of observation considerable boldness of speculative theory. He finds going on among individuals of certain species gradual change and differentiation, which he regards as stages of evolution; for instance, he believes that the influence of sexual selection is modifying the plain, dark Arctic skua into a beautiful light-colored bird. He maintains that the same influence has evolved the brilliant color of the buccal cavity of several Northern species, through the nuptial habit, common to both sexes, of opening wide the beak. He argues, too, for a process of inter-sexual selection—the male, also, exercising choice—in species of which the sexes closely resemble each other, or of which the sexes differ markedly and are both handsome. His studies of a guillemot chick and of the play and repose of seals are delightful, and show how a naturalist may have sympathy and imagination, yet refrain from too subjective an "interpretation." Altogether, the book commends itself for unusual suggestiveness and interest.

—'Daniel Webster, the Expounder of the Constitution,' is the title of a volume by Everett P. Wheeler (G. P. Putnam's Sons). It is at the same time a memorial by an enthusiastic professional admirer of Webster, and a convenient manual for any one who wishes to get in a small compass a view of Webster's career as expounder. Of the importance of the part he played in the development of our constitutional system there cannot be two opinions, and he will always share with Marshall the fame of having laid the foundations on which our existing régime has been built. By taking in their order the leading cases in which he was engaged, Mr. Wheeler is able to direct the reader's attention to all the great stages in Webster's forensic career, and bring out his extraordinary gifts and industry, as they reveal themselves to the sharpest of all critics—those of his own profession. Besides being a great Constitutional lawyer, he was a great publicist in any field to which he turned his mind, and no doubt a companion monograph equally striking, to those familiar with the ground, might be made from his diplomatic papers. Mr. Wheeler seems to think that as a statesman, also, his fame is or ought to be no less high than in either of the two more restricted fields, and he appears to believe that the Seventh of March speech illustrated only Webster's devotion to ideals, just as his argument in the Dartmouth College case illustrated his mastery of Constitutional law. This is not the common opinion, and not even Mr. Wheeler's zeal can make us believe that it will become so. We get here into the most contentious of all political arenas—that of a country brought to the verge of a civil war by a great historical abuse intrenched in its law and Constitution. Mr. Wheeler may be right in thinking that Webster's ideas about slavery were not essentially different from the very conservative views originally held by Lincoln, but Webster's conservatism helped slavery, while Lincoln's discovered a means to destroy it; Webster lost us the road, while Lincoln found it for us again. In great crises a public man's disposition is often of more importance than his ideas.

—'The Civil Service and Patronage' (Longmans, Green & Co.) is the title of a careful and useful historical study by Carl Russell Fish. The problem of civil-service reform has been treated not from the standpoint of expediency, but by giving fully the development of policy and practice as to patronage and the civil service, from the foundation of the Government to the present day. A final chapter is devoted to the present status of the civil-service reform movement. Not enough attention has been paid to the long agitation which preceded the adoption of the new system, and we do not clearly make out whether the author's examination should lead us to think that the vast number of unclassified positions will be brought within the rules by the natural progress of events, or that they are, under the operation of a natural law of politics, to remain "spoils." The considerations bearing on this are certainly important, both practically and historically, but they are not often adverted to. That the reform should have had the great success we see, although the agitation was devoid of wide popular backing, the author attributes to its inherently democratic character, and also to the fact that it is essentially a change in the direction of business-like management, which he thinks a feature of all American life to-day as compared with what was American fifty years ago. The old colonial founders knew what was a good civil service, and that it involved established tenure, by the instinct of a governing class of inherited traditions. We know it, because we are all more or less versed in business methods. Jackson and his cohorts, between the two periods, were barbarian hordes, who swept away the earlier civil service, and established the spoils system in government as barbarians establish it everywhere. If this view is correct, the optimist will look forward to all the unclassified offices being brought within the system; the pessimist, however, who thinks the root of our barbarism to be in universal suffrage (also a product of the middle period), will not be convinced until he sees it done.

—In 'Madame Geoffrin, her Salon and her Times,' by Janet Aldis (London: Methuen; New York: Putnams), we find a number of entertaining episodes and anecdotes concerning literary or other notabilities of eighteenth-century France compiled from the usual well-known sources mentioned in the bibliography, with the strange omission, however, of Sainte-Beuve. The personality of Madame Geoffrin is, indeed, almost obscured here and there, as we try to follow her in the throng of her guests, whom she admittedly ruled, directed, and even controlled with perhaps more adroitness than any of her rivals. Much care has been given to the coördination of events into, as it were, a moving picture of the time; and some of the chapters, such as the vicissitudes that befell the 'Encyclopédie' (ch. x.) and the imprisonment of Marmontel (ch. xiii.) are conducted with spirit and humor. The estimate of Grimm is somewhat inadequate and cold, for the Gallicized German proved his real worth in many delicate and trying circumstances. Revision by a trained French hand would have reduced errors of detail. *Maréchals* (p. xiii.) is neither English nor French; *blonde et blanc* (p. 37), *Harengs fraises* (p. 72), *devoté* (p. 87), *à dimanche* (p. 101), *cette homme n'est bon pas qu'à manger du veau* (p. 212) might be deemed errors in proof-reading, did we not find (p. 172) a passage which seems to indicate the author's belief that *quinconce* is French for "quince-tree." One may note that she makes no remark on the fact that the social power of women was never more gladly accepted than in the age which gave such influence the sanction of consent, not of legislative enactment.

—The German translation (by Richard Palleske) of the book on 'Iceland at the Beginning of the Twentieth Century,' by the Icelandic scholar and member of the Althing, Valtyr Gudmundsson, has, thanks to the difference in time of appearance, certain advantages over its original, even for those who read Danish with the same ease as German. The author gives here, in about 160 pages, a brief, but fairly exhaustive and profusely illustrated, account of Iceland's status at the beginning of the present century, with a synopsis of the development, during the last century, in population, public life, education, literature and art, finances, industries, means of communication, sanitary conditions, and charities. To this are added samples of Icelandic prose and poetry in German translation, as well as some hints for travellers in Iceland. Dr. Gudmundsson was the prime mover of that amendment in the Icelandic Constitution of 1874 which was finally adopted in the year 1903, changing the seat of the minister for Iceland from Copenhagen to Reykjavik. Iceland is a vast and barren country, but a large part of that lack of energy which seems to be characteristic of a majority of its population, must doubtless be ascribed to the unhappy conditions under which the people have lived, subject to the will of a foreign ruler and nation, who, when they have not been bent upon exploiting the country, as was the case in the eighteenth century, had only a slight understanding of and interest in the needs of the inhabitants. It is, therefore, interesting to note what progress the country has made since, in 1874, it obtained a sort of semi-independence, and was thus enabled to take such measures within its means as were most likely to advance the material and intellectual welfare of the people. Roads and bridges have been built, schools and hospitals have been erected, telephones have been introduced, the steamship connection with the outside world has been regulated, and a cable connection with Europe is in a fair way of being brought about. The population of the island was, in 1901, about 80,000, showing a considerable gain during the last decade, due to the fact that the emigration to America has almost ceased. There are in America (chiefly in Manitoba and North Dakota) about 20,000 Icelanders, who have here several churches and newspapers of their own.

SIR WEMYSS REID'S MEMOIRS.

Memoirs of Sir Wemyss Reid, 1842-1885. Edited, with an Introduction, by Stuart J. Reid. With portrait in photogravure. Cassell & Co. 1905. Pp. xxxvi., 396.

Wemyss Reid was notable as a literary man, a biographer, and a writer of fiction. But his Memoirs are chiefly important as those of the editor of the Leeds *Mercury*, a powerful paper of the moderate Liberal school in a stirring time. He flourished in what was perhaps the palmiest epoch of British journalism, when the editor of a great journal himself directed its policy and was a statesman of the pen, not a mere organist or the manager of a Yellow concern.

The Leeds *Mercury* was the property of the Baines family, a house memorable in its way. Edward Baines the first was a young printer whose gifts the original proprietor of the journal had recognized with the best results. Edward Baines the second, who afterwards edited the paper, was a politician as well as an editor. He sat in Parliament for Leeds, but lost his seat through the fanaticism of Prohibitionists, who, enraged at his moderation, voted against him, and as a result got a local brewer elected in his place. The Baines family were Liberals of the moderate school, Nonconformists and Puritans. As Puritans, they showed their faith by excluding from their paper, no doubt at a considerable sacrifice, betting news and theatricals. If their example in excluding betting news had been followed, the country might have been saved from one of its worst pests. The exclusion of theatricals was clearly a Puritan error. The theatre must live and have its influence. It is for the press to take care that its influence shall be moral.

Wemyss Reid was the son of a clergyman at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. He was sent to a school in Scotland, a circumstance to which we owe a charming little picture of a Scotch Sabbath (p. 6):

"It was on Sunday, however, that the full severity of the Scotch Puritanism of that day made itself felt in my inmost soul. Oh, the dreary monotony of those Sabbaths at St. Andrews! The long, long service and yet longer sermon in the forenoon, the funereal procession of the congregation to their homes, the hasty meal, consisting chiefly of tea and cold, hard-boiled eggs, which took the place of dinner, and the return within a few minutes to the kirk, where the vitiated atmosphere left by the morning congregation had not yet passed away. Even when the second service had come to a close, the solemnities of the day were not ended, for the Sunday-school met in the late afternoon, and remained in session for a couple of hours.

"But it was not the public services, terrible though these were, that formed the most depressing feature of Sunday in St. Andrews; it was the rigid discipline which pervaded her home life. My grandfather, I believe, was looked upon as being somewhat lax in his religious views, and he was undoubtedly more liberal—perhaps one might say more advanced—than many of his neighbors. Yet even he had to render homage to the universal law. So when Sunday came round, the blinds were closely drawn, lest the rays of the sun should dissipate the gloom befitting the solemn day, whilst no voice in the household was raised above a sepulchral whisper. Lucky for me was it that I was sent to bed early, and that thus the horrors of the Sabbath were in my case abbreviated. The older members of the family sat in a silent semicircle round the smouldering fire, each holding, and some possibly reading, a book, the suitableness of which for use at such a time was beyond question. The Bible, the metrical version of the Psalms, and one or two volumes of discourses by divines of undoubted orthodoxy, formed the only literature recognized on these occasions. For myself, I had brought with me from home a copy of the delightful, though now-forgotten, book called 'Evenings at Home,' and my Sabbatical sufferings were intensified by the sight of this volume on a high bookshelf, where it remained beyond my reach from Saturday night till Monday morning."

Reid was at first put as clerk into a commercial house, but his aspirations were literary, especially journalistic. They were fulfilled. He became a reporter and a writer at the same time; then editor of the Preston *Guardian*, and at last of the Leeds *Mercury*. As a reporter he made a slip which might have been serious in reporting a speech of Lord Russell on the American civil war. Russell said that in the New World was seen that which had been so often seen in the Old World—a struggle, on the one side for independence, and on the other side for power. The reporter, being rather dazed, misconstrued the symbol for independence and made Russell say: "A struggle on the one side for empire and on the other for power." Fortunately, the misreport made nonsense. Gladstone's slip, which also occurred in a speech at Newcastle, might otherwise have been doubled.

The member of the Baines dynasty on whom the editorship of the *Mercury* naturally devolved, became a Plymouth Brother, or, as a lady by a slip of the tongue called him, "a Yarmouth Bloater." He deemed editorship inconsistent with his religious profession, and Weymss Reid was taken in his place.

As the district organ of moderate Liberalism, the Leeds *Mercury* collided with the extreme Radical party, then headed by Mr. Chamberlain, whose principles the Tories compared, without much exaggeration, to those of Jack Cade. The first encounter was in the case of the Sheffield election (p. 210):

"At Sheffield a candidate came forward in the extreme Radical interest, whose speeches attracted some notice in Yorkshire, though they passed unobserved by the larger public beyond. This was Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, who now made his first attempt to win Parliamentary honors. Up to that moment I had only known Mr. Chamberlain as a young Birmingham politician, who was fond of saying things both bitter and flippant, not only about his political opponents, but about the older members of his own party. He had made himself one of the fuglemen in the cry raised against Mr. Forster, towards whom he seemed to entertain a feeling of almost personal antipathy. At Sheffield he made himself conspicuous by his sneers at Mr. Gladstone and almost all the recognized leaders of Liberalism. His own political opinions appeared to be based upon a crude and intolerant Radicalism of the Socialistic type. He evidently believed that promises of material benefits would enable him to win the support of the mass of the electors, and he conceived also that the best method of displacing his seniors in the party of which he was a member was to assail them with a rather coarse invective."

Mr. Chamberlain was then forming in each of the cities a Radical caucus to control the local politics of his party and nominate its candidate for Parliament; Birmingham being the centre of the whole, and the constructor of the Machine being its master, into whose hands the representation of the cities would thus have come. The extension of this mechanism to Leeds inevitably brought on a struggle between a master of the caucus and the editor of the organ of moderate Liberalism, in which Reid seems to have pretty much held his own. He was evidently a man of force, as well as of principle.

A special object of Reid's admiration as a type of moderate Liberalism was W. E. Forster, a man unquestionably of high principle and of solid qualities, prevented, perhaps, from rising to the highest place by his extreme want of social tact and uncouthness of manner. Forster, by taking a middle course on the subject of national education, had incurred the political hostility of Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Morley, who were allies, as might be gathered, by negative evidence at least, from some passages of Mr. Morley's 'Life of Gladstone.'

Wemyss Reid states positively that the *Pall Mall Gazette*, edited by Mr. Morley, became virtually the mouthpiece of Mr. Chamberlain. It is very unlikely that Mr. Morley would have allowed the journal of which he was the brilliant editor to become anybody's mouthpiece but his own; still more that he would have allowed it to become anything like the instrument of an intrigue of a member of the Government against a colleague who was desperately struggling against disaffection in Ireland. We are to have some day a further instalment of Reid's Memoirs, with revelations of certain phases in the annals of the Liberal party which may be expected to throw light on the dark subject of the extrusion of Forster from the Cabinet.

Of John Morley, Reid says (p. 283):

"The charm of John Morley's manner, and the brightness of his talk, have been felt and acknowledged by all who have been brought into contact with him, and it would be superfluous on my part to say anything about his literary reputation. But I have always felt that neither his fine gifts nor his peculiar temperament were suited for the rough and tumble of political warfare. I have felt this whether I have been, as has often happened, marching behind him in thorough unison with his opinions, or, as has also occurred at times, directly opposed to him and to his policy."

Reid was perhaps not alone in this opinion. But the answer is that the "rough-and-tumble" element is sufficiently large to bear the infusion of a little high morality even in a philosophic form.

If Forster was Reid's demigod, Gladstone was his god. He has given us astonishing proofs of the great man's powers as a popular—it would be profane to say stump—speaker. At the election of 1880, Gladstone ran for Midlothian, which became the scene of a miraculous display of his oratorical powers. But his party at Leeds elected him there also, that in case of his rejection at Midlothian he might have a seat. He afterwards came to thank Leeds, and there spoke to an audience of thirty thousand people crowded into a temporary building literally to suffocation, so that holes had to be broken in the roof to give them air. The hubbub was deafening (p. 297):

"But suddenly Mr. Gladstone raised his hand, and it was almost as if a miracle had happened. In an instant there was a deathlike silence in the hall, and every man in it seemed to be holding his breath. The speaker's voice rang out, clear and musical as of old, and it reached to the furthest corners of the mighty apartment. But he had not got further than the conventional opening words when his audience seemed to go mad with delight. A frenzied burst of cheering, far exceeding that which had welcomed him on his first appearance, proclaimed the joy with which they had heard the voice of the man they adored. Again it was some minutes before Mr. Gladstone was allowed to proceed, but once more his uplifted hand ensured silence, and from that moment until he had reached the end of an hour's speech, every syllable that he uttered was heard distinctly by his thirty thousand listeners. It was, I think, the passionate eagerness of the audience to hear his voice, and their outburst of delight when its notes first fell upon their ears, that formed the most striking feature of that great meeting."

At the public dinner Gladstone was observed, before rising to speak, to cover his face for some time with his hands. Mrs. Gladstone afterwards explained that he had been praying, and that such was his habit. There can be no doubt that religion was to him a real motive-power and a support in all the trying moments of his life.

Other interesting characters appear, among them Cowen, the Radical philanthropist of Newcastle, champion of oppressed nationalities and of all victims of tyranny throughout the world. At Cowen's house Reid met the Italian revolutionists, among them Orsini, to whom Cowen unwittingly supplied the funds for the attempt on the life of the French Emperor. Reid was ravished with Orsini's personal beauty. Cowen was an eccentric man of genius and very eloquent, though he spoke with a Northumbrian burr, which he seems to have cherished as democratic, and which, when he had finished a splendid speech and won loud applause, gave Disraeli an opening for the supercilious remark that he was sorry that the speech, which appeared to have created enthusiasm, was in a language which he did not understand. There can be little doubt that Orsini frightened the French Emperor into going to war for the liberation of Italy—a rare instance of a good end attained by criminal means. The second instalment of the Memoirs, when it comes, is likely to be of political importance.

THE RUSSIAN CRISIS.

Russia and its Crisis. By Paul Miliukov. (Crane Lectures for 1903.) London: T. Fisher Unwin; The University of Chicago Press. 1905.

It is difficult to find words strong enough adequately to express the inestimable value of Professor Miliukoff's book for every one desirous of understanding Russia in the past, the present, and the future. It is hard reading—even hard to grasp as a serious text-book, which is its real character; but it will repay all the study that may be bestowed upon it. It lays bare the historical soul of the country, so to speak, in all its intricate recesses, which are, practically, inaccessible to a foreigner. In the present apparent topsy-turvydom and labyrinth of politics and party-combinations, it offers both the only and the all-sufficient guide, and demonstrates logical sequence, where both logic and sequence would often appear to be utterly lacking, by furnishing the historical clue. Moreover, it is illuminating in the highest degree, because of the apt comparisons instituted at various points between Russian and American conditions; and, being brought down to date, in effect (February 12, 1905), it offers the latest practicable information on general lines which can be required.

The author himself is the best type of modern Russian—learned, liberal, reasonable; neither a violent agitator nor a blind supporter of the autocracy whose inevitableness and gradual development from imperative conditions he so ably sets forth. His careful definition of the two (morally) distinct Russias now in conflict for the control is worthy of especial attention, in contrast with the unsatisfactory vagueness of similar attempts on the part of less well-informed and accurate thinkers. After stating them to be: the Russia of Leo Tolstoy, of the "intellectuals," liberty, the people, the future; and the Russia of Plehve, official, an anachronism deeply rooted in the past, despotism, he explains that Tolstoy's system of Christian anarchism merely stands as the synonym for liberty in general, the negation of absolutism only, not as a system in itself, since the "intellectuals" care little for the Christian element, and no anarchism exists in Russia. What he does not add, in this connection, but what is well worth adding, is, that many Russians who are devoutly attached to Christianity and their national Church and entirely out of sympathy with Tolstoy (except as a great literary man), are loyal adherents of liberal Russia, even to the apparent inconsistency of remaining still, perforce, attached to the hated bureaucracy. It is encouraging, also, for the friends of Russia and of progress in general to have the opinion of such an expert as Professor Miliukoff to the effect that all the much-condemned diseases are mere ailments of growth (which have always existed), and that not one is incurable, any more than are the evils of rapid growth in the United States, which furnish a sort of parallel in many respects.

Nothing in the volume is of more pertinent interest than the consecutive demonstration of the perfectly natural, inevitable development of the autocracy forced upon the infant, adolescent and full-grown state by geographical conditions and the lack of barriers against attacks from without, which rendered a powerful central organization of the government absolutely necessary. Equally instructive is the picture of the essential difference between the Russian and the American type of character, which, under somewhat parallel natural conditions, has led to radically opposite results in the exploitation of resources and their present condition. "A certain amorphousness, a certain plasticity in Russian manners and character," he regards as the chief feature in the national type; and to that, the sole though negative inheritance from the past, he attributes nearly everything, good or bad, which has ever been asserted about the national character, by both foreign and native observers. "A backbone is missing both in Russian virtues and Russian vices," he says, declaring that to its flexibility, its accessibility to every new impression, are due both the good and the bad traits of the national type, and that Russian history has not furnished enough social education to provide the body of social tradition which works out the formulas that may act as stimulus or coercion. There is a lack of continuity in the social tradition.

In discussing the origin, growth, and various currents of "The Nationalistic Idea," our author makes an illuminating comparison, which is invaluable as a clue to general study of Russia and to the cause of its tardy progress.

"Between Russia and other European countries the contrast was not so great at the moment of their first meeting, some centuries ago, as it is perhaps now between Japan and the Europe of to-day. Therefore the contrast between nationalism and foreign culture could not be fought out in Russia in such a rapid and resolute way, and the victory over old tradition could not be so soon and completely won, as would be the case to-day. Instead of that, there followed a long process of compromise and assimilation, which in Russia is even yet not completed."

When Professor Miliukoff undertakes to consider "The Religious Tradition," he approaches the subject from the hostile (or

at least semi-hostile) point of view frequently adopted by educated Russians, who include the Church in their hearty dislike of existing institutions, and thus sometimes fail to render full justice to that which must, inevitably, in all countries, be understood by a sense other than the purely intellectual. He also fails to bear in mind the parallel conditions and action elsewhere. For example, he refers to the services in the case of illness and so forth as "magic rites and solemn incantations" to expel the evil spirits, which, he says, the village priests perform today exactly as the first bishop of the monastery in Kiev did in the eleventh century. He might have made his comparison stronger (though even less convincing on the "magic" side) by referring to Christ's expulsion of devils as the cause of disease in the New Testament, and to similar services in other Christian churches. He appears to forget, also, that Russia and the Eastern Church are not alone in having adopted and adapted pagan festivals and in their dealings with the ancient pagan gods; and that the Russian Church is no more amorphous in its conception of God and the saints, or no more realistic in its pictorial representations of them, than are other branches of the Christian Church, to which the reader is led to assume (by implication) it is fatally inferior in many of the respects enumerated. It would require more space than is at our command to enter into the matter in the detail which such unfairness—whether voluntary or involuntary—justly demands; but we may characterize the whole presentment of the religious question as resembling the reflection beheld in a skewed mirror. Even the summary of the old attitude toward poverty, the quotations from the writings of an ancient popular theologian, the description of the Church as "a kind of Eternal Life Insurance," could be used with equal justice and effectiveness of any other Christian community; and if the labels were omitted, their origin could not possibly be divined by the keenest experts. Nevertheless, if one is already sufficiently well informed to be able to discriminate, there is much valuable and curious information not readily obtainable elsewhere, to be gleaned from this chapter. For instance, after describing a sect established in the second half of the eighteenth century by "a vagabond dreamer, Euphemius" (Evfimy), including his theory of the land, Professor Miliukoff calls attention to the fact that this fugitive soldier anticipated Count L. N. Tolstoy's doctrine of Christian anarchism by one hundred years.

When he deals with "The Political Tradition" he is on firmer ground, and clearly demonstrates the assertion with which he starts, that the idea cherished by the Russian nationalists, to the effect that autocracy never has changed and is unchangeable, is wholly erroneous. He shows that the theory is of very recent origin; and incidentally he sets forth the facts concerning the successive degradation of the aristocrats and the elevation of the lower classes by which the autocracy was cleverly maintained. This point has not been hitherto presented to the foreign student; if at all, certainly never so lucidly or in so thorough a degree. Arising in necessity for preservation of the State, considered as so impregnable in practice that no legal authority for it was ever sought, or even exists, the autocracy is shown to have become logically impossible as well as unnecessary at the present day. The innumerable lines in which autocracy had come to exercise irresistible authority before it was recently abolished by the Imperial decree, are described, with pertinent instances, judiciously selected, and all the more convincing because they have not been selected (as is too often, obviously, the case with sensational writers on the subject) with an eye solely to exaggerated effect. Incidentally, the whole tangled quarrel about the classical (as opposed to the more modern, scientific) system of education is fully explained.

A chapter on "The Liberal Idea" naturally follows. In it the bureaucracy is traced from its useful and necessary origin to its present position of being generally detested, not only by those outside of it, but by its own progressive members, who would gladly reform it; and the subject is not devoid of lessons for our own parallel bureaucracy, which has developed most of the evils so reprehended by the Russians in their own. In treating of the radical and socialistic ideas which made their appearance, in due time, in Russia, Miliukoff significantly comments: "Russian radicalism fancied Russia able to jump clean over what was thought to be a transient stage, to the highest requirements of the most advanced theory. Without knowing it, in so doing they had chosen the way of bitter disappointment and of sad practical experience." The analysis of the political parties—their infinitely varied and often startling groupings and changes—is invaluable for those who would grasp the genesis and sequence of the parties which are now striving for the control of the dangerous and complicated situation in Russia; and the whole vitally important question of the Zemstvos is stated in a masterly manner beyond the reach of foreign observers. The student of history will be interested to find that the famous and much-discussed "Constitution" of Alexander II., which that Emperor's sudden death halted, was not a constitution in any sense of the word, according to Professor Miliukoff's knowledge. This eliminates (for those who accept this newest version) the interminable discussion of Alexander III.'s and Mr. Pobiedonostzeff's action in regard to it.

In "The Socialistic Idea" Miliukoff sums up the subject at the start: "Russian Socialism, then, differs from German Socialism in that it carries to an extreme the features which have made German Socialism differ from English and American"; and he explains (among other things) that, in Russia, democracy was awakened by Socialism, instead of contrariwise, as is usually the case. In referring to the much-lauded *Mir*, or Commune, he shows how this self-governing, vote-owning institution was ruled, in true American fashion, by the few for the benefit of the powerful and wealthy. The possibilities thus suggested for misrule when universal suffrage shall have been acquired are not reassuring. Historical attempts at a constitutional monarchy and the reasons for their failure are briefly set forth, as is the forced inception and gradual development of serfdom, together with the origin of the idea among the peasants which has created and is destined still to create untold mischief, as to the suppression of imperial edicts of wide scope in their favor by the upper classes. One of the most curious points in the book is the statement of the manner in which the peasants received the Socialists who preached communism. Another is the statement: "It is very important to emphasize that 'nihilism,' though peculiar to Russia as a psychological disposition of mind, as a theory is undoubtedly of foreign extraction. In Russia it was only the belated reverberation of a movement which had had its day in both France and Germany." In this connection it is worth while to correct an error of translation which was not noticed by the friends who helped the author with his English (any more than was the characteristically Russian and sometimes misleading use of the different past tenses of verbs), though it will prove puzzling to readers. In elucidating Lavroff's theories, he says: "He even admitted that, so far from destroying the State, it would be necessary to preserve it, even 'the other day of the Revolution.'" For "the other day" read "the day after," and the sense and cogency of the remark become clear.

Of the chapter on "The Crisis and the Urgency of Reform" we can only say that nothing short of a quotation in full could do justice to its incomparable value, regarded either as a historical document, as a guide for the present difficult situation, or as a suggestion for the future, in its complete mastery of every line of the complicated subject, and the calm, reasonable, and judicial treatment of all the correlated branches. In the significant "Conclusion," the most pregnant passage is the following:

> "Increased and united as they are, the forces of opposition are still not strong enough to replace the Government by a violent overthrow. But they are strong enough to make the use of violence continuous, and by increasing this to preclude any further peaceful work of civilization. . . . Public opinion will not now be satisfied with a consultative chamber, and will not join the extremists who want a federative republic and a referendum. The great majority will be glad to have . . . a constitution similar to that which was sanctioned in Bulgaria by the Russian Czar twenty-five years ago, . . . which includes universal suffrage and one chamber. The habitual argument of the Conservatives that Russia is not ready for a constitution is cut short by this example of Bulgaria. The broad democratic basis of the Constitution of that country did not correspond to the degree of political development of the Bulgarian people, but it proved highly valuable as a means of promoting their political education."

The six maps make a valuable addition to the text; and if the unusual system of transliteration for Russian names and occasional words is disturbing to those who understand the language, and positively baffling to those who do not (through its obscuration of names familiar in their ordinary forms), it has at least the merit of representing the pronunciation as well as the accepted methods.

Swinburne. By George Edward Woodberry. (Contemporary Men of Letters Series.) McClure, Phillips & Co. 1905.

Mr. Woodberry's little book about Swinburne is in no sense a biography, or even

a literary portrait. It is, rather, a subtle and subjective study not so much of Swinburne's poetry as of his poetic impulse. Even this poetic impulse is not touched, save in a phrase here and there, chronologically. It is treated as an accomplished spiritual fact, analyzed, displayed, and invested with issues of power and beauty, that, as some may think, proceed rather from the compelling fervor of the interpreter than from the achievement of his author. There are many who would have welcomed a more consecutive account of Swinburne's forty years of poetic labor, and would have been grateful for some suggestions of his personal quality and his *milieu*. There are, however, many insidious dangers that beset the man who makes a book about a contemporary. Mr. Woodberry has probably chosen the safer as well as the more dignified course, and in the long run this study of the inspiration of the first English poet at the beginning of the twentieth century by one of the finest and truest of American poets will have a permanent interest for the discerning few that no gossipy personal record could possess, and that even a bivoluminous "Life" will not totally blot out.

Mr. Woodberry is first impressed by Swinburne as "a figure sole and supereminent, the poet republican"; and he is so at one with the revolutionary republicanism that he even finds pleasure in the poet's most effusive and fevered denunciations. "These," he says, "are curses to rejoice the heart. They mark their victims indelibly for hell." Next he is impressed by Swinburne's poetic scholarship, his citizenship in realms of gold. Of this he writes in one of the best of his paragraphs:

"He is, in fact, in his greater work of the imagination, remote from current life. He lives, withdrawn in his own thoughts, in that sphere of the poetic imagination where there is a true timelessness—the solitude thronged with figures that appear at any moment from any age, and drift across the vision or play their mimic parts before the mind's eye and disappear. It is the world of the great artists. Locrine, Erechtheus, Meleager are natural there, so are the stormy passion of the Scotch peers, the craft of English statesmen, the spectacle of Venetian pride; or Sappho or Faustine. The world of Swinburne is well symbolized by that Zodiac of the burning signs of love that he named in the prelude to 'Tristram of Lyonesse'—the signs of Helen, Hero, Alcyone, Iseult, Rosamond, Dido, Juliet, Cleopatra, Francesca, Thisbe, Angelica, Guenevere; under the heavens of these starry names the poet moves in his place apart, and sees his visions of woe and wrath and weaves his dream of the loves and the fates of men. He is a myth-lover, a dreamer, a companion of the myths and the dreams of the past, an artist of the imagination."

Then, after a brilliant if somewhat over melodious passage on Swinburne's melody, Mr. Woodberry passes in his fifth section, with a slight confusion of structure, to "the second salient trait" of his poet's work, its "rendering of the experience of passion," its paganism, in short. From Swinburne's passion he proceeds to his meditative power, with its impressive dealing with fate. These two, with the treatment of nature, which is the subject of the seventh section, Mr. Woodberry considers the three "great monochords" of Swinburne's verse. Under the last heading he has a paragraph of searching yet sympathetic criticism which is perhaps the most ponderable in the book:

"Fire, air, earth and water are the four elements from which his very vocabulary seems made up; flame, wind and foam, and all the forms of light are so much a part of his color-rhythm that they become an opaline of verse peculiarly his own; his mannerism in diction and style is chiefly a thing of his fascination with these elemental phases of matter and sensation, which are more abstractions of motion, hue and luminousness than simple objects of sight and hearing. The blurring effect of this mass of indefinable sensation, especially when metaphorically employed, even more than the overcharge of vocal sound in the verse, accounts for that impression of vacuity of meaning that Swinburne's poetry in general makes on readers not habituated to his manner."

Finally, after a section upon the human affections as they stir in Swinburne's poetry, Mr. Woodberry concludes his rhapsody of the liberty, melody, passion, fate, nature, love and fame, which are "the seven chords which the poet's hand, from its first almost boyhood touch upon the lyre, has swept now for two-score years with music that has been blown through the world."

Mr. Swinburne will be fortunate if he ever again finds an interpreter so eloquent and sympathetic as Mr. Woodberry. Yet, despite the arresting eloquence, his final high estimate of Swinburne's achievement is but partially convincing. At one point in particular does it seem to us that Mr. Woodberry protests too much. He has a great deal to say of the essentially English quality of Swinburne's Muse. He was, says Mr. Woodberry in the very beginning, "sprung of the strength of English blood," and again: "He is English, bred with an European mind, it is true, like Shelley, like Gray and Milton, but in his own genius, temperament and the path of his flight charged with the strength of England"; and yet again: "The things of strength are in his verse; it is English genius and English strength, racial in lyric power, in free intellect, in speech—none more so—and English also in its poetic scholarly tradition."

Now it is precisely in the "paths of his flight" as well as in his "poetic scholarly tradition" that Swinburne may most reasonably be maintained to be totally un-English. He has loved England and her old poets well, but his true and self-avowed masters in verse have been Hugo and Baudelaire—neither exactly of the British temperament. In his beautifully colored and cadenced wash of words, there is scant trace of the pregnancy, the weight, the sense of reserve power that made the true strength of English poetry. His is the weakness rather than the strength of passion, and it will be one of the greatest critical surprises in the history of literature if, as Mr. Woodberry expects, there shall increase "with every passing generation" the number of those "in whose hearts his poetry is lodged with power."

Ways of Nature. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

This book springs from a reaction in the author's opinions of animal intelligence, occasioned by the work of recent nature-writers, who, unwarrantably, he thinks, read the lives of wild creatures in the light of human experience, and impute to birds and beasts human motives and methods. It represents his views after a fresh study of animal life and instinct. In the various essays that make up the book, he turns the subject over and over to get light from different angles, and the gradual development of his opinions appears in the successive essays. Our summary cannot, of course, represent the wealth of illustration which the book contains.

The reaction referred to appears to have carried Mr. Burroughs far when he says that the founding of hospitals for sick or homeless cats and dogs, and the condemnation of all forms of vivisection, and the desire on our part to believe that animals are guided by reason and not by instinct, are sentimentalism. Another passage, however, states his position more happily:

"To attribute human motives and faculties to the animals is to caricature them; but to put us in such relation with them that we feel their kinship, that we see their lives embosomed in the same iron necessity as our own, that we see in their minds a humbler manifestation of the same psychic power and intelligence that culminates and is conscious of itself in man—that, I take it, is the true humanization."

Fear, love, and hunger—the need of safety, offspring, and food—are, Mr. Burroughs maintains, the prime motives of the lower animals. Three factors shape their lives—imitation, experience, and instinct. Imitation is doubtless unconscious, and only secondary things are learned in this way. Experience develops greater cunning, both in the species and in the individual, and teaches what not to do; but of positive knowledge our author believes that it accumulates little if any in the case of individual wild animals. "That old birds build better nests or sing better than young ones it would be hard to prove," he says, "though it seems reasonable that it should be so," and though young birds reared in captivity practise a long time before they sing well. Instinct, or natural prompting, is nine-tenths of the whole matter—inborn instinct acted upon by outward stimulus. The animals inherit, in this, all that they need to know to preserve their existence, the accumulated knowledge which necessity, during the evolution of the species, has taught their progenitors. This instinct, sometimes apparently resourceful and flexible in adapting itself to new conditions, looks like reason; but Mr. Burroughs holds that it is not reason. It is a part of the cosmic intelligence that is operative in the vegetable as well as the animal world, and that rises in man to the height of reasoning intelligence; but the difference between animal intelligence and human reason, though one has been evolved from the other, is a difference, not of degree, but of kind, as, by analogy, light or electricity differs in kind from the heat that was its source.

"Animal life parallels human life at many points, but it is in another plane. Something guides the lower animals, but it is not thought; something restrains them, but it is not judgment; they are provident without prudence; they are active without industry; they are skilful without practice; they are wise without knowledge; they are rational without reason; they are deceptive without guile. . . . When they are joyful, they sing or they play; when they are distressed, they moan or they cry; . . . and yet I do not suppose they experience the emotion of joy or sorrow, or anger or love, as we do, because these feelings in them do not involve

reflection, memory, and what we call the higher nature, as with us."

Wild animals have, we are told, the faculties of perception, sense memory, and association of memories, and little else. Their instinct is intelligence directed outward, never inward, as in man. They share with man the emotions of his animal nature, but not of his moral or æsthetic nature; they know no altruism, no moral code. Mr. Burroughs maintains that we have no proof that animals in a state of nature can reflect, form abstract ideas, associate cause and effect. Animals, for instance, that store up food for the winter simply follow a provident instinct, but do not take thought for the future, any more than does the tree that forms new buds for the coming season. The captive animal chafing in its cage suffers merely physical discomfort, and is reacting instinctively against the barriers, not picturing to itself the joys of freedom. The nature of the animals prompts them to their acts, and we think of them as the result of a mental process, because similar acts in ourselves are the results of such a process. Remarkable incidents of what looks like reason, reported of wild animals by some writers, are here discredited on the ground that they contradict general observation and are probably the result of inaccurate or prejudiced seeing. Well-authenticated instances reported of domestic animals are explained as the result of association with man. Domestication, Mr. Burroughs thinks, demoralizes instinct. Apes and elephants show something akin to reasoning intelligence, and "the dog is almost a human product."

Mr. Burroughs takes issue sharply with the popular belief that animal parents consciously aim at instruction of their young. Nature provides, he says, merely that the unconscious example of the parents shall stimulate imitation in the young. The parents have no store of ideas to communicate, no knowledge in the strict sense of the word, no solicitude about the future. They have only emotions—fear, suspicion, etc.—to communicate, and all communications must refer to the moment, and be made in presence of the thing that arouses emotion. It is the instinctive play of animals that is mistaken for an attempt to teach the young. The parents sometimes take part, but do not direct; all is spontaneous and haphazard, but, by nature's provision, is always along the line of the animal's future struggle for life. Kittens play with a ball or stick as if it were a mouse; dogs race and wrestle as in the chase; birds circle and dodge as if escaping a hawk. The playground, then, is the only school of the woods, and, so far as the animals know, what goes on there is merely for pleasure.

Neither will Mr. Burroughs accept the popular idea that animals of the same species vary markedly in individuality. Animals have not, he says, the complex needs, relations, and aspirations that in man give rise to great diversity of character and capacity; therefore he is skeptical about the individual types and exceptional endowments often claimed for them. "If he [the animal-story writer] proceed upon the thought that the wild creatures have as pronounced individuality as men have, that there are master minds among them, inventors and discoverers of new ways, born captains and heroes, he will surely 'o'erstep the modesty of nature.'" Domestic animals, he admits, show some individuality; solitary wasps, a good deal. He suggests that the latter are differentiated by solitude, as men are, and that among the larger wild animals the solitary may display more individuality than the gregarious. Of this, however, he finds no proof. It appears to the reader, indeed, as if the inevitable lack of wide and intimate knowledge of the individual life of most wild creatures must seriously hamper the discussion of at least this part of the subject.

Sidney Lanier. By Edwin Mims. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. vii, 386. 1905.

The chief tests of a biography are accuracy and charm. The former this book seems to fulfil; we have not found any misstatement nor noted any omissions. Charm the book does not possess. It is pleasantly written, and will be a stimulating reminder to those who knew and loved the man as well as know and love his work. A reader coming to this book in entire ignorance of Lanier must admire the individual and might be led to read his poems, but the book scarcely compels to either, and by no means ensures a complete perusal of itself except to one already interested in its subject. Its chief fault is that it casts no enchantment over us to lure us on whether we will or no.

Specific instances of discretion and good taste are many, and examples of the reverse are few, yet it would have been far better to omit the excerpt (pp. 305-307) from Mme. Blanc's article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes.* Perhaps some revelation of the flagrancy of the extreme Lanier cult would be felt needful by any one writing his life; but, on the one hand, the facts recorded in these passages must pain those who admire his writings without overvaluing them, and who love the character of the man himself without deifying him, while they must repel those whom a life of Lanier should allure to read his better works and to gain inspiration from what they can learn of his rare individuality. On the other hand, Mr. Mims misses the subtle Gallic flavor in what he quotes.

The rehearsal of laudations, even of the greatest authors, is likely to irritate those not already under their spell, while the pointing out of defects in the work or character of one admired as a creative genius, and revered as a man, is far more likely to arouse interest in those who are strangers to his compositions and personality. Intentionally or otherwise, this last is what Mr. Mims has done. The steady glow of his general admiration is made all the more telling by his repeated noting of Lanier's shortcomings, as on pages 2, 238, 248, 345, 346, 364-367. On page 364 he says: "He never attained, except in a few poems, that union of sound and sense which is characteristic of the best poetry." This repeated caution of statement or positive understatement of praise gives an air of fair-minded judgment to the book as a whole which makes its laudatory portions far more convincing than if they were not relieved by contrast; and such a sweeping reservation as that just quoted lends weight to the exposition of the biographer's belief in Lanier's capacities in the line of fertility and artistic finish. Mr. Mims (p. 126) attempts to gloze Lanier's characterization of the college he attended as "farcical," but he has the courage to print several healthy utterances of unwelcome truths. Delightful is what he quotes on page 290 from a letter of 1873 about a bad novel:

"And so far from endeavoring to serve the South by blindly plastering it with absurd praises, I think all true patriots ought to unite in redeeming the land from the imputation that such books are regarded as casting honor upon the section. God forbid that we should really be brought so low as that we must perforce brag of such works; and God be merciful to that man (he is an Atlanta editor) who boasted that sixteen thousand of these books had been sold in the South. This last damning fact ought to have been concealed at the risk of life, limb, and fortune."

Altogether this book tells Lanier's life in a straightforward, if not brilliant, manner, and honestly attempts to characterize him as a man, a musician, a scholar, a poet, and a critic. Much space is given to his critical utterances and to valuation of them. Particularly good (p. 351) is what Lanier said of his own critics: "Nothing has amazed me more than the timid solicitudes with which they rarefy in one line any enthusiasm they may have condensed in another, . . . forever conciliating the yet unrisen ghosts of possible mistakes." Considered as a critic, he is attractively presented, again by general commendation with emphasis upon defects which, like the faults in his poetic make-up, add to rather than detract from one's conviction of his inherent capacities, for they are essentially the defects of genius.

This biography offers no explanation of the fact that while Lanier's utterances, views and creations roused widespread interest and elicited varied response, they have nevertheless failed to win at home or abroad general acceptance of his admirers' claims. Again, and chiefly, this book acknowledges but totally fails to solve the main problem before a writer on Lanier. He thought himself a great poet, and hoped for a span of life wherein he might win all the world's adherence to his belief. A great proportion of those who knew him conceded the reasonableness of his faith, and many to-day feel that, had he been in vigorous bodily health at the date of his death, had he survived, were he alive to-day, he would have become a dominant figure in American literature and a noble presence among the great English poets. And yet no recollection of his poverty, of his ill health, anxiety, and forced haste can explain entirely such a pitiful array of quotations as even Mr. Mims's ardor has to put up with, on pages 369-375, as the best that can be culled from all his poetry. A foreigner glancing at these gleanings would dismiss Lanier from his mind as absurdly overrated and wholly negligible. A definitive biography, if it maintains the negative, must explain whence came the general impression of Lanier's greatness; if it maintains the positive, must succeed in conveying to its readers some adumbration of the poet's thrilling effect on his acquaintance. Mr. Mims leaves the riddle as he found it.

As good an index as this has, we crave in every biography.

Radio-Activity. By E. Rutherford. Second edition. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1905. 8vo, pp. 580.

A throng of public sensations due to advances in natural science crowd upon a sexagenarian's recollection (Stewart's syrup was the greatest personal sensation of his infancy), *e. g.*, vulcanized rubber; daguerreotypes; the telegraph; Dr. William T. G. Morton's demonstration of the anæsthetic property of ether (and the ether wonder was not a week old when news came of the discovery of the planet Neptune), the same memorable year bringing straw paper, guncotton, and the sewing-machine; the stereoscope; then, the doctrine of the conservation of energy, long debated, though at first pooh-poohed by scientific magnates; the mechanical theory of heat; the Ruhmkhorff coil; Foucault's pendulum experiment; Bessemer iron; aniline dye-stuffs; the Atlantic cable; wood pulp; Pasteur's refutation of spontaneous generation as an ordinary event; spectroscopic analysis with rubidium and cæsium; the theory of natural selection; Deville's aluminium; the extensive use of nitroglycerine; Andrews's discovery of the critical temperature; the wonderful Holtz machine of 1865 (the simultaneous and equivalent Töpler machine somehow being less noised abroad), and, three years later, the Gramme dynamo; in 1869 Mendeléeff's periodic law; then a long calm, hardly broken by such successes as that made by the ammonia soda process, or such half successes as Loomis's wireless telegraphy, which, however, came into wider notice in 1877, when the telephone and phonograph had turned public attention into that channel; the first confirmation of Mendeléeff's law in the discovery of the metal gallium, duly melting, according to prediction, in the warmth of a man's palm; the azo-dyes; Pasteur's germ-theory, followed by Koch's detection of the tubercle-bacillus, and, later, by the enzyme theory; osmotic pressure; the incandescent light; stereochemistry; Weismannism; Cowles's aluminium; smokeless powder; kodaks; the new physical chemistry guided by Willard Gibbs's phase rule, and leading to liquid air and hydrogen; the successful linotype (though that can hardly be reckoned as a scientific sensation); Hall's aluminium; the electric furnace and acetylene; argon; the Röntgen rays; the flutter about Herzian waves; the contact process for the manufacture of sulphuric acids and anhydride; and, latest, radio-activity and radium. Of all these the last promises to mark the deepest revolution of scientific conceptions, by reducing matter from the rank of primordial substance to that of a special state of electricity. After that, we shall be prepared for anything, even for experimental demonstration of the tychist's doctrine that electricity is a psychical phenomenon.

To any person who wishes to be thoroughly informed concerning radio-activity, the above-cited complete digest of all that is known about it, worked out as it is to the utmost secure conclusions of a general kind, is entirely indispensable. It is, to be sure, only the second edition of a work of which the first edition seemed as perfect as possible, and follows that first edition by but fifteen months. Nevertheless, it is largely rewritten; and it would deserve notice if there were nothing more remarkable about it than that, though the preface is dated the 9th of last May, the contributions to its science made in April are so fully discussed that it is manifest that a considerable part of the rewriting of the first edition must itself have been again rewritten while the new edtion was going through the press. The fact that the second edition is almost a new work, although the first edition was everywhere hailed as most remarkable, simply evidences the wonderful advance of the science in which Professor Rutherford is himself so large and active a factor. The methods he pursues are wholly novel, though they rest on familiar and indubitable principles, and his conclusions are not open to intelligent doubt. Accordingly, we are to know that all elements whose atomic weights exceed that of bismuth, 208, are endothermic compounds, which are undergoing spontaneous dissociation accompanied with a liberation of heat energy millions of times as much as that which could be due to the combustion of as much matter. This decomposition seems to consist in the separation of helium, whose atomic weight is 4, leaving an element whose atomic weight is only 4 less than that of the element first taken. However, as to the products of the disaggregation, it is not likely that any one rule will cover all cases. We simply mention what seems to be the prevalent type.

Radium is a metal, extremely like barium, except that its atomic weight is about the sum of those of barium and of strontium, and except that the average life of an atom of radium is only about two thousand years. It casts off helium, and what is left is a chemically inert gas, somewhat like xenon. The average life of the atom of radium emanation is only five days. It decomposes, and its principal constituent, called Radium A, is left as a deposit on the surface of the vessel. The average life of the atom of Radium A is only four and a third minutes. It is converted by throwing off helium or something like that into a somewhat more volatile element called Radium B, of which the average life is half an hour. Radium B is decomposed in a different way, little studied as yet, into another, less volatile element, Radium C, whose atom has an average life of 40 or 41 minutes. This gives off, not merely such rays as radium itself emits, but, besides others, great penetration, and there is left another element, a little more volatile, called Radium D. The average life of the atom of Radium D is over half a century, and in its decomposition no rays at all are given off, and the very non-volatile element, Radium E, remains. This has an average life of nearly nine days, and, in decomposing, gives off only the more penetrating rays, none of those by which radium affects the photographic film, and is converted into the first of the new elements discovered by Mme. Curie, polonium, which has an average life of ten months. But we will not pursue these vicissitudes further. Polonium is an element very much like bismuth. Dr. Bollwood holds that all these changes come to an end with the production of lead, but we cannot understand that in an absolute sense; and it is not particularly unlikely that lead should be converted into gold. In fact, the tales of the philosopher's stone and of projection do not seem to-day half so marvellous as what we may see at any moment by looking into a spintharoscope.

The index, though it is not quite as full as we could wish, fills twenty-two pages of double columns.

Australian Life in Town and Country. By E. C. Buley. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905. Pp. x., 288. Illustrations.

We are not sure whether Australians will feel complimented by being included with Japanese, Chinese, and others in a series of books on "Our Asiatic Neighbors." We have not, however, often read a volume in which solid information was conveyed in a more pleasing style. The illustrations, while having little apparent direct relation to the text, are well chosen. Hannan Street, Kalgoorlie, in 1895 and again in 1905, is especially interesting. Land and climate, country and town life, politics, education, literature and art are all treated.

The last chapter is on "Australia's Destiny." We here find a widely different Australia from that of which we were accustomed to read, and of which some of us had practical experience half a century ago. Deep-shaft and scientific mining have taken the place of the tin dish and cradle. Sheep are shorn by machinery. Bush hands seek work on bicycles. Stately mansions, in which are to be found grand pianos and the newest books, have taken the place of the slab huts formerly occupied even by rich squatters. Foxes, introduced to kill off rabbits, have themselves become pests. Camels are in certain districts used as beasts of burden—we are informed that the native-bred is a much finer animal than his Western prototype. Ox teams no longer cumber the streets of Melbourne and Sydney. Australians live in a soberer atmosphere than in the old "Cheer, boys, cheer!" days. Casual visitors—how much more "old hands"!—must feel drawn by the beckoning mystery of the pathless and still but imperfectly explored country stretching inland—the "never, never land" here so graphically described. As the clack of a windlass and the smell of tar may tend to call many an old sailor against his better judgment again to tempt the deep, so may the pages of this book rouse the desire in some old Australians again to shoulder their "swags" and take to "the wallaby track."

Whatever changes irrigation and artesian wells may bring about, Australia, with its vast proportion of desert and its uncertain seasons, can never become a United States. One would gather that the mental outlook is narrow. Sport, music, and, in a certain degree, evangelicism, have become disproportionately large interests in life. Australia does not enjoy the advantage of having been primarily colonized by men in search of religious and political freedom. One of the most interesting chapters in Mr. Buley's book is on State Socialism. In the bush, with the State for landlord, remittances of rent are through political influence obtained in bad seasons. The State owns the railways and is often compelled to advance money for roads and bridges. The State trains teachers and manages the schools. Help and supervision in the establishment of new industries is constantly demanded. After bad seasons the State sometimes provides seed, and even advances money to tide farmers over till next harvest. The State regulates the hours of labor, fixes wages, and decides industrial disputes. All this

cannot tend to strength and individuality of character, and necessitates the existence of a large official class. Public debts are out of all proportion to population, urban to country population. The new Federal Government has a difficult task before it. Protection between the different States was logically forwarded by the creation of differing railroad gauges, insuring the transfer of merchandise at frontiers. Unification of gauge will throw an additional heavy burden on the now united Commonwealth. Jealousy between the States has so far prevented the foundation of a central capital.

Turning to revenue matters, we find it difficult to believe that Sydney holds second place in the British Empire as to the value of property rated for taxation. It is interesting to learn that the *Bulletin*, described as the ablest and most widely read journal in Australia, "frankly advocates the independence of Australia under a republican form of government." We are told that a vigorous national life is more and more asserting itself, under which the cry of "Australians for Australia" is being substituted for "Australia for Australians." Our author does not conceal the darker shades in his generally sunny picture of Australia and Australian life.

Napoleon's Notes on English History, Made on the Eve of the French Revolution. By Henry Foljambe Hall. London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1905.

The valuable part of this book is that in which appears a translation of the notes on English history taken by Napoleon in the year 1788, when he was much occupied with historical and philosophical reading. The notes are for the most part extremely concise, and give only occasional and not very illuminating glimpses of the personality of their author. They were discovered some twenty or more years ago by Masson; they appeared shortly afterwards in the Paris *Gaulois*, and were later reprinted by Masson and Biagi in their well-known book 'Napoléon Inconnu.' They are now offered to the English-speaking public, translated by the late Mr. H. F. Hall, illustrated, as he informs us, from contemporary historians and refreshed from the findings of later research. The refreshments set forth by Mr. Hall were hardly necessary, but, as they form the major part of the book, and as in his introduction he appears to attach far more importance to them than to his author, they cannot be passed over without a word of comment.

Perhaps the most characteristic thing about this curious book is that, next to Napoleon's notes, the best thing in it is an excellent frontispiece portrait of Rapin de Thoyras, a French historian of the seventeenth century, who has, in Gilbert's immortal words, "nothing to do with the case." There is not a scrap of evidence, so far as this reviewer is aware, to show that Napoleon ever read a word of his; but Mr. Hall has, which is undoubtedly a distinction nowadays, and hence the frontispiece. Mr. Hall has a queer outlook on historical scholarship that produces most curious results. Sir Walter Scott is apparently his greatest admiration among the general historians of Napoleon, and Dr. Emil Reich, the inventor, as he believes, of psychological history (but, alas, what will Lamprecht say?), is his philosophic guide. It is doubtless the combination of Scott and Reich that leads him to statements of this sort: "One must never forget that Napoleon owed his grit, mental and physical, to the salt savor of the sea. . . . All that is best in Corsican, Frenchman, or Englishman comes from their ancestors, the Sea-rovers." Comment is needless. A few more examples may be given. The great question involved in the ceremony of coronation by the Pope from Charlemagne down to Napoleon is dismissed as one which Napoleon settled by crowning himself, "knowing the dangers of pampering a Pontiff." Mr. Hall, needless to say, is a devotee of the epilepsy theory, for the popularity of which we have to thank Lombroso, Nordau, Nisbet, and Nietzsche; when it comes to specifying in what particular the alleged epilepsy affected the course of history, we are, also of course, not enlightened. But to continue further is unnecessary. The value of the book is not in the editor's work, but entirely in the translation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Architects' Directory, 1905-06. William T. Comstock. $2 net.
Aston, W. G. Shinto (The Way of the Gods). Longmans. $2.
Blake, William. Poetical Works. Edited by John Sampson. Henry Frowde.
Cartwright, Julia. Raphael. Dutton. 75 cents net.
Collectanea. Fourth Series. Oxford Historical Society.
Dante. Gabriele Rossetti. Newnes's Art Library.
De Quincey's Essays. Edited by Carol M. Newman. Macmillan Co.
Dussaud, René. Notes de Mythologie Syrienne. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Ellis, Elizabeth. Barbara Winslow, Rebel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Elzbacher, O. Modern Germany. Dutton. $2 net.
Finck, H. T. Edvard Grieg. John Lane Co. $1 net.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Wheel of Life. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Hannah, Henry King. The Bible for the Sick. Thomas Whittaker, $1 net.
Hooper, Chas. Edw. The Country House. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Inman, Henry. The Ranche on the Oxhide. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Johnson, Samuel. Lives of the English Poets. Edited by George B. Hill. 3 vols. Henry Frowde.
Jordan, Clara B. Elementary Latin Writing. American Book Co.
Kirkbridge, F. B., and J. E. Sterrett. The Modern Trust Company. Macmillan Co. $2.50 net.
Knight, Marietta. A Primer of Essentials in Grammar and Rhetoric. American Book Co.
Lewis and Clark Expedition. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. VIII. Atlas. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Merrill, George F. Elementary Mechanics. American Book Co.
Murray, A. H. The High-Road of Empire. Dutton. $5 net.
Koopman, Harry Lyman. At the Gates of the Century. Boston: The Everett Press.
Norris, Zoe Anderson. Twelve Kentucky Colonel Stories. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.
Oppenheim, E. Phillips. A Maker of History. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Proceedings and Addresses of the National Educational Association, 1905. Published by the Society.
Puvis de Chavannes. Newnes's Art Library. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Selden Society. Year Books of Edward II. Vol. III. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Shaw, Bernard. The Author's Apology from Mrs. Warren's Profession. Brentano's.
Shoemaker, Blanche. The Song of Youth. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Smythe, William E. The Conquest of Arid America. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
Snyder, Harry. Dairy Chemistry. Macmillan Co. $1.
Stewart, Alexander. The Life of Christ. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Stilgebauer, Edward. Götz Krafft. Berlin: Rich. Bong.
Straubenmüller, Gustave. A Home Geography of New York City. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Stubbs, Charles W. The Story of Cambridge. Macmillan Co.
Tibullus. Edited by J. P. Postgate. Henry Frowde.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 25, 1906.

The Week.

The tone of the official announcement at Washington of the impending changes in the Philippine Government is most unhappy. All the talk is of salaries. Gov. Wright is making a "pecuniary sacrifice" of such and such amounts in going to Japan. Mr. Ide, who is to be allowed to succeed as Governor-General for six months, will be $5,000 in pocket by the change. Then he will retire and Gen. Smith will be given a chance at the fat salary. All this is to fall into the worst style of the former Spanish domination of the islands. The idea prevailed that a Governor-General was sent from Madrid to Manila to make his fortune. Stories of the good pickings of Gen. Weyler and Gen. Blanco passed from mouth to mouth. The good of the service, the welfare of the Filipinos, always had to take second or third place in the discussions, the prime consideration being what general had political influence enough to get the job. It is lamentable that an American Administration should drop, even unwittingly, into this vicious Spanish way of envying the high salaries which we compel the Filipinos to pay for the privilege of being governed against their will. But it is in keeping, we fear, with the general letting down from our first enthusiastic pledges to administer the Philippines in a spirit of the most lofty disinterestedness.

In the new personnel of the Philippine Government, too, we note the same change. We began with assurances from President McKinley, echoed by President Roosevelt, that our noblest and most capable should be sent to govern the Philippines. But how we are falling off the pedestal on which we were admiring ourselves! From Schurman and Taft we dropped to Wright, and now we are to sink to Smith. Of the latter's appointment, the best that can be said is that it is absolutely routine and commonplace. He is almost completely unknown; his name means nothing; his abilities, so far as demonstrated, are wholly of the humdrum order. If Gov. Wright is fit to be made Ambassador to Japan, Gen. Smith would appear to be just about qualified to be consul at Kobé. His selection falls in well with the growing and general indifference of Americans to that great colonial problem which, six years ago, they were going to solve to the admiration of the world. They now wish only to wash their hands of the Philippines; yet when Congressman McCall proposes that we wash our consciences too of them by promising independence, the cry is that such a step would be unpatriotic. Public neglect with private exploiting is the new definition of patriotic duty to the Philippines.

The second opening of bids for the Philippine railways leaves about half the projected lines unprovided for in any way, while there is no competition anywhere on a mile of route. This can hardly be called an encouraging beginning. If Congress had simply passed a general railroad law like those of American States, and allowed private capital to build where a prospective profit could be discerned, it is probable that the 200 miles of railroad in Luzon which Speyer & Co. are willing to build without guarantee, would have been constructed just the same. And for all the thirty-year guarantee, we have not yet secured a promise of the system which the Philippine Commission thought necessary for the economic development of the islands. It seems to be taken for granted that the Government will accept such bids as are made, and try to supply the missing links later on. But the outcome of the long negotiations is very different from the expectations confidently expressed when the improvement act was before Congress.

Congress is to abolish the eight-hour day on Government work at Panama. Thus does one of our boasted privileges after another fall before the exigencies of what Mr. Roosevelt calls "the giant canal." First came the waiving of the Dingley tariff on canal supplies. The awful peril of cheapening the canal did not deter the Administration. Haughty Americans were left to pay two prices on what they consume, in consequence of the tariff, and so they were safe and content, let the Isthmus be flooded as it might with goods at bargain rates. From Chinese labor, of course, our sacred soil has to be protected, but Chief Engineer Stevens now tells the Senate Committee that we can't dig the canal without Chinamen. So we suppose they will soon be coming in as the eight-hour law goes out. All this looks to us like a fatal concession to efficiency and economy. The next thing we know, people will be demanding that in this country, too, they be allowed to buy at anti-monopoly prices and work as long as they wish to; and then what would become of the tariff and labor-union legislation?

Secretary Root may not have been diplomatic, but he was deadly accurate, in his talk to the House Appropriations Committee about the defects of our consular system. The reason it is not better is that Congress does not want it to be better. It is Congress that maintains the vicious practice of keeping a consular position as a shelf for a disabled politician, if not as a snug berth for an ignorant but efficient political worker. Mr. Root pointed out that a bill to remedy these evils had been introduced in the Senate, but that nearly all the reforming energy had been taken out of it by the committee which reported it. Whether, even in that mangled condition, it would be made a law, the Secretary said no man could tell. The plain truth is that both Senate and House prefer to go on treating the consulates as party spoils, instead of making them a means of worthily representing this country abroad and giving proper aid to American commerce. Mr. Root stated but the fact. Broken down statesmen who have to be "taken care of," managers of State machines who have to be rewarded—these are the sort of men whom Congressmen delight to foist upon the service. A boss like Hanna goes to McKinley and compels him—it didn't require much compelling—to send a man like Gowdy to Paris, where he was a kind of roaring joke all through his term. In the same way, Quay forced Roosevelt to name his discredited henchman, Saylor. So long as these things go on, it is nonsense for Senators to profess anxiety about improving the consular service, and whine about their desire to meet the needs and wishes of our merchants.

Mr. Root's observations on the Algeciras conference, made before a House committee, are a curious mixture of frankness and casuistry. His assurances that our delegates are there solely in a commercial capacity is eminently satisfactory, and puts an end to absurd speculations as to America's holding a casting vote for or against Germany. Mr. Root's characterization of the purpose of the conference as "ostensibly commercial" was less happy. Certainly, the Moroccan delegate who recently made an eloquent appeal for the preservation of the Sultanate, must have suspected that the deliberations might take a disastrously political turn. On the point of the strained relations between France and Germany, Mr. Root spoke with the appalling frankness that occasionally overmasters his habitual caution. To say in set terms that there was nothing worth the trip to Algeciras except the dissension between France and Germany, is to cast aside the usual reserves of diplomacy. The indiscretion was the more pardonable because it was made before a small body, and because it

gives an almost excessive emphasis to the fact that the American delegates may treat Algeciras as an agreeable winter resort, and free their minds from undue preoccupation with the sessions in the *Ayuntamiento*. Such assurances are not superfluous when light-headed humanitarians are petitioning the President to step in and quickly settle the Eastern question.

It is evident that the legal lights of the Senate are preparing for a great debate on the railway-rates bill. Messrs. Bailey, Knox, Foraker, and Spooner are plainly stuffed with arguments and precedents, so much so that matter oozes from them on the slightest provocation. Senator Fulton of Oregon attempted to make a speech the other day, but first Bailey asked a question, and then Foraker and Knox and Spooner rushed to the fray, until the Senator supposed to have the floor was forgotten, and all the interest centred in the animated colloquy between the best lawyers of the Senate. All of them being perfect masters of the law, they naturally differed violently as to what the law really is; but on one or two points there was agreement. The courts can pass only upon a definite, concrete case of railroad rate-making, where there are individual parties to the judgment; they cannot pronounce judgment on abstract principles or lay down general freight classifications. Furthermore, Congress cannot delegate the legislative power to a commission; nor can a mere commission decide finally whether a given rate is "reasonable" or not, since that is a judicial function. These points are vital to the legislation which the President desires, and are apparently fatal to certain forms of it which he has favored.

This year's Statehood bill is essentially the same as the one which went through Congress two years ago. Then it was the occasion of no excitement at all, until it got to the Senate, while this year it has seemingly brought advocates and opponents almost to the shooting point. The charges of corrupt influences opposing the two-State bill have aroused militant indignation on the other side, and the heavy artillery of the anti-joint-Statehood party of Arizona is being hurried to Washington. On Thursday the chairman of the Committee on Territories was taunted by a minority member with having changed front on the whole question. This he denied with warmth, but it may be noted that, even if Mr. Hamilton had altered his position as regards the Southwestern Territories, he only followed the same course as did the House as a whole, which voted for joint Statehood last year, although several times willing in the past to admit Arizona and New Mexico separately.

The dismissal of three Annapolis midshipmen last week is the first real fruit of the hazing investigation, and proves again how serious the situation at the Naval Academy has become. Most of the witnesses either appear to be afraid to testify truthfully or are sullenly contumacious. When one midshipman told the truth frankly the other day, the court-martial was moved to compliment him. Things were very different at West Point during the hazing investigation of 1901. Then the cadets felt themselves insulted because the prosecutor insinuated that they were not telling the truth. In other ways also the spirit and discipline are far better at the Military Academy than at Annapolis. At the former the cadets do not hesitate to report even their room-mates for infractions of discipline; at Annapolis, favoritism or spite seems to have controlled reports. At the beginning of the West Point investigation there was some attempt to defy the authorities, but that was speedily ended. As even the service papers have admitted, the naval cadets apparently feel that they can do as they please, irrespective of their superintendent, the Navy Department, or Congress. At present it looks as if nearly all the midshipmen of the first and second classes would have to be tried, with many dismissals as a result. Therefore, some timid souls at the Navy Department are urging that the whole inquiry be dropped and the cadets sent to sea at once, "because of the navy's great need of officers." The navy may in truth be short-handed, but, no matter what its straits, it ought not to want young men schooled in the system of lying, deceit, brutality, and unmanly abuse of authority which has formed the Annapolis code.

David B. Hill asks the public to pass upon all his relations with the Equitable. This is the significance of his request that the State Bar Association investigate the whole matter. He realizes the delicacy of his position. Senator Chauncey M. Depew's annual retainer of $20,000 was pay for political and social rather than strictly legal services—unless lobbying is covered by the broad word "legal expenses." When people learned that so influential a Democrat as Hill, once the boss of his party in this State, was also retained, they naturally suspected that the two cases were parallel. Mr. Hill roundly asserts: "I honestly and fairly earned every dollar which was paid to me. I never received from the Equitable Society any moneys whatsoever for any political services or for any political purposes." In these words Mr. Hill raises rather a nice question in ethics. The Equitable was not unwilling to secure Mr. Hill's good will and influence, and indeed may, like the rest of the world, have doubted whether it was possible to retain Hill the lawyer without retaining Hill the politician. Mr. Hill himself was troubled by no misgivings. "I have never," he says, "mingled business with politics or politics with business." That is all very well for a man of Mr. Hill's robust integrity and squeamish conscience; but ordinary mortals cannot draw the line so sharply. We do not go so far as to say that a prominent politician should not accept a retainer from a corporation which is asking for political favors; but the least that he can do is to follow Mr. Hill's fine example in keeping the lawyer and the politician in separate and watertight compartments of his mind and soul.

Once more the West has shown the East how to do things. The representatives of the "Big Nine" colleges of the West—Chicago, Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Northwestern, Iowa, Indiana, Illinois, and Purdue—on Saturday abolished the present game of football, and decided to await from the new football committee such playing rules "as will free the game from brutality and unnecessary danger." If such alterations are not sufficiently sweeping, the "Big Nine" will appoint its own committee to draw up rules. But the good work did not stop there. These colleges barred out all graduate players, no matter from what college; urged that freshmen be also ruled out, thus restricting players to three years on a team; limited entrance fees to games to fifty cents; abolished training tables, and fixed the number of intercollegiate games to be played by each team at five in a season. Obviously, while the East has been discussing what it ought to do, the West has been making up its mind. More drastic reforms, next to the abolition of all intercollegiate athletics, could hardly be asked, particularly as there is to be no training before the colleges open, and no professional paid coaches are to be employed hereafter. This ruling, if adopted in the East, would bar out Mr. Reid of Harvard and Mr. Camp of Yale.

Mr. Walter Camp's admission last week that the Yale athletic surplus, which he had carefully concealed during his twelve years of athletic dictatorship at New Haven, amounts to no less than $96,325, and will reach $130,000 by the end of this college year, was fairly sensational. Yale men who have not been wholly carried away by the athletic mania must be equally pained by other revelations made by Mr. Camp to Mr. Clarence Deming. From these it appears that Mr. Camp's own pay and that of the athletic trainer, Murphy, have invariably been hidden by being charged to the "maintenance of the field," while

the rowing coach's salary was tucked away under "maintenance of boathouse." Even more enlightening is the confession that Murphy and the Yale football captain, Hogan—the latter a paid agent of the Tobacco Trust—were last year given a trip to Cuba because of Murphy's health; Hogan acting, we presume, as nurse and companion. Just how much money has been paid out for the tutoring of athletes deficient in their studies Mr. Camp does not say; the practice he admits. All this simply rounds out the facts as to Yale athletic evils printed in *McClure's Magazine* last spring. President Hadley, in a recent speech, admitted that there must be reforms in the methods of handling athletic receipts and disbursements. The very first reform undertaken at New Haven should be the removal of Mr. Camp from control of Yale athletics. His financiering abilities demand a wider field.

Mr. Marshall Field did not have to wait for death to extinguish envy. For many years he had enjoyed the esteem of all sorts and conditions of men. In Chicago, and indeed throughout the great Northwest where his name and fame stood for so much, his repute was high and his popularity marked. Though one of the richest men of his time, he was never held up as an embodiment of greed; his name was never the signal for hisses or opprobrious cries even in a meeting of Socialists. In a day when so many men of great wealth are made the object of suspicion, dislike, hatred, wrath, and malice, Mr. Field's immunity is well worth inquiring into. Doubtless his personal bearing and manners counted for something. The deeper reason lay behind. Mr. Field had accumulated his immense fortune by methods which the considerate judgment of his fellows pronounced legitimate. It was a regular and honorable business, long pursued, that brought him wealth. No unscrupulous stock manipulation, no ruin-spreading monopoly, could be pointed to as the source of his great riches. Hundreds of other men had only to apply a moderate business ability to the natural advantages of Chicago's position in order to become rich; and Mr. Field, applying supereminent ability, became richer than any of them. But all felt that his rewards were lawful. In public spirit and benevolence Mr. Field was not deficient, though he could not be called extraordinary in either. He gave perhaps as much as could be expected of his time to the civic interests of Chicago. His voice and influence were at any rate on the side of good government and every municipal advance.

A John Hay Library for Brown University is a singularly appropriate memorial to the dead statesman. In offering $150,000 toward a fund of $300,000 for this purpose, and in suggesting the name of the building, Andrew Carnegie has shown a fine appreciation, not only of the services which his friend, the late Mr. Hay, rendered to the cause of international peace, but of the fitness of the recipient of the magnificent gift. By the very terms of the Brown charter, the Quakers always have had a representation of five members on the board of trustees. It would perhaps be hard to trace a direct connection between this important element in the control of the college and the names, in its roll of distinguished graduates, of men who love peace. Yet the Quakers have exerted a powerful influence upon the community in which Brown is situated. Moreover, Henry Wheaton, sometimes called the father of modern international law, was a graduate of Brown in the class of 1802. Every one who is familiar with the history of diplomacy knows how much Wheaton did to promote good-will among nations, not only by his writings, which are still quoted as authority, but by his various negotiations as foreign minister and plenipotentiary. The career of Wheaton has been one of the glories of Brown. From time to time other alumni, remembering his labors, have contributed to Brown's steadily growing collection of works on international law, until the University now possesses a library of extraordinary value on this subject—a library which may well occupy a place of honor in the new building.

That Birmingham should have stood by Chamberlain is no great wonder. For years he has controlled the local machine of his own creation, whether for Liberal or Unionist purposes. Furthermore, his personal popularity is such that, under any flag whatever, affectionate Brummagem would obey the command, "Vote for Joe." But the clean sweep at Birmingham sharply emphasizes Mr. Balfour's defeat at Manchester, and leaves Mr. Chamberlain the actual if not the titular leader of his Majesty's Opposition. Plainly, no recovery from the *débâcle* is possible under Mr. Balfour's discredited leadership. It has become a question of Chamberlain or a newcomer—of a lurch to protectionism or a reorganization along traditional Tory lines. Evidently, Mr. Chamberlain's local success proves little as to the general acceptance of his doctrines, and it would be strange if the Conservatives should rally as a body to one who has split the party and brought it so near to political bankruptcy. Mr. Chamberlain retains, however, the prestige due to one who has fought on a straight, if unpopular, issue, and the influence natural in a skilful manipulator of the party machine.

M. Clément-Armand Fallières, who has just been promoted from the presidency of the French Senate to that of the Republic, has a long and consistent record as a Moderate Republican. He served Jules Ferry in various Cabinet positions; President Carnot asked him, though without result, to form a Cabinet. In the early 90's, as Freycinet's Minister of Justice, he took a strong anti-clerical stand, and advocated the abortive measure of 1892 for the repression of the religious orders. Th se activities constitute his real bond with the very mild radicalism of Prime Minister Rouvier. The new President is eminently a safe man, his gifts being those of the barrister and jurist, and he will probably accept very gracefully the subordinate and highly ornamental rôle of first citizen of France. More significant than his election is the small comfort given to candidacies of such a notable sort as those of the expansionist Doumer and the great Socialist Parliamentarian Sarrien. Even the firm stand in favor of all the moral platitudes recently taken by Doumer, in 'The Book of My Sons,' could not allay the suspicion that the reorganizer of Tonquin had Napoleonic ambitions; whereas Sarrien is too potent a personality to be trusted with the routine amiabilities of the Presidential office. The election of a President excites singularly little interest in France. The berth, to a really ambitious politician, bears an ominous resemblance to a shelf. So far as it goes, however, the election of M. Fallières indicates a further reaction from the extreme Radicalism of Combes towards the opportunism of Méline and Waldeck-Rousseau.

The successful and orderly Social-Democratic demonstrations of Sunday against the unfair terms of the Prussian suffrage reflect credit upon the party and its leaders. Undoubtedly, some people will attribute the absence of disturbances to the extraordinary military precautions taken in Berlin and elsewhere, but this would be unfair to the Social-Democrats. From the moment the meetings were planned, Bebel and his associates insisted that they must be pacific in tone and character. Had there been bloodshed, it would undoubtedly have militated against the Government, precisely as did the St. Petersburg "Red Sunday" killing. On the other hand, the Government would have seized upon any disorder to denounce the Socialists as anarchists and revolutionists. As it is, this popular demonstration is the most notable one Berlin has seen since the days of 1848. No less than ninety-three meetings in that city alone asked for a freeing of the suffrage from its present harassing restrictions.

THE "ROOSEVELT PARTY."

There is a deep significance in the manner of enacting the Philippine Tariff bill by the House. It means much for the Filipinos; it may mean more for us. Our neglected subjects in the archipelago may take it as a sign that their just demands for a market will one day be granted; and citizens of the United States, angry at the needless imposition of tariff burdens, and looking about to see who will remove the curse of protection, may see in this beginning of tariff revision for the benefit of 8,000,000 Filipinos the promise of tariff revision for the benefit of 80,000,000 Americans. For the House vote clearly reveals the existence of what has been called a "Roosevelt Party," by the resolute use of which one tariff abomination after another could be done away.

The obvious fact is that the Republicans, even with their great majority in the House, could not pass the Philippine bill unaided. Fifty-nine Republicans finally voted against it. Had the Democrats gone solidly against this Administration measure, it would have been beaten by six votes. Yet the Republican managers had distinctly repudiated Democratic assistance. It was a party measure, Chairman Payne announced, and he did not desire a single Democrat to support it. The aged but not venerable Grosvenor was equally explicit. He was for rallying the Republican organization against "Democratic sophistry," and wanted no votes from the other party. In spite of all this, the event showed that one-quarter of the Republican members could be neither cajoled nor clubbed into line; and the consequence was the terrible portent before which Lodge trembled in Massachusetts last October—Republican tariff revision by grace of Democratic votes! Yet the same Lodge announces that he is going to fight "vigorously" to get the Senate to accept the bill. He knows, however, that it cannot be done without the aid of Democratic Senators.

Our point is that there is plainly a majority of tariff-reformers now in Congress. Call it the "Roosevelt Party," or what you will, a body of Congressmen exists large enough, and willing enough, if they had a fair chance to vote their minds, to abolish, we will say, the tariff on art, which Secretary Hay called "barbarous"; to cut the steel duties to the bone; to revise other Dingley schedules radically, and to put the country in the way of securing amicable trade relations with other nations. Of course, before anything is done, the voting must be across party lines. But the Administration frankly contemplates it, even invites it, in other important matters. The President, if he had to depend upon his own party alone, would not have a ghost of a chance of carrying his Philippine bill, or his Statehood measure, or even his bill for fixing railway rates. In them all, his support must be part Democratic. But is it not certain that he could rally this same non-partisan following if he struck boldly for tariff revision by its help?

The votes are there if he will call for them. Let him furbish up that tariff message which has been rusting in his armory for more than a year. Let him begin, if he chooses, with a few of the more flagrant tariff abuses. Mr. Roosevelt must feel as chagrined and disgraced as other educated Americans by some of the more Turkish of our tariff laws. When the united artists and art-lovers of the land send to the White House their protests against a tax which makes our country seem benighted, the President must glow with indignation. But can he any longer assert that it is impossible for him to do anything to sponge off that blot? Every day it becomes clearer that there are in Congress sufficient men to do the work, provided the President will take the initiative courageously and the vicious system of purely partisan arguing and voting on a measure which cuts deep into both parties, is for the moment broken through. It will be a good test of President Roosevelt—to see if he is willing to use the tool which lies at his hand, in order to put his undoubted convictions into effect.

Some Democratic mutterings about Congressman Williams's leadership on the Philippine bill are reported from Washington. It is said that he ought to have seized the chance to beat the Republicans and leave the Administration humiliated; that it is the duty of an Opposition to oppose, etc. But it would be a stupid Opposition that did not take its own when it was offered. Mr. Williams did far better than snatch an empty party victory. He showed that Democrats would approve a measure that was right and patriotic, even if it did not go the full length of justice, and even if it bore the stamp of the other party. More than that, on purely tactical grounds, the Democratic leader was well advised. His course brought out clearly the malign hold of unyielding and unscrupulous protection upon the Republican party. Of the old pretence that the tariff would one day be "revised by its friends," he proved the absolute hollowness. Turning to the Republican side of the House, he said :

> "You are going to do nothing about the tariff. The Republican party in its present decadent condition has neither the brains nor the intelligence to remedy tariff abuses. That is the reason why you are going to have a Democratic House of Representatives after the next election.
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> "Oh, a few stand-patters, with absolute contempt for popular sentiment and absolute trust in the omnipotence of the Committee on Rules and the Committee on Ways and Means, and in our little legislative coteries here in Washington, may imagine there is no outside world. There is an outside world in Michigan, in Wisconsin, in Iowa, throughout all the great Middle West, whose world market for their wheat and corn and meats and agricultural implements is being menaced by the initiation of a commercial warfare by the Emperor of Germany in retaliation for our spirit of commercial exclusiveness. There is an outside world up in Massachusetts. Massachusetts now is crying out for a revision of the tariff."

The question is whether the President is going to unite with Gov. Guild and Gov. Cummins and the other Republican tariff-reformers, and frankly say that, if the Republican party will not do its duty in reforming the tariff, the "Roosevelt Party" is ready to, and will welcome the needed Democratic and Independent votes.

UNCLE SAM AS PAN-AMERICAN RECEIVER.

We are in receipt of the following letter from New Orleans:

> "Some of the best-informed and influential men of Santo Domingo believe that if no compromise is arrived at between the Senate and the Executive, whereby the treaty now pending may be ratified in its essential features at least, or the Executive be empowered to negotiate some sort of *modus vivendi* on those lines, Santo Domingo, in order to maintain internal peace and settle with its creditors, would have to appeal to a European nation. Already the movement started about two years ago by a former minister of foreign affairs of the island republic, discussed in a pamphlet published by him at the time, is being thought of as an alternative. This scheme contemplates the lease of Samana Bay for a coaling station and the opening of a free port.
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> "Should Germany appear in the field as a bidder, would the *Nation* favor a dog-in-the-manger policy on the part of the United States? And: Would the United States be benefited by such an acquisition by Germany of a controlling position in the West Indies?"

Our esteemed correspondent puts compactly a sentiment which many vaguely express. It is that a new and startling situation has arisen in Santo Domingo, requiring new and startling action on our part; whereas, in fact, there is no novelty about it at all. The Dominican republic has for forty years been getting daring speculators to take its paper at 60 to 80 per cent. discount, and repudiating the debt as often as convenient. Her borrowings, like those of several other of the smaller Latin-American republics, have always had *caveat emptor* written legibly upon them. That class of securities long ago became a synonym for insecurity. In Macaulay, Latin-American bonds had displaced the Mississippi bonds of Sydney Smith as the by-word of investors: "The scrawl of the Jew," wrote Macaulay, "on the back of a piece of paper may be worth more than the royal word of three kings, or the national faith of three new American republics."

President Roosevelt and Senator Lodge would make it out that some strange new thing has befallen us in the bankruptcy of Santo Domingo. But it has been chronic. The only novelty lies in Mr. Roosevelt's sudden discovery that the old facts, which seem to him new, demand that he do something unprece-

dented. With the English public, however, all this is an old affair. A writer in the *Monthly Review* for January details some of the facts, so well known to the London Council of Foreign Bondholders. Of several of the turbulent republics of Latin America, it is roundly said that "their borrowing powers are practically nil, whilst the low average price and violent fluctuations in the value of their bonds show how little confidence is felt in their ability—not to say their desire—to pay their way." The obligations of these countries are never taken except by the speculator. He gets them at from 10 to 20 per cent. of their face value, cultivates, if he can, a temporary "boom" on the stock market, and unloads upon gullible investors at a price which doubles his money in a few weeks. Then comes the unwary buyer of worthless paper demanding that his Government send warships like so many sheriffs to collect his debt. The story is as old as it is depressing. Santo Domingo first placed a loan with foreigners in 1869. On it she has been in default for more than twenty years. Colombia has had a foreign debt for some 83 years, during about 47 of which no interest was paid. The corresponding figures for Guatemala, Honduras, and Venezuela are, respectively, 78 and 48, 78 and 72, 83 and 41. Costa Rica and Nicaragua have been in default for more than half the time. Salvador has repudiated a part of her foreign debt. Thus it appears that, if Uncle Sam is going to set himself up in the business of liquidating all outstanding Pan-American debts, he will not lack for occupation.

The President, of course, proposes to limit himself strictly to Dominican accounts. He repels with more indignation than logic the intimation that he will move upon other delinquent and disorderly republics and make them pay their debts and live cleanly. Yet he ought to know that the holders of their depreciated bonds are drawing the inference which he declares unwarranted. The writer in the *Monthly Review* states that the unlucky European investors in Latin-American securities have, since President Roosevelt's announcement that he is going to make Santo Domingo behave, "learnt to look upon the United States as the *deus ex machina* who will transmute their almost worthless paper into pure gold, and a phenomenal inflation in prices has consequently taken place." Surely, Mr. Roosevelt would not wish to dash these new and fond hopes! He ought, at all events, to take note of a plain warning given him in the *Review* on one point. A formidable difficulty in his entire Dominican plan has all along been his assumption that it would be easy for him to determine what "proportion of the debts it is possible to pay on an equitable basis." But there's the rub. There is no evidence that the President, or any of his agents, has thoroughly examined the various claims of creditors—creditors in good faith. Mr. Roosevelt has lightly dismissed this aspect of the matter. When the time came, he would get an absolutely "just" man to look into the tangle of accounts, and say what should and should not be paid. But there can be, "Investor" informs us in the *Review*, only "serious misgivings" on the part of foreign bondholders as to the degree of discrimination" against them which an American liquidator in Santo Domingo might exercise. It would be a bad bargain to make our peace with Santo Domingo at the cost of misunderstandings with a half-dozen European nations.

But what are we to do? What would you do yourself? Such are the posers put to every one who questions the wisdom of the President's Dominican plan. But the reply is simple. We should keep on doing just what this Government always has done: warn speculators who take a "flutter" in foreign bonds or concessions of any kind, that they do so at their own risk, and that the American navy will never be made a bailiff to collect bad debts. If any of our citizens come forward with valid claims for damages against Santo Domingo, the State Department should do what it can to see that justice is done them. One would think, to listen to the President, that the United States had never had troublesome claims to settle. A Dominican Claims Commission, however, would be but one more in a long list of such bodies. Mexican Claims, Colombian Claims, Venezuelan Claims—they, in their time, have all been patiently studied and adjusted by friendly negotiations, without a single swish of the Big Stick. The burden of proof is upon those who say that the same thing should not be done in Santo Domingo. As for our correspondent's alarm about Germany seizing Samana Bay if we do not forestall her, we need only say that we think the "sausage trick" will no longer work in inducing Americans to take territory they do not want. We refer, of course, to the artifice of the man who had wagered that his dog could eat a dollar's worth of sausages. Whenever the animal showed signs of satiety, the owner would bring up another dog threatening to eat the rejected morsel, whereupon the first one's appetite would be miraculously renewed. But that German dog has been too often and too ostentatiously brought on the scene.

CHANGING VIEWS OF ARMIES.

Col. Charles W. Larned, senior professor at the West Point Military Academy, has contributed to the *International Quarterly* a striking article proposing a regeneration of the army, so as to make service within its ranks a privilege greatly to be desired. He has looked beneath the surface, and, like the French Socialist leader, Jaurès, he finds that modern social and political conditions have brought with them a changed relationship of the people towards military service. The underlying conception hitherto, Col. Larned points out, has been "fundamentally feudal," no matter how much this may have been concealed or affected by certain political institutions or conditions. The bond of service by which the soldier is held; his inability to change employers at will; his social inferiority as compared with the officer; the "annihilation of initiative and complete subordination of will"; the claim upon his life, and other circumstances—even where enlistment is voluntary—suggest the conditions of the feudal serf. As a result, there are protests not only in this country, but in Europe as well. Bebel, like Jaurès, has bid his Government beware of the thinking bayonets, which are now to think not only on reaching the firing line, but first whether they should be required to form it.

Even outside of the Socialist ranks, there are mutterings against what is so essentially a system of caste. The Continental middle-class citizen feels akin to the Socialist when he hears Jaurès call for a democratization of the army. Within a year the Berlin *Tageblatt* has devoted many pages to protests against the great proportion of noblemen in the army and the exclusion of commoners from the officers' lists of many fashionable Prussian regiments. The well-to-do Berlin or Hamburg merchants resent more and more the supercilious airs and intolerable conceit of the wearers of the Kaiser's uniform, and one of the most popular German novels of recent years centres around the unavailing efforts of the son of a business man to hold his own in a regiment in which he alone among the officers was not of noble birth. Besides these social influences which make for democratization, modern fighting conditions have tended to create a new relationship between officer and private. The latter has, as Professor Larned shows, gained of necessity a self-reliance and initiative entirely at variance with the automatic idea. This has been sufficiently illustrated in Cuba, the Philippines, and South Africa.

Professor Larned, too, thinks the rigid discipline of inferiority and separateness no longer desirable. The problem in this country, as he sees it, is to change military conditions so as to make the army an institution of great value to the soldier, not only because of high pay, but because of the general education or technical training he may get out of service. Our army, Col. Larned affirms, has in time of peace to rely

upon a "drifting and uncertain body of the unemployed, social failures, and tramps, fluctuating in number according to periods of commercial distress or prosperity," and is "a sort of forlorn hope for the desperate, and a last resort for the poor devil who is down on his luck." As a result of this sort of recruiting, last year's statistics showed that one in every ten of our soldiers deserted and one in every six was treated in hospital for diseases due to immorality—a sorry showing, as has been freely admitted by the Military Secretary and the Surgeon-General. The former, Gen. Ainsworth, saw no prospect of betterment ahead so long as the attitude of our people towards their military remains the same. What he and others probably have in mind is a change of public opinion, so that a deserter will rank with a burglar or forger; the coming of a time when the service of the Government will be considered sacrosanct because of a blind patriotic devotion to the flag. Something of this kind is still possible in time of war, but not during peace. Hence, Col. Larned would establish the army in the affections of the people by making its work remunerative and useful; his regiments, assembled in five or six posts, would be training-schools for making officers out of enlisted men—those discharged into civil life to receive certificates of eligibility for commissions in time of war.

Instead of demoralizing the soldier and rendering him unfit for steady work thereafter, Col. Larned's plan would restore him to civil life, "improved and developed mentally, morally, and physically—an orderly and conservative element in society." Certainly, such a change is needed. In the West, particularly, the average workingman looks on the soldier as a loafer who is unmanly enough to let another man "boss" him. To "soldier" has become a verb synonymous with shirk or laze, unjustly in view of the changes in army conditions since 1898; but the statistics we have quoted show that there is often good ground for suspecting those who have been in the ranks.

Of all the regeneration schemes we have yet seen, Col. Larned's is the best, but no officer can be found to-day who will admit that it is possible; and merely because of the great increase in pay called for, Congress would hardly consider it. Yet we doubt whether the scheme would long make a paradise of the army if it should be introduced tomorrow. To kill in cold blood and to stand the hardships of a campaign require, so some of Col. Larned's military critics will say, a rougher kind of schooling than that the dean of West Point has in mind. But, aside from the technical doubts which may be raised, the very facts upon which Col. Larned dwells at the outset show how impossible it is to forecast what the attitude of the public toward armies will be fifty years hence. It may be much as it is to-day; or, if the movement towards peace progresses, as it must, the trade of killing may fall into greater and greater disfavor at home and abroad. The devotion of the Socialists to peace points in that direction. Moreover, as industrial competition increases, the popular dislike of economically unproductive labor like that of soldiers will steadily increase.

"SEE AMERICA FIRST."

"The committee of the Commercial Club having in charge arrangements for the 'See America First' Conference in this city, January 25 and 26," says an Associated Press dispatch from Salt Lake City of January 18, "announces that representation is now assured from all the trans-Mississippi States and from Duluth on the north to New Orleans on the south." This will convey to many persons the first information of a concerted movement to persuade them to see America before they go to Europe. It is a missionary enterprise intended to call Easterners to repentance. Any man who dwells beyond the Mississippi must necessarily see more or less of America before he can even set foot on a trans-Atlantic steamer. As a matter of fact, the Westerner who can afford to travel at all is fairly familiar with the cities of the East. It would be hard to find a successful business man in St. Paul, Minneapolis, Omaha, Denver, or San Francisco who is not entirely at home in Chicago, St. Louis, New York, and Philadelphia, and who has not "done" all the sights of Washington. Your prosperous Seattle lawyer or merchant makes less ado about coming to New York than your New Yorker makes about going to Buffalo or Cleveland.

That is why the West very justly calls the East provincial. The Western man has a far more accurate knowledge of the topography of this country, the agricultural and industrial products of the various sections, the appearance of cities and villages, the public institutions, and the temper of the inhabitants. The men who sit in comfortable clubs in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia often display an abysmal ignorance of the political issues which have provoked the Middle West into a white heat of indignation. Graduates of our Eastern universities are prone to speak with condescension and pity of the unfortunates who have never had any advantages beyond those offered by the State universities of Michigan, Wisconsin, Nebraska, and California—as if there were no civilization west of Elmira. From this type of bigotry the educated Westerner, with all his local enthusiasm and his large talk of fertile soil and inexhaustible mines, is agreeably free.

The Western gospel will, we trust, carry conviction to the hearts of our effete sinners. The West has much to show us. The cities are bustling and interesting. To speak frankly, however, they are not the greatest thing which America has produced. Cleveland, Cincinnati, Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, Omaha, St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Duluth have developed in the same period; they exhibit the same types of architecture, they have many other features in common. A few days in each of them will satisfy a sight-seer who might profitably spend months or years in ten of the leading European cities. Such Southern cities as Richmond, Charleston, St. Augustine, and New Orleans have more individuality and charm. Parts of New Orleans still breathe something of the air of a French provincial town. Denver in its moutain eyrie, Salt Lake City with its Mormon settlement, Helena and Butte surrounded by mining camps, Los Angeles in its semi-tropical splendor, San Francisco seated on the hills by the Golden Gate, guarded by the peak of Tamalpais, and trafficking with the Orient; Portland, lying near the Columbia; Tacoma and Seattle, with the magnificent snow-cap of Rainier, the jagged line of the Olympics, and Puget Sound to seize the eye from every point of outlook—each of these cities has its lesson for Americans who want to know their own land. On the glories of our natural scenery—Niagara Falls, Pike's Peak, the Garden of the Gods, the Yellowstone, the Grand Cañon, Yosemite, and all the rest—we need not dwell. Everybody knows that these sights draw visitors from Europe.

Why do so many Americans remain indifferent? Partly, no doubt, because, when they have time and money for travel, they want to turn to something wholly new—get out of the American atmosphere. In its art galleries, its public buildings, in every street of its ancient cities, Europe offers opportunities for enlargement of vision and of the sense of historical perspective, and for a development of the æsthetic tastes, which cannot be found this side of the Atlantic. For this reason many persons are content to see America last. Then, too, the sea-voyage itself is a strong attraction. A week or ten days on the ocean means for some people as much rest as a month of travel by train or even of life in the wilds. With rich and poor alike, these considerations weigh heavily in choosing between a trip to England or California.

But with the great mass of men who must reckon the cost carefully, the expense of travel in America is decisive. In six weeks or two months, the person who is willing to practise decent

economies gets more for his money in Europe than in the United States. A round trip ticket from New York to San Francisco costs, according to the route, between $145 and $163. A berth in the sleeper is about $20 more; meals for five or six days on the train, at least $3 a day. But for $150, or perhaps less, one can secure very pleasant accommodations to Liverpool or a Continental port and return, including room and excellent meals. In its hotels Europe has an even greater advantage. Few of our cities can boast well-kept, clean comfortable, and at the same time low-priced hotels. A man travelling with his family must make up his mind that unless he can pay the bills at the best hotels, he must put up with inattention, poor cooking, and dirt.

These facts the Western missionary must not overlook if he is to succeed in his propaganda. He must induce the railways and the Pullman Company to lower their rates. The heavy cut for the Portland Exposition drew thousands to the Pacific Coast last summer, and steady low fares would doubtless prove a steady attraction. He must instantly improve his hotels. The work of reform may properly begin in the very place where the conference is to be held—Salt Lake City. Until the fares are lower and the hotels better and cheaper, conferences can accomplish little if anything.

ART FORGERIES IN MUSEUMS.

Prof. Adolf Furtwängler, the famous classical archæologist, has lately given his impressions of an American trip in the unpleasing form of a list of our museums that have notably been taken in by art forgeries. In this category appear the Metropolitan Museum and the Field Columbian Museum of Chicago—both for "post-classical" terra-cottas; the Smithsonian Institution, for American antiques of recent fabrication; the University of Pennsylvania, for the large sprinkling of modern and spurious examples in the Somerville collection of carved gems. These revelations, which are only in part new, have been variously discussed by the authorities of the museums in question, but nobody has said very much to the point except a Chicago donor, who holds that the local collections, if not absolutely authentic, are as much so as a new institution had any right to expect; and Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, who declares that forgeries should by no means be excluded, but, when of excellent quality, should be exhibited as of the period in which they were made. This would involve, for example, classifying the "Olbia" gold crown presented to the Museum by Mr. Morgan as "Russian, XIXth cent., by Rukhomoski, the fabricator of the notorious tiara of Saitaphernes."

The merits of a view which errs, if at all, on the side of liberality, we shall consider later. But it should be prefaced that the possession of art forgeries is discreditable neither to public nor private collector. They abound; they are often most skilfully made; they are sometimes patched up from the *disjecta membra* of genuine objects in a fashion to deceive the very elect. They are urged upon enthusiastic amateurs by dealers who combine in an extraordinary degree audacity and astuteness. No collector of any enterprise can fail thus to be taken in occasionally, and the curator who never snapped at this dubious sort of bargain would presumably be too timid to spend his annual appropriation. Moreover, museums often come into possession of these embarrassing exhibits by accepting gifts of entire collections which contain many desirable objects. So the Moore bequest at the Metropolitan Museum was in general an excellent acquisition, though every one of its Tanagra figurines is flagrantly modern. The practical questions for a director, then, are first how to keep forgeries out as much as possible, and next what to do with those that must inevitably slip in.

Here Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke's rather sweeping suggestion is welcome to the extent that it places the problem purely on an artistic basis, and declines to condemn the entire class of imitations on moral grounds. Evidently, if a forgery is of equal beauty with an original, it is equally available as an art exhibit, and needs merely, in the interest of historical accuracy, to be properly labelled and dated. Some collectors frankly take the ground that they buy what pleases them, and that age and authenticity are minor considerations. We know of a most enlightened picture buyer who had made an offer to a dealer for a "fifteenth-century" panel that was plainly the product of a cleverly managed Sienese establishment. When this came to the dealer's notice, he promptly notified his customer, only to receive a renewal of the offer from a collector who was willing to waive the question of authenticity and abide by his taste. In certain cases this attitude is commendable. The South Kensington Museum did well to make a separate exhibit of the portrait busts by Bastiani; and anybody who has bought that true artist's work under the name of Donatello, Desiderio, or whatever early Renaissance sculptor you will, is lucky—if he has not paid a Donatello price. Similarly, a great part of the best Chinese porcelains might be classified as forgeries, since the potters imitated, generation by generation, not only the patterns, colors, and glazes of their predecessors, but also their marks.

Yet here one must distinguish between a genuine revival of an ancient style, or the faithful transmission of the precedents of a craft, and fabrications made with intention to deceive. Because the *entrepreneurs* of Florence managed to catch in Bastiani an archaizer quite as sincere and gifted as, say, the late Burne-Jones, and the more recent employers of the master craftsman Rukhomoski have been lucky in their man, it does not follow that the mass of art forgeries are works of art. That they seldom are. The counterfeit Diazes, Michels, Monticellis, Corots that pass through our auction rooms are of generally contemptible, at best of merely specious, quality. The superficial gracefulness of the modern Tanagra statuettes is essentially cheap as compared with the real distinction of the rare genuine examples. The Japanese version of an ancient Chinese porcelain is never quite true in texture and color. That they are in most instances indistinguishable from the original to an untrained eye proves nothing. The art of a thing depends upon ultimate and frequently incommensurable refinements. The duty of museums is to train the eye to perceive these distinctions, not to efface them under a mantle of false catholicity.

It cannot be too strongly stated that most forgeries are not art of any period. Any apparent merit they may possess is merely a reflection—a dilution of the quality of some fine original. Even the marvellous intaglios which Prince Poniatowski had cut, to the confusion of collectors, are no more to be compared to good Greek gems than the decorative art of the French Empire is to be compared to that of Rome and Egypt from which it was derived. Exceptional circumstances may warrant the honorable exhibition of these falsifications; in general, the only proper course to take with them is that of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts—put them into an appropriate Botany Bay; show them for the pretences they are, as a lesson in humility to experts and as a warning to untutored enthusiasts.

FOGAZZARO'S 'THE SAINT.'

ALASSIO, December, 1905.

The literary event of the year in Italy has beyond doubt been the publication of Fogazzaro's novel, 'Il Santo.'* The author, after many years in which he was known only to the few, has become in the general estimation one of the three writers who, each in his own way and degree, may be said to stand as representatives of the literature of modern Italy—the other two, it is scarcely necessary to say, being Carducci and Gabriele d'Annunzio. It is a matter of course that the publishers should seek to make a good thing out of their author's present popularity; never before have I known a village bookseller to solicit orders before publication.

*'Il Santo: Romanzo.' 10° migliaio. Milan: Baldini, Castoldi & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. [1905], 1906.

and, especially as the 5th of November drew near, the newspapers stimulated curiosity by the indiscretions familiar in other lands, with the result that the copy handed to me a day or two after that date bore on the title-page the words "8° migliaio." But it has been owing to the book itself, and to the eagerness of the discussion that it excites, that the subsequent sale has been almost, if not quite, unprecedented.

That is to say, the show to which this modest drum-beating has invited us, exceeds expectations—it is really of an unusual order. As Arturo Graf, in the *Nuova Antologia*, said: "Three books in one: a book of faith, a book of battle, and a novel." 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno,' after 'Piccolo Mondo Antico,' had not led us to look for, as a close to the trilogy, a work which, on a higher plane than its two immediate predecessors, is of a more intense interest, and is perhaps the master work of the artist. The *Saint* is Pietro Maironi, who, after the vacillations, the questionings, the restless discontent of which 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' is full, at the end—after a vision, wherein his future life as a servant of God is revealed to him—accepts his vocation, and disappears from the world that has known him heretofore.

In the present volume he reappears, under the name of Benedetto, as a saint of the well-known mediæval type, as far as outward seeming is concerned. He macerates his body by fasting and by menial toil; he spends nights on the mountain-side, in prayer, chilled by the winds and drenched by the rain. Ignoring the position conferred on him by his birth and culture, he is the lowliest of the lowly, the servant of the poorest. Saint Simeon Stylites might have mistaken him for a brother.

And yet he is more than a mere ascetic striving to atone for his sins. In the intensity of his love for his fellow-man he is more akin to Saint Francis. But, together with the love of a Saint Francis, the burning aspiration toward purity of a Saint Simeon, the humility of any saint of the martyrology, he has somehow fused the culture of to-day. One would have said that if such an anomaly as a modern saint be possible, he must be sought for among the poor in spirit, the meek, the lowly, who are also the ignorant—unsophisticated by any illumination of science. But while the teachings of Benedetto thrill with the spirit of the Sermon on the Mount, he recognizes that the theory of Evolution may explain the history of the human race, or that right living is more important than right belief. Indeed, in matter of belief his tenderness covers all sorts of errors, from skepticism on one side to superstition on the other. In a remarkable passage among his last utterances, after admonishing his followers to adore above all the truth, and to teach "that there is no truth hostile to God, nor contrary to His law," he adds, "But watch with equal care lest the children taste the food of their elders. Do not be offended with an impure or imperfect faith where the life is pure and the conscience healthy." All this may seem to you scarcely noteworthy, living in a land where varieties of belief are almost as numerous as are believers, nor would it seem remarkable in any cultivated layman of Italy; but such doctrine is scarcely taught by priests, and least of all by ascetics. This saint, however, is moved by a lofty spirituality that takes small account of outward form and dogma, and clings solely to what is essential and eternal in religion. And what gives to his spirituality its greatest force is that it is fused with a passionate tenderness for his fellow-man; it constrains the reader who lets himself be borne along by the noble fervor that animates Benedetto.

Still, sooner or later, the wonder arises why one whose vision is so clear should waste his force in mortifications of the flesh—why he did not see that they are worse than useless; why his culture, his spirituality, his reason—one hesitates to call it common sense—did not from the very beginning make these aberrations impossible. The book offers a number of questions for solution. I shall try to answer some of them in my own way, though hesitatingly, as I am not sure of understanding rightly. A second reading might modify more or less my conclusions. It seems to me now that, whatever the contradiction involved between Benedetto's teachings and practice, the book would have failed of its purpose without that apparent contradiction.

But first let us inquire what that purpose is. This is not the least perplexing of the questions suggested by the book. At first I thought, like nearly everybody who has read it, that it was an effort to promote greater spirituality in the Catholic Church, a return to the purity and simplicity of apostolic days, and at the same time to bring it into harmony with the accepted truths of modern science that have long been estranging from it the laity. It is by no means new to us that this double cause is dear to Fogazzaro's heart, and in these days the wind everywhere blows that way. It is frequently said that this wind comes from across the Atlantic, and it may be so; at all events it is felt in every country of Europe—most of all, perhaps, in France, where even the clergy, even the higher clergy, seems to be deeply affected by it, and least in Germany, largely because the "Old Catholic" movement affords a refuge for many of the discontented. In Austria, Father Vogrinec (I am not sure of the orthography of the name, as I draw my information from an Italian source) has published a book upon the causes of the decadence of the Roman Catholic Church, and the remedies therefor, which approaches its subject in quite another manner from that of Fogazzaro's Saint. Benedetto's light is always "with grace divine imbued," while Father Vogrinec would seem to be of those who call a spade a spade, and proposes definite and bold reforms—that of religious teaching and of the catechism, the abolition of clerical celibacy and of the obligation of fasting, a more active participation of the laity in the administration of the Church, a reform of the worship of the saints and of relics, the admission of more non-Italians into the Government of the universal church, etc. The book was promptly put upon the Index, as had been those of the Abbé Loisy and of the German professors Schell of Würzburg and Müller of Baden. Father Vogrinec, like his predecessors, declared his submission to the ecclesiastical authorities.

In Italy the movement has the same general character that it has in France: it aims at a more rational catholicism, a faith that does not ignore modern science; at the same time it does not assert itself so strongly, but is marked by a certain conservatism which rather resembles timidity. Fogazzaro's Saint may be said to be fairly representative of the Italian spirit of reform. His teachings are noble and persuasive—indeed, they could scarcely be otherwise when delivered in such melodious prose; but they have nothing of the sharpness of attack in them. Perhaps it is for this that, contrary to general expectation, the book has not yet been put upon the Index. Or perhaps it is because a kindred sentiment has begun to penetrate the precincts of the Vatican: there are indications—faint, often obscured, but recurrent—that the stronghold of obsolete faiths and practices is being invaded by modern ideas.

Still, there are plenty of evidences in this book that Fogazzaro does not expect much encouragement from that quarter. At the house of Giovanni Selva, the layman whose writings teach the renewed faith and the new exegesis, there is held a meeting of friends, mostly priests, of similar views to his own; but among them there is an informer, and, as a result, one after another, every priest who was present is made to feel the wrath of his superiors—extinguished, so to speak. In fact, the higher clergy are continually represented in any but favorable colors. We have them arrogant, worldly, intolerant, place-seekers, politicians, and not scrupulous ones either. Even the Pope—whose figure as drawn here reminds one of a beautiful statue illuminated from within—who strongly impresses us with his dignity, his gentleness, sweetness, and purity, reveals himself as much a statesman as a priest; he cannot govern his church according to the ideas of the saints, who are few, when he must always have an eye to the scribes and pharisees, who are many. He is glad to serve Benedetto in a particular matter, but he cannot hope to satisfy him completely until they shall meet, as indeed he trusts they will, in another world.

No, Fogazzaro makes it clear that the struggle for a purified faith can look for little sympathy in a church governed as this is. He makes it so clear that for a while I was convinced that the purpose of his book was to show that he despaired of reform from within; that the many laymen and the handful of ecclesiastics who desired such a thing would find in the end that they must do as previous reformers have done—find another church for themselves. For it is not only the higher clergy, the scribes and pharisees, who will not hear of change; what can be done with the ignorant herd, steeped in superstition, who throng after the Saint so long as they believe that he can heal their sick, save their crops from blight, or their cattle from disease, but are ready to stone him as an impostor the moment they begin to doubt his supernatural powers? Or the cultured classes, whose members are contemptuous or idly curious where they are not openly hostile? Or the civil power, outwardly estranged from the Vatican, but secretly bartering political services with it, and accepting any pretext to sacrifice Benedetto to his enemies? What is to be done in a world that is not only incapable of understanding what it is to "hunger after righteousness," but is

dead to every noble emotion? Superstition, indifference, and corruption are of course hostile to all spirituality, whether within or without the church. It is only because Benedetto and those who share his convictions wish to remain within that the seeming impossibility of persuading their superiors makes their case appear so hopeless.

Finally, however, I return to the original belief. A little leaven may leaven the lump, and many scattered indices assure me that Benedetto (or Fogazzaro, as you will) believes in the final triumph of the cause that he advocates. The sheep will not be constrained to leave the fold in order to gain the green pastures and still waters for which they long—the fold will be enlarged, its old barriers thrown down; but meanwhile the sheep should bide in patience the time of the Good Shepherd. "What faith is yours if you talk of leaving the church because certain antiquated doctrines of its chiefs offend you, certain decrees of the Roman congregations, certain directions of the government of the Holy Father?" The great church is the great body of the faithful who believe in God, and this remains unchanged, no matter what may be the errors of its rulers.

But to return to our first question. It is asked again and again: Why should this modern—cultivated and a man of the world—go back in his practice to the obsolete superstitions of the Middle Ages? Why should he emaciate his body with fastings and vigils, why waste his hours in unworthy toil, why refuse the love that is offered him and that he might accept without blame? Would his teachings be any the less pure and noble were he in the enjoyment of the advantages that were his by birth, and his life enriched by the love of a woman who was his equal in qualities of mind and heart? I may be mistaken, but it seems to me that the rationale of this saint is primarily a question of art. A comfortable bourgeois preaching reform, what is he to the artist alongside of the "voice crying in the wilderness" of a new John the Baptist? But our author has had other and more potent reasons. He has in Giovanni Selva given us the layman who approaches the questions of reform from the intellectual side. His figure is a noble one, but, although a Catholic, he is only a layman, and in that sense an outsider to the church. But Benedetto, though not a priest, has the authority of one at the centre of its organization. Who so fit to preach a revival of faith from within as an *illuminato*, stamped with the recognized signs of a divine mission? If Selva be the regenerating mind, Benedetto is the heart, and a heart that beats so strongly and truly that it ought to compel the body to which it belongs to a sounder life.

The book is an epitome of the religious convictions and aspirations which the author has embodied in his previous works, and which remain always the same, only matured, widened, and quickened by a more profound humanity. It is the consummate fruit of a lifetime of growth. And it is also a novel. As such, after the first chapter, in which is felt a certain artificiality, as if the author were not yet quite at ease in his machinery, it seems to me to possess a unity, an intensity of life, that should put it into the foremost rank, if not at the head of his creations. It is not only the climax of a trilogy; it has the finality and solemnity of the crowning work of a life. The humor, without which Fogazzaro would not be Fogazzaro, is there, but it is chastened, and alternately either severer or tenderer than heretofore. For vividness of portraiture and humor the pages describing the meeting at Selva's house, the ladies who listened surreptitiously to Benedetto's teachings, and the interviews with the representatives of the civil power are among the most brilliant of our author. I have heard one or two speak of *lungaggini*, but I have not found them myself, and I suspect that they exist only for those who are not quite in sympathy with the spirit of the book.

The opposition that 'Il Santo' arouses is as a declaration of religious convictions rather than as a work of art. The radical, anti-clerical or anti-religious, and the sects of the scribes and the pharisees in their entirety, pour out vials of wrath upon it. And yet the number of its readers is always increasing, and the many who feel the need of a purified faith, or of informing their faith with reason, will find it full of suggestion. As Édouard Rod wrote in the *Figaro*, this is one of the books that most lend themselves to criticism, and best resist it. Whatever may be its effect upon the visible Church, if any, it is a distinct gain for the invisible one which reigns in the hearts of all good men. S. K.

THE MOZART FAMILY IN PARIS.

PARIS, January 4, 1906.

The journey of Mozart, father of the immortal musician, to Paris is one of the curious episodes in the life of the eighteenth century in the French capital. The collection of portraits by Carmontelle placed by the Duke d'Aumale in the château of Chantilly, and now under the care of the French Institute, is an admirable illustration of the elegant society of the time. Carmontelle was not a first-rate artist, but he had a great feeling for color and a sort of genius for catching the true likeness of his models. In one of his beautiful colored drawings we have an exact portrait of Mozart, the father, and his two children, whom he had taken to the Duke de Chartres, at the Palais-Royal. The father is in a red coat with red culottes, the daughter in a flowered white gown, the little Wolfgang in a beautiful blue coat adorned with white lace. In the centre of the group, the young Wolfgang is on a chair before a piano; the father, behind him, plays on a violin; the young daughter is represented singing. This picture has been reproduced in a good engraving by Delafosse. There is a photograph of the original aquarelle of Chantilly in the fine volume published by M. Gruyer on Carmontelle's portraits in the Musée Condé.

The father of Mozart arrived with his wife and his young family in Paris in November, 1763. He wrote to a friend in December: "We are arrived and lodged in the house of the Bavarian Ambassador, Count von Eyck, who received us in the most friendly manner, and had prepared for us a room where we are very comfortably installed; an advantage which we owe to the recommendation of the family of the Countess von Eyck." France always entertained most friendly relations with the elector of Bavaria. Count von Eyck inhabited the Hôtel de Beauvais, one of the most magnificent houses at the time in Paris, between the Rue St. Antoine and the Rue de Jouy. There remains of it now only the façade, which is much mutilated, a little court, and a fine staircase. The Bavarian envoy was of Flemish origin; his real name was Van Eycken; he leased the lower part of this hôtel to bankers (if the name is applicable), who made of it a gaming establishment. The protection of a person who made such an extraordinary and lucrative use of his diplomatic privileges, was not the best that Leopold Mozart could choose to introduce himself and his children into the great French families and the Court of Versailles. He had, fortunately, many letters of introduction—to the Austrian Ambassador, to several important members of the French aristocracy.

He had made the journey to Paris in the hope of reaping a small fortune. While he was spending his time in ante-chambers, his wife and children visited the churches and the monuments of Paris. Young Wolfgang took much pleasure in the amusements of the boulevards, which were as animated at the time as they are nowadays. In the evening hours he played the piano and repeated the various airs which he had already composed. Four days after his arrival in Paris he began to write his second sonata for the pianoforte. He had brought with him another sonata, which he left interrupted. We have in a quarto album published at Salzburg in 1872 ('Salzburger Mozart-Album') a facsimile reproduction of the andante which began this unfinished sonata. M. Doumic, who has written interesting articles on the youth of Mozart, infers from this sonata that he was careless. "After a first line written with much care, the notes by and by become uneven and get mixed, the bass notes marking the measures are thrown in at random, till on the third line the tired hand of the child makes an error in indicating the passages which are to be repeated, and makes nervous corrections." Nevertheless, the musical motive has its clear and definitive form; it is perfect. It is because, during his whole life, from his earliest youth till the end of his too short career, Mozart always composed in his head, and wrote his notes on paper only after his idea had attained in his mind its complete and harmonious form. He did not need the physical excitement of writing; the material part of the work was to him only an annoyance and a fatigue.

This andante is entirely free from the musical traditions which were current at the time. It is a specimen of what we can only call the Mozartian manner, a pure flow of melody, without anything artificial. It may be supposed that the young boy began it at Brussels, immediately after having composed his first sonata, while he was waiting to be presented to the Archduke Charles and to give his first concert.

The *Mercure de France* of the month of May, 1763, announced the publication in Paris of "Six Sonatas for the Clavecin" by J. G. Eckard. This Eckard had already been several years in Paris; he was a compatriot of Leopold Eckart. His work was probably presented to young Mozart as a model; his sonatas have still the left-

hand accompaniments which were used at the time, which are very mechanical, and play, so to speak, no other part than to make a sort of tremulous noise. This system, which went under the name of "basse d'Alberti," had been adopted by Eckard as being in accord with the French fashion, but he was well acquainted with the works of the two Bachs, and their influence is felt in his sonatas.

The letters which Leopold Mozart brought with him were not honored with replies for a long time; at last, he was received by Melchior Grimm. Grimm had arrived at Paris in 1749, at the age of twenty-five, and had gradually made his way in society. He belonged to the coterie of the Philosophers. He received Leopold Mozart and his young son, and as soon as he saw the little Wolfgang he took an interest in him:

"This M. Grimm, my great friend," writes Leopold Mozart, "is a very learned man and a great philanthropist. He, and he alone, has done everything for us. See what a man who has intelligence and a good heart is capable of. A German from Ratisbon, he has been in Paris for more than fifteen years; he understands marvellously how to arrange everything in the way in which it must perforce succeed, when he has resolved that it shall."

Grimm's correspondence begins on the 1st of December with a great eulogy on young Mozart; it has often been cited as the most important document we possess regarding Mozart's first visit to Paris: "True prodigies are rare enough to make it obligatory on us to mention them when we have occasion to see them. . . . What a pity," he says, "that people should know so little about music in this country!" This letter was a sort of circular, and was sent to many people. A new life began for the Mozart family; they were invited to many places. We read in the letters of the father, on the 8th of December: "To-morrow, a sitting with the Marchioness of Villeroy and at the Countess of Lillebonne's." They certainly appeared at the house of Madame d'Épinay, the great friend of Grimm; at the Baron d'Holbach's, whose wife was a musician; at the houses of the farmers-general. Young Mozart was presented at the Palais-Royal. If he was not heard by the Duke de Chartres, who was then sixteen years old, he was by his sister, to whom he dedicated, two years afterwards, a rondeau. It was at the Palais-Royal that Carmontelle saw him and made the charming aquarelle in which he was represented. During the stay of the Mozarts in Paris, they received visits from the three best performers on the piano of the moment, Le Grand, Eckard, and Schobert, who, says a letter of Mozart the father, "paid homage to the children for their engraved sonatas." Le Grand was the organist of the Abbey of Saint-Germain-des-Prés. Eckard was a native of Augsburg; he was at the same time a painter, decorating small boxes, after the fashion of the time, with little miniatures, and employing his savings in printing sonatas of his composition. "The most honest man in the world," says Leopold Mozart of him. Schobert was a native of Silesia; he was pianist of the house of Conti, and had achieved great success already by his sonatas.

The great object of Leopold Mozart's ambition was to present his children at the court of Versailles. He remained there for two weeks. He had promised the Archbishop of Salzburg to send him a detailed account of his reception; this document, unfortunately, has never been found, though it probably still exists; and we find no trace of this event in the French letters or memoirs of the time. There is only this mention in the books of Papillon de la Ferté, who kept an account of the expenses of the court: "On the 12th of February, by order of Mesdames, fifty louis to a child who played the piano before them." We have, however, some confused details in the letters of Leopold Mozart to his friends, the Hagenauers. His descriptions are very glowing. He sees in the Royal Chapel the King and his family, he attends the midnight mass. "There before me was that court whose renown fills the universe." He gives details respecting the music of the chapel. There were four princesses at Versailles, very fond of music —the Queen, the Dauphiness, Madame Adelaide, and her sister Madame Victoire. Mozart's children played before the Queen, but no trace is left of the details of the concert. A great event for the Mozart family was the *Grand Couvert*, where they approached the royal family.

"The Queen's daughters, on seeing my children, came near them, and not only allowed them to kiss their hands, but kissed them themselves repeatedly. At the *Grand Couvert* on New Year's Day they made room for us behind the royal table, and saw my Wolfgang stay, all the time, behind the Queen, kissing her hands, and eating the *friandises* which she took for him from the royal table. The Queen speaks German as well as we do; and, as the King does not know a word of it, the Queen translated to him all our little hero said."

The child, when he returned to his modest room in an inn, continued to work, to perform and to write music. These details would be very trifling if it was not a question of Mozart; but nothing can be uninteresting about this wonderful genius. Did France and the glories of Versailles have any influence on his development? This influence may perhaps be found in the two sonatas which he conceived and probably wrote during the five months which he spent in Paris.

Correspondence.

NATIONAL REGULATION OF STATE REBATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If it is such a terrible evil that railroads should give rebates or discriminate between shippers that the Federal Government ought to proceed at once to stamp it out, why are not State rebates a similar terrible evil that should be similarly stamped out? By "State rebates" is meant the total or partial remission of taxes by the State or some municipality therein for the purpose of inducing a particular individual, firm, or corporation to establish an industry in a particular locality. There would seem to be no difference in essence or principle between a rebate or discrimination in railroad rates and a rebate or discrimination in public taxation. These municipal rebates are, if the writer is not mistaken, sanctioned by statutes and upheld by the courts. The municipalities exercise this power of rebate and discrimination, because they find, like the railroads, that it is good "business" to do so.

The writer is not undertaking to defend either evil, but merely to point out that they appear to be essentially the same thing. Robert S. Minot.

Boston, January 15, 1906.

THE ELECTION OF REPRESENTATIVES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial of January 11, on the "Automatic Tariff Brake," attributes to "the fathers" the system whereby the second session of Congress is too short for legislation and the first or long session is hampered by the impending election; whereby Congressmen meet for the first time thirteen months after their election, and for their second session after their successors have been chosen. The curious thing about this noxious arrangement is precisely the fact that it is not inherited from the days when defective transportation might seem to have made such delays inevitable; it is not the result of filial piety, but of self-immolation. The fact seems to be generally forgotten that, before the civil war, ten of the fifteen slave States and five of the eighteen free States followed the sensible plan of electing their Congressmen in the odd year. A man was elected, served, and went before his constituents again with his record complete. Connecticut clung to this system until 1873, Oregon and California until 1875, and New Hampshire until 1877. It was done away with, doubtless, on the plea of economy, and with the object of preventing its disintegrating effects on party organization.

That we should be laboring under so dangerous an anachronism, when the Constitution so wisely left us free to choose, is, to say the least, a misfortune. It is to be hoped that this matter will not be overlooked by those who are preparing to face the difficulties of a constitutional amendment in order to change the date of the inauguration, simply for the convenience of a pageant. C. R. Fish.

Madison, Wis., January 13, 1906.

SLOVENLY SPEAKING OF ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The synopsis of Prof. Blackburn's recent address to the Central Division of the Modern Language Association of America, as given in your issue of January 11, encourages me to write to you on the same theme—the deterioration of spoken English in the United States.

A generation ago, the children of carefully educated parents were diligently corrected in their every-day speech; slang phrases, errors of construction, mispronunciations, indistinct enunciation, nasal intonation and shrill pitch, as fast as they were brought into the family circle from outside contact or from the speech of servants, were rooted out swiftly and effectually. Our heritage from Chaucer, that "well of English undefyled," early became a sacred possession, to be handed on to the next generation as clear and wholesome as it had come to us. Our pride in our old New England ancestry made it imperative for us to keep our tongues uncontaminated by the speech of the vulgar. How is it, that, with such training, such

holy traditions of duty and dignity, we stand powerless or struggle hopelessly against the tidal wave of coarse, slovenly, low-bred language, which is swallowing up our children in its flood? Must we see the dear English of former days swept under to destruction? Or is it possible we are in the wrong? Are we "too particular?"

Professor Blackburn's suggestions by way of remedy are good, except in one provision: yet that one is all. Where shall we find the teachers, who "may do much" to restore to our children their lost inheritance? Not in Chicago's schools. Here, I can assure him, he will find dozens of schools in which not one teacher is capable of setting an example of pure and beautiful speech. Let him visit, also, our great high schools, with their marble wainscoting, tiled floors, improved fire-escapes, generously equipped gymnasium and laboratories worthy of the best colleges; he will find in each perhaps one or two noble women, bred back in old New England, who are really fit to carry the torch of enlightenment to—fifteen hundred students! A scant half-dozen more, men and women, use the best quality of Western speech; we are thankful for them. But the count has not reached ten righteous ones.

I appeal to the *Nation:* How is the case in New England itself? Some of us are sending our sons and daughters East to college, hoping thus to repair in some measure the damage done by sheer force of numbers in this huge, prosperous Philistia. Is our confidence well-placed? Shall we receive them back cleansed, purified?

SARAH WILLARD HIESTAND.

CHICAGO, January 16, 1906.

[Measurably, perhaps, except in the article of *shall* and *will*.—ED. NATION.]

MACAULAY'S NEW ZEALANDER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your review of Mr. Macmillan Brown's 'Samson Agonistes of Milton' and other works, and your reference to him as a new New Zealander, brings Macaulay's famous character to the fore once again. His genesis, so far as I know, has never been fully established, and I submit the following *mémoires pour servir*, trusting they may be utilized in some literary laboratory.

Peter Cunningham claims for Horace Walpole the first suggestion of the New Zealander. In a letter to Sir Horace Mann, dated November 24, 1774, Walpole wrote:

"Don't tell me I am grown old and peevish and supercilious—name the geniuses of 1774, and I submit. The great Augustan age will dawn on the other side of the Atlantic. There will, perhaps, be a Thucydides at Boston, a Xenophon at New York, and, in time, a Virgil at Morocco, and a Newton at Peru. At last, some curious traveller from Lima will visit England and give a description of the ruins of St. Paul's, like the editions of Balbec and Palmyra; but am I not prophesying, contrary to my consummate prudence, and casting horoscopes of empires like Rousseau?" (Walpole's Works, Cunningham's ed., vol. vi., p. 153.)

Here the traveller comes from Peru, and not from New Zealand. In 1780 there was published 'Poems by a Young Nobleman of Distinguished Abilities, lately deceased, describing particularly the State of England and the once flourishing City of London, in a letter from an American Traveller, dated from the Ruinous Portico of St. Paul's in the year 2199, to a friend settled in Boston, the Metropolis of the Western Empire.' The poems were written by Lord Lyttelton, the "wicked Lord Lyttelton," and dated March 21, 1771.

The admirers of Gibbon can make a fairly good case for him as the creator of the New Zealander. The claim would be based on the following:

"If, in the neighborhood of the commercial and literary town of Glasgow, a race of cannibals has really existed, we may contemplate, in the period of the Scottish history, the opposite extremes of savage and civilized life. Such reflections tend to enlarge the circle of our ideas, and to encourage the hope that New Zealand may produce, in some future age, the Hume of the Southern Hemisphere." ('Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,' Bury's ed., viii., p. 44. The volume was published in 1781.)

The next and last "original source" of the famous passage is the essay in Ranke's 'History of the Popes,' in Sismondi's 'Literature of the South of Europe,' published in 1813:

"Who may say that Europe itself, whither the empire of letters and science has been transported; which sheds so brilliant a light; which forms so correct a judgment of the past, and which compares so well the successive reigns of the literature and manners of antiquity, shall not, in a few ages, become as wild and deserted as the hills of Mauritania, the sands of Egypt, and the valleys of Anatolia? Who may say that in some new land, perhaps in those lofty regions whence the Orinoco and the river of the Amazons have their source, or perhaps in the impregnable fastnesses of New Holland, nations with other manners, other languages, other thoughts, and other religions, shall not arise once more to renew the human race, and to study the past as we have studied it; nations who, hearing with astonishment of our existence, that our knowledge was as extensive as their own, and that we, like themselves, placed our trust in the stability of fame, shall pity our impotent efforts, and recall the names of Newton, of Racine, and of Tasso, as examples of the vain struggles of man to snatch that immortality of glory which fate has refused to bestow." (Vol. I., Roscoe's translation, p. 76.)

The passage has the flowing eloquence of Macaulay himself, and has in it almost every idea that is expressed by the great *Edinburgh Reviewer*. But no matter where he first got his idea, it is now Macaulay's, for,

"Though old the thought,
And oft exprest,
'Tis his at last
Who says it best."

ALFALES YOUNG.

SALT LAKE CITY, January 11, 1906.

Notes.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce that they will issue immediately a new edition of the Baroness von Suttner's famous, almost epoch-making, book, 'Ground Arms!' ('Die Waffen Nieder'), issued by them some years ago, and now out of print. The recent award of the Nobel Peace Prize to the author for the influence her book had in bringing about the Hague Tribunal, has led to inquiries from all quarters for the story. The new edition will be in inexpensive form, and will be ready about the first of February.

A Stockholm correspondent of the *Vossische Zeitung* of Berlin, by the way, expresses surprise that the Nobel awards are constantly becoming smaller. At the first distribution they amounted to 150,782 kronen, but this year they have been reduced to 138,089. The Swedish papers doubt the wisdom of leaving to the Norwegians the determination of the peace prize, as the Storthing, which has control of the matter, might use its power for illegitimate purposes, and the demand is made that the regulations of the Swedish Central Commission be thoroughly revised. The income from the Nobel endowments, according to the latest reports, was 1,378,000 kronen; but the expense of management has been so great that less than one-half of this sum has been distributed in prizes. It is charged that the board recently purchased a building to be used solely for the Fund and its work at a cost of 100,000 kronen in excess of what it had been offered for a few months previously.

A posthumous work of the late Henry Demarest Lloyd, entitled 'Man, the Social Creator,' will be published in March by Doubleday, Page & Co.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly have ready 'Rahab,' a poetic drama, by Richard Burton, and 'Immigration, and its Effect upon the United States,' by Prescott F. Hall, first of a series to be denominated "American Public Problems."

A quite different series is announced by Harper & Bros., the "Mark Twain Library of Humor," edited by Mr. Clemens himself, who will now show whether such a collection will fare better at his hands than poetry at Emerson's as an anthologist.

'The Way of an Indian,' text and illustrations by Frederic Remington, will be brought out next month by Fox, Duffield & Co.

'The Later Works of Titian' and 'The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood' will be the next addition to Newnes's pictorial "Art Library," which bears the American imprint of Frederick Warne & Co.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce a limited edition of Franklin's Autobiography, printed under the direction of Mr. Bruce Rogers, and illustrated with famous portraits in photogravure.

A new historical romance by Henryk Sienkiewicz, 'On the Field of Glory,' is being published by Little, Brown & Co.

A 'Deutsches Liederbuch für Amerikanische Studenten,' words and music, compiled by Prof. A. R. Hohlfeld of the University of Wisconsin, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Macmillan Co. will issue immediately Tennyson's 'In Memoriam' with the poet's own explanatory notes.

The Oxford University Press (H. Frowde) is about to issue 'Scenes from Old Playbooks,' arranged for schools and youthful readers, as an introduction to Shakspere, by Percy Simpson, the only notes being stage notes, and these lavishly supplied, together with a glossary.

According to a report in the *Globus* a collection of Russian popular fables is being made in Siberia under the direction of W. F. Bulgakoff, who is to edit the work and carry it through the press. The materials are being carefully collected, those engaged in the work being directed to give only the fables reported by recognized raconteurs, to report them in the original peasant dialects, and to note correctly the

exact localities where these fables are current.

The time of annuals is upon us, and a welcome awaits the current 'Whitaker's Peerage' (tenth year) and 'Whitaker's Almanack' (thirty-eighth year) for 1906 (London: J. Whitaker & Sons). The editors of the "directory of titled persons" speak of the unabated flow of promotions, requiring as much space as the mention of new honors. They have fixed, in their alphabetical arrangement of compound names like Leveson-Gower and Naylor-Leland, upon the practice of entry by the second name, but with cross-references. We may remind our readers that unusual pronunciations are indicated, as in the case of the first of the above instances; also, that a necrology, abbreviations, and modes of addressing persons of title are part of the regular apparatus of 'Whitaker's Peerage.' The 'Almanack' needs fewer words. Its preëminence corresponds with its age and familiarity. The present issue revives a directory of the towns and counties of England and Wales, and (American tourists may take notice) enlarges its article on British health and holiday resorts.

We have also on our table the second issue of the 'Exporters' Cyclopædia,' "containing full and authentic information relative to shipments for every country in the world" (New York: Exporters' Cyclopædia Co.), with its index of countries and ports, its list of countries reached by routes from Atlantic and Gulf ports, etc.; the seventh issue of the 'Architects' Directory and Specification Index' (W. T. Comstock), with its list of architects, and (a new feature) of the Building Departments of various cities, with their personnel; the twentieth issue of the 'American Annual of Photography,' copiously illustrated; and finally (we have been tardy with this) the seventh issue of 'The Medical Directory of New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut,' published by the New York State Medical Association of this city. It embraces no fewer than 15,472 names.

The fifth issue of Miss Florence V. Levy's 'American Art Annual' offers the usual encyclopædic features—complete lists of artists, sales, prices, and the like; and this year registers for the first time the rapidly growing municipal art societies, and even the cities that contain architectural monuments of some importance. Something like twenty illustrations, chosen mostly from prize pictures and important mural paintings of the year, are a solace for the hard-pressed journalist who must constantly use this excellent manual for severer purposes of reference. It is published by the American Art Annual (Incorporated) at No. 20 West Thirty-fourth Street.

From the Clarendon Press (Henry Frowde) we have received two small but interesting volumes of Wordsworthiana. The first, 'Wordsworth's Literary Criticism,' contains practically all of his prose writing of a critical nature, his prefaces, his essay upon epitaphs, certain familiar letters touching on literary matters, and his "opinions expressed in conversation with his nephew and biographer." The selections are interesting, as showing a subtlety as well as a shrewdness of critical faculty. Read consecutively, they convey a peculiar impression of independence, fresh air, and wholesomeness.

The second volume is a reprint of a manuscript volume of 'Poems and Extracts chosen by William Wordsworth for an album presented to Lady Mary Lowther, Christmas, 1819.' The bulk of the pieces are by Wordsworth's favorite, Anne, Countess of Winchelsea, better known to her true lovers as "Ardelia"; but twenty-three other poets are represented, ranging from Webster to William Mickle, and from Shakspere to Lætitia Pilkington. Diverse as the sources are, the poems are homogeneous in a certain intensity of moral inspiration; and in their choice and arrangement a very sensitive taste is displayed. Wordsworth's introductory sonnet does not greatly overpraise them:

> "Genuine crystals, pure as those that pave
> The azure brooks where Dian joys to lave
> Her spotless limbs."

The past year witnessed the completion of the great labor undertaken in 1900 by Prof. Attilio Pagliani, librarian of the University of Genoa, in his 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899' (Milan: Associazione Tipografica-Libraria Italiana; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). This list of works published in the peninsula during the past half-century is as unpretentious as it is meritorious. It furnishes, as we have often pointed out, an interesting series of judgments by the Italian public of the writers of other nations. In the concluding instalments (Parts 32, 33), for example, we observe the overwhelming popularity of Jules Verne—still active—as shown in two pages of titles of his translated works; even Virgil fills no more than two and a half; Zola needs less than one. On the other hand, Uhland, as a whole, has been neglected since 1847 by the translators. Wordsworth has had not one; the only Wordsworth in the 'Catalogo' is Christopher. Cardinal Wiseman still excites a living interest. The strength of the Vasari revival is noteworthy. Seven pages are given up to anonymous lives (*Vita*).

The Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* states that none of the smaller nationalities of Europe is so zealous and systematic in its efforts to develop and strengthen an independent literature as are the Finns. Amid great difficulties and by tireless energy and industry a Finnish literature has been created which is constantly growing and attaining ever higher reaches of culture. The rich contents of this literature can be best seen from a publication of the Finnish Literature Society, called the Fifth Supplementary Volume, and edited by Vallfried Vasenius, which contains, in 473 pages, an alphabetical and systematic account of all the works published in Finnish between 1896 and 1900. Much of this is naturally translations, and in consequence the translators are given in a special rubric; but the original Finnish literature still makes a very commendable showing.

One of the most flourishing of the learned societies in the Netherlands is the Friesch Genootschap of Leeuwarden. The seventy-sixth report of this body (J. R. Miedema & Co.) shows how rich have been recent accessions to its library and museum—the latter probably one of the best in Europe for the study of the Continental peoples making up the English nation. The characteristic feature of the landscape in Friesland, Groningen, and Drenthe, apart from the *hunebedden*, or "giants' graves," made of boulders, gathered and arranged by human labor, are the *terpen*. These are mounds of clay reared by primitive man for refuge from the floods. Until the days of agricultural chemistry, they were looked upon by the farmer and landowner much as warts and pimples are upon the face. In recent days, scientifically educated cultivators cut them down and sell the fertilizing clay and loam to enrich the adjacent poor and sandy soil. Besides the dime or guilder a load for the stuff sold as fertilizer, the antiquarians discover rich trover. Below the modern surface débris of picnic fragments or animal shards, the spade throws out mediæval relics, and in the lower strata Roman remains of art or use, while in the depths are the stone combs or bone needles of our primitive fathers and mothers. The richest portion of the Frisian Society's report for 1905 tells of the trophies for the museum won from the *terpen*, all older than the ninth or tenth century, in silver, bronze, wood, bone, and earthenware. The gem of the varied collection is a Roman image of Fortune holding in her left hand a horn of plenty. The right arm and hand are perfect, but what she held has been lost. The sclerotica of the eye is of white metal, and the aspect of her countenance seems as lifelike as are the loveliness of her figure and the grace of her drapery. A half-moon is set on her diadem. Two Roman oil flasks were found in the same *terp*. Other articles of metal, such as knives and fibulæ, of Roman origin, ornaments of the Merovingian period, and not a few weapons of the bronze age of 600 B. C., grace the collection of 1905.

The current transactions of the German Asiatic Society of Japan are strong on subjects pertaining to the inner life of the Japanese. Mr. F. Theil gives a digest of the Collection of Old Customs published some years ago in Tokio, which treats of the affairs of the Court of the Shogun and Samurai in Yedo during the eighteenth century—palace and temple architecture, colors of old armor, pictures of costume and dress materials, all amply illustrating, and with much detail, the etiquette of nobles and gentry, from birth to burial. Rev. H. Haas gives the history of, and analyzes into its elements, the Zen, or Contemplative School of Buddhist sects, which in their three great forms have so profoundly and permanently influenced not only the men of thought, but of action, in Japan, since the ninth century. Capt. Schinzingen writes, with graphic illustration also, of Bows and Arrows in Japan. Dr. Oskar Löw shows that by the application of the sulphates and chlorides of manganese to chalky and magnesium soils the crops have in many cases been increased more than one hundred per cent. A paper on the deep-sea fauna of the Sagami coast is by Mr. F. Doflein. Japanese wedding customs (with a bibliography) are discussed under eleven heads by Rev. Martin Ostwald. From "preliminary conditions for a happy marriage" to the after-wedding calls and "recompense of the Go-between" the subject is luminously treated. The Society is in a very flourishing condition.

The recent celebration of the first centennial of the birth of Hans Christian Andersen has caused his native city, Odense, to buy the house in which he was born and to convert it into an Andersen Museum. The work of collecting the materials and

arranging them properly has been entrusted to a local pedagogue, Magister Brix. An exceptionally good collection has already been secured, especially from Copenhagen, and again from the houses of Collin and Malchior, with which Andersen was so intimately connected. A large section consists of letters, manuscripts, portraits, etc. The management publishes the request for contributions to the museum, and hopes to secure not a little from outside of Denmark—from Germany and more particularly from Weimar, where Andersen so often visited.

Prof. Ettore Pais, whose troubles in connection with the Naples Museum have been chronicled in these columns, writes to a correspondent in America that, by a royal decree of last month, he has been appointed to make investigations and journeys for the preparation of an historical and monumental geography of ancient Italy. This must be regarded in the light of some compensation for his dismissal from the Museum. Professor Pais is to retain his professorship at Naples University, but will reside at Rome. During his vacations he plans to revisit America (which he regards as his second home), and lecture here.

The completion of the Nile-Red Sea Railway, which will be formally opened by Lord Cromer at Port Sudan on Saturday, January 27, marks an important stage in the development of Central Africa. Progress in the Sudan since the overthrow of the dervishes has been slow, mainly because of its remoteness from the markets of the world. Khartum is 2,500 miles distant from Alexandria, and foreign freight is transshipped three times before its reaches its destination. Now this place has a direct railway communication of only about 500 miles to the sea, and there can be little doubt that in a few years the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan provinces will export largely of cotton, wheat, rubber, and ebony. The railway leaves the Nile at the junction of the Atbara, and reaches the sea at Port Sudan, 30 miles north of Suakin. It is now proposed to construct another railway due south from this point to Kassala, which will open up a rich country on the frontier of Abyssinia.

The liquor traffic on the West Coast of Africa, now that slavery is abolished, is the worst of the evils that contact with the outer world has inflicted on the natives. But the conditions in Lagos, at least, have so far improved that the capital of the colony is conspicuous for the sobriety of its inhabitants. Lord Lansdowne, in an answer to a memorial signed by the Duke of Westminster, the Bishop of London and other prominent men, recently declared that the total arrests for drunkenness in Lagos, a well-policed town of 40,000 inhabitants and the principal shipping port of the West Coast, during the last three years were 90, or a yearly average of .75 per 1,000. In England the convictions for drunkenness are stated to be 12.60 per 1,000 in seaports and 6.37 in London. As a matter of fact, the consumption of spirits in the colony is not more than one-eighth of what is consumed by some of the nations of Europe. Lord Lansdowne adds that he proposed some months ago to the Belgian Government that a conference of the Powers should be held next summer to consider the revision of the Liquor Traffic Convention of 1899.

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women offers a fellowship of $500 for the year 1906-1907 available for study at an American or European university. As a rule this fellowship is awarded to candidates who have done one or two years of graduate work, preference being given to women from Maryland and the South. Blank forms of application, returnable before April 7, 1906, may be obtained from Miss McLane, 1101 N. Charles Street, or from any member of the Committee on Award.

—To trace the wanderings of Ulysses in fairyland seems to have a rare fascination for men of letters who are strictly neither philologists nor archæologists. Only a few years ago an Englishman published an elaborate argument to prove that Trapani, on the northwest coast of Sicily, was the home of Nausicaa, and further that this charming princess was herself the author of the Odyssey. Two and three years ago, as our readers may remember, a learned Frenchman published in two large and sumptuously illustrated volumes a brilliant discussion of Ulysses's wanderings, in support of his thesis that the Odyssey is only a translation into Greek poetry of the sailing directions of Phœnician mariners. Incidentally, M. Bérard identified Calypso's island, the "navel of the sea," with an islet at the foot of Monkey Mountain, opposite Gibraltar, and placed the home of Nausicaa on the west shore of Corfù. Now another Frenchman, M. Champault ('Phéniciens et Grecs en l'Italie d'après l'Odyssée,' Paris: Leroux), identifies Nausicaa's home, Scheria, with Ischia, at the entrance to the bay of Naples. The process is simple. *Scheria* is declared to be the Greek transcription of Phœnician *I-schra*, 'black,' applied to the island as volcanic; this became *Iscla*, the early documentary form of Ischia. This name seems to have disappeared from view for sixteen centuries after Homer, the author admits, but he thinks it to have been preserved as an obscure local name, to reappear in mediæval times. The stream is admitted to be too small for the bath of Nausicaa and her maids, but these may have bathed in the sea near by. No springs are found on the rock where M. Champault places the palace, but cisterns are there which the poet may have glorified into flowing fountains. Nausicaa's car could not have climbed the citadel, but the poet may have added the convenience of a road to enhance the comfort of the palace. The chief argument for the identification of the site, however, is derived from a "combination." The shipwrecked Ulysses, after escaping from Charybdis, was driven by the waves for nine or ten days, and then reached Calypso's Island; this period is said to have been the Phœnician estimate of the time needed for the voyage by the southern route from the Straits of Messina to those of Gibraltar, and our author places Calypso's home on Gibraltar itself. Now, on his return to Greece, Ulysses on his raft sails west for seventeen days before he sights Scheria, and this time, according to our author, is exactly sufficient to bring a vessel by the northern shore of the Mediterranean from Gibraltar to the bay of Naples, and so to Ischia.

—M. Champault believes that Ischia was the seat of the most important Phœnician colony in the western Mediterranean, and that the Homeric story of the reception of the shipwrecked Ulysses by Nausicaa and the Phœnicians is only a "transparent allegory" for the reception of a colony from Eretria and Chalcis by the earlier Phœnician settlement on Ischia. In fact, "the poem of the return of Ulysses was born on Ischia"; it was an "occasional poem" by a Greek bard, celebrating the hospitality with which his countrymen had been received. Homer was, in truth, the Phæacian bard Demodocus. Scylla, Circe, Polyphemus, and the Læstrygonians are not marvels or supernatural to one who has learned to understand the poet's "conventional anthropomorphism." The goddesses represent queens, and these queens stand for colonies. M. Champault agrees with M. Bérard in his fine contempt for ordinary classical philologists, and expresses this contempt by adopting some interpretations which, by philological standards, are clearly wrong. He follows him also in his general method, and uses much of his material, although as a rule he reaches different conclusions. He criticises him for paying too much attention to topography, and himself gives more space to arguments supplied by social science. We regret to say that in this interesting book of more than six hundred pages, with many acute and suggestive observations, no conclusion of any importance is established.

—Dr. Emil Reich's 'Select Documents Illustrating Mediæval and Modern History' (London: P. S. King & Co.) differs somewhat from the common type of source-book, or, rather, from two varieties. Occasionally an editor gives the text of his document in the original form, even if that form be mediæval Latin, and furnishes for less advanced students either a glossary or a series of notes, or both. This is what Stubbs did in the 'Select Charters.' More frequently, however, the editor of a source-book translates his documents with a view to making them easy reading for beginners. Dr. Reich has neither translated his texts nor furnished them with an apparatus of notes. At the close of his book he has printed what he calls an "Index and Glossary," but as a glossary this contribution is most exiguous. Drawing from a considerable range of languages, he has printed his treaties, bulls, letters, etc., in their original form (save for a good many contractions), placing before each a few remarks regarding the document as a whole and a short bibliographical note. By way of justification for the method he has adopted, Dr. Reich says in his introduction: "Had all the documents been given in English, not only would the task of the compiler have been infinitely greater, but he would also have seriously damaged the value of the book." To support the last statement it is pointed out that the meaning of terms such as *terra, dominus, colonus, ingenuus,* and *servus* varies constantly in different countries and at different times. Even men like "Prof. Maitland in England, Below in Germany, or Del Giudice in Italy, have repeatedly expressed their inability to render adequately the true sense of a given term in a mediæval document." The pieces which Dr. Reich has brought together are

well chosen, and it was well worth while to put so many important texts into a single volume, but we hardly think that the reason just adduced is sufficient to excuse an editor from the task of adding notes, where so many are really needed to elucidate for most readers the more obscure or essential portions of the document. Speaking broadly, Dr. Reich seems to have shown more skill in his choice of both subjects and illustrations than care in the manner of presenting his valuable materials. That the name of Prof. Morse Stephens should more than once be spelled with a hyphen, and that the 'Narrative and Critical History of America' should be credited to "M. Winsor" need not be called damning facts, but in other respects it would not be impossible to show how more pains might advantageously have been taken. By way of outlining the arrangement of contents, we may say that the book falls into nineteen parts. First come international treaties, church history, and general institutions of the Middle Ages, occupying altogether about two-fifths of the volume. The rest of the space is devoted to the following States: the Byzantine Empire, the Holy Roman Empire, the Italian cities, France, England, Germany, Holland, Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Turkey, Russia, and America. As we have said before, good judgment has been shown in the work of selection, and for this reason the book will be found a very convenient repertory of sources.

—Dr. Gottfried Zedler presents, in the new volume of the *Veröffentlichungen* of the Gutenberg-Gesellschaft, a detailed study of the Catholicon of 1460, and the other smaller works printed with the same type. It is the first systematic investigation of the typography of this work, and stands worthily by the side of Dziatzko's and Schwenke's similar studies of the 36- and 42-line Bibles. Schwenke had, in his investigations of the latter work, come to conclusions which led him to disclaim Gutenberg as the printer of the Catholicon. He based his opinion entirely on technical grounds, dismissing with a word the testimony of the famous colophon. Zedler had already, in his 'Gutenberg-Forschungen' (1901), pointed out that the mere comparison of a couple of isolated details of typographical technique did not suffice to determine the question; at that time, however, he based his dissent exclusively on the colophon. A closer study of the typography of the book, and a comparison of it with that of other early productions of the Mainz presses, have confirmed him in his view. He finds here the same watchful care as in the case of the 42-line Bible, the same striving to imitate the current handwriting, only that the printer has used an entirely different pattern. What the inventor of typographical printing aimed at was to create something that could take the place of manuscript, and he would naturally be bent on making his types resemble handwriting as much as possible, and as appropriately as possible. In the Bible types he would imitate the large and complicated system of writing used by the monkish scribes in missals and other huge works for church use; similarly, he would make the type for Johannes Balbus's grammar and glossary resemble the more ordinary book script in vogue at the time. Other printers would not have the same delicate feeling for the manuscript tradition. No comparison is here made between the various productions of the early presses in Mainz; the space at the author's disposal made some retrenchment necessary. This part of his investigations will appear separately in a short time. A textual comparison of the productions of the Bechtermünze press in Eltville, also belonging to this investigation, has in the meantime been printed in the December number of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*.

—The close connection of Gutenberg's types with the handwriting of his time is shown in detail in Heinrich Wallau's address, "Gutenberg: Techniker und Künstler," which was delivered at the annual meeting of the Gutenberg-Gesellschaft last summer, and printed in its fourth annual report. Herr Wallau lays stress on the fact that, while much of Gutenberg's labor undoubtedly had to do with the perfecting of ink and press, the chief matter of his invention was, technically, movable types, and, æsthetically, "the imitation of the handwritten letter forms, *i. e.*, their transformation into forms which on the one hand could be multiplied by casting, on the other hand strive to attain the highly developed beauty of manuscript." This address, short as it is, is of great importance because it brings together within small compass the results of the latest investigations into the technique of the earliest productions of the printing-press. Wallau here takes the opportunity to refute emphatically the notion that the invention of printing owed anything to the earlier art of woodcutting. There can be no connection between these two arts. Gutenberg was a goldsmith, metal-worker, and stone-carver; his invention was technically based on work in metal.

—That much edited and somewhat overestimated "classic," Buffon's so-called 'Discours sur le Style,' continues to exercise the ingenuity of petty annotators in the French lycées. One marvels how they see room for successive improvement in the critical apparatus on so brief and simple an address. Yet the best edition seems to be the latest, by René Nollet (Paris: Hachette), a tasteful booklet provided with the inevitable introduction and notes, and with an appendix. The appendix is useful: it shows Buffon's characteristic method of revision in the 'Discours' itself; it contains also a fragment by the same author 'Sur l'Art d'écrire,' as well as extracts from other addresses bearing upon his theory of composition. Either this edition or that by Félix Hémon (Paris: Delagrave, 1894) ought to supplant in this country the antiquated French edition by Rondelet mentioned in Gayley and Scott's 'Literary Criticism,' and hence familiar by name at least to many of our teachers. Current opinion here on the exact form of Buffon's celebrated epigram, "'The style is the man," likewise needs renovation. In spite of G. H. Lewes in 'The Principles of Success,' etc., and Messrs. Gayley and Scott in the work just cited, and Mr. Shepherd in *Modern Language Notes* for June, 1890, we may, following M. Nollet's text and comment (p. 22), still quote Buffon as saying, 'Le style est l'homme même," and regard the form, "Le style est *de* l'homme même," which appeared in certain of the earlier versions of his 'Discours,' as a variant, but not the preferable reading.

AN ENGLISH "SET" OF THE LAST GENERATION.

Mrs. Brookfield and her Circle. By Charles and Frances Brookfield. In two volumes. Vol. I., 1809-1847; Vol. II., 1848-1874. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

This is one of those gossiping "books about people," which have of late years become so frequent on both sides of the Atlantic. Such books generally take the form of "Reminiscences," in which men or women over sixty years of age recount to a public apparently incapable of satiety the incidents of their earlier life, seasoned with anecdotes bearing on the more notable persons whom they may have seen in the street, or met in a drawing-room, or perhaps even spoken to. The thing is beginning to be overdone, because the authors have often had no special opportunities for knowing really interesting people, or because they lack the faculty of describing and making real to us the interesting people whom they did know. Still, it is plain that the book clubs like such books, for the supply does not diminish. In the present instance the form is not that of personal recollections, but of a collection of letters (with bits of diary interspersed) written to (or in some cases by) the hero and heroine of the book, who form the centre of the "circle." This is better than the reminiscential method, because we get into touch with persons who do still possess some interest for our own time; and the letters frequently contain gossip about other figures of their generation who are more interesting than the letter-writers themselves. It is really in these letters that the claim of the book to be here noticed lies, for the connecting paragraphs and the descriptions of the principal personages which come from the pens of the two compilers, are done in a somewhat loose and careless fashion, which shows itself even in the numerous misprints or misspellings of proper names we encounter.

Mrs. Brookfield, whose name is given to the book, was Jane Octavia Elton, eighth daughter of Sir Charles Elton of Clevedon Court, Somersetshire. His sister Julia married Henry Hallam, the historian, and became the mother of Tennyson's bosom friend, Arthur Henry Hallam, whose early death gave cause for the group of poems which all the world knows as 'In Memoriam.' Miss Elton was thus Arthur Hallam's first cousin, and intimate with most of those, many of them afterwards eminent, who were bound together by their affection for him. In 1841 she married William Henry Brookfield, the son of a lawyer practising at Sheffield in Yorkshire. He had been the fellow-student at Trinity College, Cambridge, of a number of brilliant men, who formed, perhaps, the most remarkable group that had ever lived together as friends at any English university. Preëminent among them were Alfred Tennyson, then already famous among his contemporaries, and W. M. Thackeray, whose reputation came later. But there were also James Spedding, the best of all those who have written on Bacon; Richard Trench, afterwards Archbishop

of Dublin; Monckton Milnes, the poet and politician, who became Lord Houghton; A. W. Kinglake, the historian of the Crimean war; Franklin and Edmund Lushington, one a poet, the other one of the first Greek scholars and Egyptologists of his day; Charles Buller, whose early death cut short a public career of wonderful promise; Henry Taylor, the author of 'Philip van Artevelde'; W. H. Thompson, afterwards Master of Trinity College; and G. S. Venables, one of the leading journalists and most conspicuous social figures in the London of forty years ago—not to mention others whose names are now less familiar. Brookfield, who had considerable wit and a dramatic gift which would have made his fortune on the stage, was a favorite with the rest of the set; and the set continued to hold together through later life. Its last surviving members passed away in the closing years of the nineteenth century. Brookfield himself died in 1874 and his wife in 1894.

It is chiefly with this group of men that these two volumes are concerned. But some of their friends also come in, and chief among them Thomas Carlyle and his wife, our curiosity regarding whom, notwithstanding (and perhaps all the more because of) all that Froude and others have written, remains unexhausted. There appears also Lady Ashburton, of whom so much is said in the letters of both the Carlyles, and who was the most brilliant hostess of her time. Here is a passage about the two ladies:

"Lady Ashburton this Christmas consulted Mrs. Brookfield as to what would be most useful to give to Mrs. Carlyle as a gift from the Christmas tree (this fashion was just appearing in 1855), and a silk dress was finally decided upon; but this present seems to have angered Mrs. C. She would not take it; she vowed she was being insulted, and Lady Ashburton was at last forced to seek her in her room and assure her with tears in her eyes she had not meant to offend. . . . Mrs. Carlyle was very slight, neat, erect in figure, animated in expression, with very good eyes and teeth, but with no pretension to beauty. She used to remain in her room during the early part of the day while her husband took his walks, accompanied by his admirers. When she did appear, she was always taken especial care of by Lady Ashburton, and she expected and was conceded a certain prominence amongst the many other visitors of more or less distinction in that delightful house. Mrs. Carlyle's instinct was always to take the lead at the Grange [Lady A.'s house]. This was not easy, for the grandeur and brilliancy of our hostess, who, according to Mrs. Twistleton, 'scattered pearls and diamonds whenever she spoke,' made her the first interest and attraction to all around her. In conversation, clever and amusing as she often was, Mrs. Carlyle had the fatal propensity of telling her stories at extraordinary length. With her Scotch accent and her perseverance in finishing off every detail, those who were not devotees but merely acquaintances sometimes longed for an abridgment, and perhaps also to have their own turn in the conversation" (vol. ii., pp. 426-7).

There are some good letters of Mrs. Carlyle's, and some characteristic anecdotes about her husband. Here is one, in which two other distinguished persons figure:

"A. Tennyson arrived at Lady Ashburton's, and next day came the first copy of his new poem, 'Maud,' which he promised to read aloud to us. But Carlyle, who was among the guests, could not endure to listen to any one reading aloud—not even to Alfred Tennyson. C. was accustomed to take an early walk daily and to be accompanied by an appreciative companion. What was to be done? All the visitors presumably wished to listen to Tennyson's delightful reading. Lord and Lady Ashburton were kept waiting; chairs had been arranged in a quiet sitting-room; the visitors were taking their places. Alfred was ready. So was Carlyle—in the hall—waiting for a companion in his walk and evidently determined not to stir without one. It was an anxious moment. Each of us wondered which would volunteer, like Quintus Curtius, to leap into the gulf. At length Mr. Goldwin Smith generously stepped forward and joined the Philosopher, and then William [Brookfield] joined them both, while the rest of us remained enthralled to listen to the new words of the Poet" (vol. ii., p. 429).

Another of Samuel Rogers (in his old age):

"Rogers, though now drawing to the end of a long and well-amused life, was still to be seen out, and found pleasure in receiving the selected few at his own house. Mrs. Brookfield was standing by him one day, when a lady came up and said, 'You remember me, Mr. Rogers?' 'Perfectly,' he replied at once. 'Who could ever forget you?' Then in an equally loud voice he asked Mrs. Brookfield, 'Who is she? Never met her before in my life' " (vol. ii., p. 499).

Of Thackeray, who was a devoted friend to both the Brookfields:

"He could not help pouring out about him unmeasured draughts of splendid affection, giving copious return for all that was bestowed upon him. Singularly simple, humble in matters concerning himself, he paid high homage to his intimates, and fitted them all most generously with laurels and with halos. And he often went out of his way to soothe wounds given to them by rougher spirits, always assuming this to be but part of his daily task. He was in all things grand and stanch and faithful. When, not long before his end, he was asked by his daughter which of his friends he had loved the most, he answered, 'Why, dear old Fitz [Edward FitzGerald], to be sure—and Brookfield' " (vol. ii., p. 503).

A dictum of a great lady of her time regarding Mrs. Norton, once a famous figure in English society, reads: "The late Duchess of Sutherland said of Mrs. Norton, 'She is so nice, what a pity she is not quite nice, for if she were quite nice, she would be so *very* nice' " (vol. ii., p. 525). And here is an extract from a letter of Thackeray's, with a reference to another, now nearly forgotten, novelist:

"I haven't the courage to pay the postage for so much rubbish. Isn't it curious that a gentleman [himself] of such expensive habits should have this meanness about paper and postage? The best is that I have spent three francs in cab hire, hunting for the man who was to carry my two-franc letter. The follies of men are ceaseless, even of comic authors who make it their business to laugh at the follies of all the rest of the world. . . . Harrison Ainsworth is here [in Paris]; we dined next each other at the 3 Frères yesterday, and rather fraternized. He showed a friendly disposition, I thought, and a desire to forgive me my success, but, beyond a good-humored acquiescence in his good will, I don't care" (vol. ii., p. 296).

Here is one of Mr. Brookfield's experiences as an Inspector of Schools:

"To one little boy, whom I asked, like the rest, to write impromptu on his slate about whatever object I might mention to him, I had, perhaps somewhat imprudently, proposhed a race horse. He gave up his slate inscribed with very good writing and spelling, as follows:

" 'The race horse is a noble animal, used very cruel by gentlemen. Races are very bad places. None but wicked people know anything about races. The last Derby was won by Mr. I'Anson's Blinkbonny, a beautiful filly by Melbourne, rising four. The odds were twenty to one against her; thirty started, and she won only by a neck.'

"I handed this dissertation to one of the school managers. He returned it to me with a perplexed look, saying: 'I am very sorry, indeed, for this. He was always a very good little boy *till now*.' I found that he was the son of an honest and industrious groom; and, notwithstanding the ominous 'till now,' the intelligent and amiable appearance of the child, and the good character I heard of him, give color to the hope that he may yet escape the treadmill" (vol. ii., pp. 464-5).

It is only by thus sampling the anecdotes in this book that a notion of its contents can be conveyed. It is much too long; all the things really worth telling and all the good letters could have been easily put into one of the volumes. Still, for those who enjoy gossip, there is a good deal of entertainment. Mr. Brookfield, who is commemorated in a little poem of Tennyson's, was a man of remarkable social gifts. Fate rather than choice made him a clergyman, and he won some distinction as a preacher. Nature had meant him to be an actor or reciter. His recitations of Shakspere were admirable. His wife was tall and handsome, with a soothing voice and a winning manner. Though her novels show no marked ability and are now quite forgotten, her intelligence and her pleasant ways fitted her to be what is called "a social centre," and gained for her the devotion of many friends. Besides those already named, Barry Cornwall (Mr. Procter), whose verses were once very popular, and his able wife and his poetic daughter Adelaide, Charles Dickens, Lady Duff Gordon, Charles Collins, Richard Doyle, Samuel Wilberforce (then Bishop of Oxford), William Vernon Harcourt, Lord Lyttelton, and Mrs. Cameron, who made a new departure (then much talked of) in amateur photography, flit through these pages. There are sidelights on the fashions of thinking and talking in the "middle Victorian" period; and now and then some anecdote, too slight for a formal biography, brings out a trait in the character of a person whose memory deserves to survive.

THE BODY OF OTTOMAN LAW.

Corps de Droit Ottoman: Recuell des Codes, Lois, Réglements, Ordonnances et Actes les plus importants du Droit Intérieur, et d'Études sur le Droit Coutumier de l'Empire Ottoman. Par George Young, 2me Secrétaire de l'Ambassade d'Angleterre. Vols. I., II., III.: pp. xxiv., 346, vi., 412, iv., 416. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

These volumes form the first half of a great corpus of Ottoman law, to be completed with a second part of four more. It will then be one of the most unique books in existence: a necessary hand-book for the daily use of every merchant or resident in the Levant; a source of the first rank for the historian of modern Turkey; a fund of perpetual enlightenment, entertainment, and astonishment for the scientific student of law; a master-key to a good half of the events, day by day, of the hither East for the publicist; a long-desired sequel and complement of his knowledge of Muslim jurisprudence for the Orientalist; finally, a readable, yet studiable, view of the state of legal and national topsy-turvydom, of bewildered strivings and blind driftings whose like has probably never existed for all to whom nothing human is alien, and who can

pass through the phrases of law to the sense of tears and of laughter in human things. The melancholy moralist might find here, too, his prey, even behind formalities, decrees, ceremonials. The inexorable fate which we now call the law of development, traces in these pages inevitable consequences. The Ottoman may struggle, forwards or backwards; the past remains—the fetters he, in contempt and carelessness, himself for himself, forged—and it is unyielding. Out of the simplicity which he would, has arisen a complication which he cannot master; and the contemptuous tolerance of the past avenges itself in the multitudinous restrictions of the present. If, without apparent scheme or plan, the English Constitution and the English law have muddled through to a practical perfection, the same things in Turkey, moving with a similar aimlessness, have become only thrice confounded. And the reason is plain enough. In the one case, a single idea, living and germinating, has developed in steady adaptation to the facts of life; in the other, a slothful and short-sighted dualism has reigned from the first. Therein, it is true, lies the picturesqueness of this book. Against the happiness of the land without history can be balanced the unhappiness of one whose law-books are too full of color and interest. Or the case is even worse. History may be effaced and forgotten, but law speaks for the conflicts of the present.

And yet, how monistic—if it be lawful to apply the terms of philosophy to ordinary life—was the first conception. The people of Muhammad, as it formed itself in the minds of the first Muslim rulers and jurists, was to be an elaborate unity. State and Church, theology and law, conduct and morals, were to be but phases of the life of an undivided organism. As Muhammad had been ruler, judge, creed-maker, and pattern for his people, so that people was to be for itself in the centuries to come. A New England township, in its uncorrupted days, is the nearest Western parallel, but incomplete enough. How the pursuit of that ideal slackened and failed, this is not the place to tell. The ideal itself remained and forms the democratic consciousness of Islam to this day, but rival dynasties and conflicting theologians and lawyers shattered its actuality within less than a generation. One element, however, survived and rounded itself to technical perfection—in part, of the most intimate life of the people; and, in part, a dream of unreconciled churchmen. This was the system of law—in its essence a system of canon law, because theological in basis and covering all the sides of life. The sources of that system of law were five: the Qur'an; the usage of Muhammad—*i. e.*, what he said and did as judge, as theologian, or simply as a man, in the ordinary events and vicissitudes of life; analogy from these; the agreement of the Muslim people. With these was built up an elaborate structure forming a complete guide to a man's duty under all contingencies, to God, to other men, and to himself, and including, in consequence, what we should call codes of civil and criminal law. The presupposition—one never fulfilled, except partially as regards Arabia—was that the Muslim land and state would contain only Muslims. The only account taken of non-Muslims is in the sections on the sacred war against them. The contrast is complete. All conduct for Muslims was regulated, and nothing applied to non-Muslims except the sword or tribute.

Such a system could not but break down. An elaborately deduced code of law and usage suited to the tribes of Arabia could not be made to apply to conditions stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from Russia to southern India and central Africa. Nor could relations with non-Muslims, either subjects or travellers or resident aliens, be summed for long under the sword or tribute. So while this system maintained its position as a code of canon law, and regulated such matters as marriage, divorce, and inheritance, it was everywhere pushed aside in matters of the world between man and man, and still more between Muslim and non-Muslim. There remained ecclesiastical courts applying its rules and decisions in those limited spheres, but beside them there grew up secular courts, following the usage of each country—its common law—and the will of each ruler. This met one side of the difficulty; but the non-Muslims still remained. These consisted, in great part, of communities whose "differentia" was religion, organized more or less closely under heads—Patriarchs, Bishops, Chief Rabbis, etc.—administering through ecclesiastical courts. It was very simple, then, to give these bodies practical autonomy, and make them responsible for their own affairs through their religious organizations. The analogy of the Muslim ecclesiastical courts lay near, and, above all, it saved the state a great deal of trouble. In this way, too, they were kept outside of the Muslim ring-fence, were not recognized as co-subjects or citizens, as the case might be, and yet were kept quiet. That it perpetuated the schism in the body of the population, and made impossible the development of a uniform state with equal standing, rights, and duties for all, was evidently never considered. Yet when the courts of canon law were pushed aside, and those of local usage took their place, a great unifying opportunity had been lost.

So it was, too, with foreign merchants and resident aliens. With the tendency of the Oriental to accept guilds, unions, and fraternities as the unit of government, resident merchants were left to the control of their own business organizations, and, in case of trouble between a Muslim and a foreign merchant, the head of the organization or the ambassador of the foreign Power would be called into court as an assessor. The European Powers have known how to limit this extra-territoriality down to the person and household of the ambassador, but the Muslim East has extended it practically to cover all foreigners, and thus has aided the slothfulness of the Muslim courts. The Western Powers, too, whenever they found how careless Muslims were in guarding their own sovereignty, executed treaties putting this usage on a fixed basis. These were (and are) the Capitulations, which have come to form a part of the organic law of all Muslim States. By these, the sovereignty and freedom of action of the native governments are limited to a degree hardly credible. The native non-Muslim communities may have their rights by usage roughly invaded at any time, but the foreign settlements are in other case. They are protected by these formal treaties, and the European missions unite to resist encroachment.

All these courts, then, and systems of law exist in Turkey and are described in the present treatise. The scope and privileges of the canon law and its courts have been wofully reduced, but these institutions themselves continue to exist in complete organization. To them the pious look as rendering the only true Muslim law; with the Mahdi and the millennium which he will bring, these will again rule supreme.

Next come the normal courts of the land, administering a system of law modelled on the Code Napoléon and based on Turkish usage and the decrees of the sovereign. Next, the different privileged communities—a bewildering array of ecclesiastical organizations, giving a view of the religious history of the nearer East and of the Balkans since the Christian era—have each a constitution, internal autonomy and courts for the rendering of justice among their members. For foreigners, further, there are their consular courts, possessing absolute authority, even of calling Turkish witnesses, based on the Capitulations. But questions must also arise between Turks and foreigners, and between peoples of differing nationalities. For these there are the mixed tribunals, or international courts. The further complications in the Turkish courts themselves, civil, criminal and commercial, are due to successive attempts at reform. There are also some local autonomies and jurisdictions. The principality of Samos, for example, administers a code fundamentally Byzantine, with the right of local legislation. Curiously enough, its courts contest the claim of extra-territoriality which the Ottoman Empire, its suzerain, is compelled to admit. The Lebanon, too, has a similar practical autonomy.

Naturally, all this means much friction. The Porte is perfectly conscious that the situation produced by the Capitulations is an impossible one for any self-respecting State. Even the little isle of Samos will not have it. In consequence, with every reform, whether paper or real, the attempt is made to limit the jurisdiction of the consular or the mixed courts. Then the embassies come into play, and at intervals in these volumes we read "les Missions n'ayant pas accepté" whatever it may be. Europe, of course, does not mind this; any method of keeping Turkey in order is good. But when the English Government in Egypt meets the same situation, and discovers that the very necessary policing of certain districts in Cairo is made impossible, and that it may need three consuls and their staffs to legally raid a joint in the Cairene Tenderloin, the effects of mediæval treaties on municipal and other government have another aspect. It is true that the goose and the gander here are of very different flavor and toughness.

For the method on which Mr. Young has carried out his gigantic task, there can be little but praise. On his own ground—the Ottoman codes as they are to-day, with their history—he is probably untouchable. His Arabic is less certain, and his views of the early history of the canon law. The identification (ii. 161) of the rites of the Mandæans with those "de la secte protestante anglaise des 'Baptists'" is possibly a joke. But the mass of materials which he has here collected, the intelligence and historical sense with which he has introduced and annotated them, the laborious care which he has given to their completeness, introducing documents bearing dates up to the

beginning of last year, and indicating exactly the present state of contested questions, and the accuracy with which the enormous burden of the proof-reading has been carried out, have earned for him the gratitude tenfold of all interested in Turkish affairs. For details there can be no space here, but one remark may not be out of place before passing from this atmosphere of multitudinous law. The trouble about the excellent labors of Mr. Young is that they deal with a paper subject, and that the realities have therewith only a somewhat detached connection. To balance these beautiful systems and to approximate to the actual facts, the student should carefully combine with these volumes such a book as 'Turkey in Europe' by "Odysseus." The process will be almost as violent and the result almost as queer as in the article on Chinese metaphysics, about which Mr. Pickwick was told; but they will be decidedly more informing, and will really approximate to the state of the case.

ECHOES OF THE WAR IN THE EAST.

The Reshaping of the Far East. By B. L. Putnam Weale. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. 1905.

A Staff-Officer's Scrap-Book during the Russo-Japanese War. By Lieut.-Gen. Sir Ian Hamilton. London: Arnold. 1905.

The War in the Far East. By the Military Correspondent of the [London] *Times*, Dutton. 1905.

The Russo-Japanese war is fast becoming past politics and assuming historical shape. A review of the three interesting books before us may serve to bring out certain salient facts, now fairly established, as to both the military and the political side of the great event whose close was marked, not so very many weeks ago, by the treaty of Portsmouth.

First, as to things military. The reasons for the Japanese successes may now be summed up pretty accurately, and so can the undoubted weaknesses that their army developed. The greatest factor of victory was the morale of the rank and file, though even that has been exaggerated. Before the battle of the Yalu there was, as Sir Ian Hamilton brings out, just a shadow of a doubt among many of the Japanese whether, when it came to the crisis, the European would not, after all, prove more than the equal of the Asiatic. Such is the power of prestige. After the Yalu there was a visible increase of confidence in the troops, yet even then it is a gross exaggeration to think of the Japanese as having displayed a quality for which the fit epithet is fanaticism. The Guards division with Kuroki's army was brought to a dead stop at Yoshirei by the Siberian riflemen under circumstances that would have been perfectly normal in European warfare; and, without in any way detracting from the splendid Japanese infantry, it does not appear that the losses they were prepared to encounter were notably dissimilar to those faced at Waterloo or Eylau, at Antietam or Chickamauga, at Vionville or Plevna. There was a high morale, with a fierce fighting spirit based on the intense national hatred of Russia, and this was turned to account by a remarkable staff organization.

And here we come to the second great factor. An old and generally accepted saying is that councils of war never fight; the Japanese have been the exception to prove the rule. Under the instruction of Major-Gen. Meckel of the German army, they have since 1885 constructed a great staff corps resembling that of Germany in many particulars, and in none more strikingly than in the unity of impulse with which it acts. It was this unity of impulse, combined with the national fervor of the moment, that inspired the methodical and somewhat slow offensive of the Japanese armies. Every forward move, every battle, was apparently the result of extensive deliberations, and never the spontaneous flash of judgment springing from the brain of one commander. Not that the generals lacked ability. Oyama's cool if deliberate judgment, his perfect courage, deserve the largest recognition. But essentially the war was conducted by a staff and not by a general-in-chief, and Japan will have to see to it that in the future her armies do not meet a great general, and that her staff is kept right up to its present remarkable level of professional skill, combined with patriotic enthusiasm.

In respect of her artillery and cavalry, Japan was apparently less formidable. The artillery was inferior to that of the Russians and badly horsed. Only the superior skill of officers and men, and the many captures of the battlefield, enabled the Japanese to hold their own in this respect. As to the cavalry, the least said the better. Their numbers were ridiculously small, and no attempt appears to have been made to employ them in masses. Let the Japanese staff turn away from the defective German cavalry traditions, and study Lee's move from the Wilderness to Spottsylvania, or Grant's from Petersburg to Appomattox, and they will find there a leaf of the art of war they are as yet unacquainted with.

We have less reliable information from the Russian side. It is clear that the officers failed while the men maintained the traditions of the Russian soldier. The infantry fought bravely and stubbornly, and some corps, especially the Siberian rifle regiments, fought well. The artillery was excellent as to material, and far from deficient in skill. As with the Japanese, but for different reasons, the cavalry was the greatest disappointment. Numbers were not wanting, but stupidity reigned supreme. The wretched exhibition of the Cossacks is especially noteworthy, and it appears doubtful if the horseman of the steppes can, in the nature of things, be taught the lesson that the Boer never requires to learn. With the Boer the horse is accessory to the rifle; with the Cossack the horse is everything. The exposure of the Cossack fiction must be a great relief to the German General Staff.

The successes of Japan have profoundly stirred the East and especially China. A remarkably interesting chapter in Mr. Weale's book gives figures and facts as to Chinese army reorganization that will surprise most readers. They leave it perfectly clear that China is already in possession of a modern army large enough to protect her from the attack of any Power operating over sea, and that it is hardly more than a matter of months before she will be able to match the numbers of Japan or Russia in Mantchuria. That is a remarkable fact, and it is clear that no statesman with the slightest foresight should attempt from this day to treat China except as an equal Power. In a very few years she may be the greatest Power in the world.

It is on this last point that Mr. Weale's excellent book is perhaps least satisfactory. He has nothing but contempt for the traditional benevolence of our policy toward China, he has no words of reprobation too strong for the nationalities that have of late energetically attempted to force their way into the trade zone so long monopolized by England; yet when it comes to England's opium trade, his indignation falls, and all he has to say is that the Chinese laborer works hard enough to throw off the ill effects of the drug. In other words, Mr. Weale approaches the Chinese question from a stricter insular point of view. Yet his book may be hightly recommended. He knows China well. He discusses the relations of China, Korea, Japan, and Russia in readable and instructive fashion, and his illustrations are both numerous and uncommonly good. Three chapters of his second volume deal with the war, and are much below his standard, owing to an obvious lack of knowledge of things military. His account of the circumstances attending the sinking of the *Variag* is especially misleading, and his strictures on Admiral Uriu unmerited. That officer was not relieved of the command of the Fourth Squadron, and he led it in the actions against the Vladivostok fleet and in the battle of Tsushima. Mr. Weale is addicted to Gallicisms such as "functioning," "complots," and "triplicate"—this last for the Triple Alliance. Some of his forecasts have been falsified since he sent his book to the press. But, all reserves made, there is nothing better on the Far Eastern question as it stands at this moment.

The London *Times* published some reports on the war, as it progressed, that could hardly be surpassed for excellence. They are now in part pieced together and published as a history of the war. In this latter guise they are not satisfactory, and prove once more, if proof were needed, that newspaper reports will never make good history. A comparison of the *Times's* account of the battle of the Yalu with that given by Sir Ian Hamilton, for example, demonstrates the gulf that separates the truth from what can be at the best only the approximate truth. It must, however, be added that, even as it is, this book contains many remarks on matters of strategy and military science that are of permanent value.

Of these three books, by far the most attractive for its personal or literary quality is that of Sir Ian Hamilton. It represents the English intellect at its best, for here we find a highly trained specialist who is also a man of wide education, a soldier, a man of the world, and a man of culture in one. Sir Ian evidently became highly popular at the Japanese headquarters, and obtained much technical information not generally accessible. His 'Scrap-Book' is not only valuable for this reason, but delightful for the personality of the writer. He views questions of war and peace on a very broad and original basis, as witness the following quotation:

"Why—there is material in the north of India and in Nepaul sufficient and fit, under good leadership, to shake the artificial society of Europe to its foundations if once it dares tamper with that militarism which now alone supplies it with any higher ideal than money and the luxury which that

money can purchase. . . . It is heroism, self-sacrifice, and chivalry which redeem war and build up national character. What play do these heroic qualities find in the ignoble struggle between nations for commercial supremacy, with stock exchanges and wheat pits for their battle-fields?"

In conclusion, let us not err in the direction of underestimating the great change that is now fast spreading over Asia. It may be that time will justify the underlying assumption of such English publicists as Mr. Weale, Dr. Morrison, and Mr. Ireland, and prove that the Asiatic is inherently inferior to the Caucasian. But it will certainly be wiser for the present that we should support their criticisms of American policy with equanimity and assume that China is capable of attaining within a very few years a rank of equality among the nations. When that equality comes, it will be better that China should associate our country with a policy of good will than with one of bullying.

Borgia: A Period Play. London: A. H. Bullen. 1905.

The splendid and tragic history of the House of Borgia has been a constant attraction to dramatists and novelists, but has never received satisfactory treatment until now. One reason is that, until the appearance of the remarkable drama before us, it has never been attempted in a sufficiently serious spirit. Lee thought only of filling the theatre, and Cossa of satirising the Temporal Power. The picture of unredeemed villany which these dramatists exhibit, even had it been in accordance with the truth of history, is inconsistent with the conflict of passions and the interfusion of light and shade required by the canons of tragedy. Fortunately for the artist, no less than for the historian, modern investigation, without bereaving the Borgias of their picturesqueness, has brought them within the sphere of ordinary humanity, and shown them not as exceptional portents, but as actual representatives of the general spirit of their epoch. This has been thoroughly comprehended by the anonymous author of our tragedy, in whose pages the Renaissance lives again, with all the beauty of artistic environment and freedom of thought and action that renders it so attractive on one side, and all the political and social immorality that makes it sinister and repulsive on the other.

Another difficulty in the way of the Borgian dramatist is that of finding a passage in the family history which, however suitable for stage treatment, is not too limited and partial for historical painting on an ample scale. The murder of the Duke of Gandia and the fall of Cæsar Borgia are highly dramatic incidents, but the former is a mere episode, and the latter a mere catastrophe. The author of "Borgia" has avoided this difficulty by (as designedly expressed by the phrase "A Period Play") renouncing all idea of stage representation and constructing the drama on the model of Shakspere's historical plays, dealing with a series of events extending over ten years, and so arranged as to include all the most picturesque incidents in the chronicles of the House of Borgia. It is, consequently, as an English critic has remarked, rather a pageant than a tragedy, but a most gorgeous pageant. From the Pope down to the waterman, every class of contemporary Italian society is represented, and each personage appears in appropriate costume and glowing with the rich color of the time. The illusion is perfect; we seem to be living in the Renaissance epoch, seeing with its eyes and judging with its brain. The effect is even aided by some phrases and modes of thinking which in a modern writer might appear odd and crude, but are quite in keeping with the spirit of the period.

The general effect is to make Alexander and his children more intelligible and nearer to ordinary humanity than historians have until recently been able to represent them. This is not attained without some prejudice to the eloquence which the theme might appear to invite. There are few set speeches. The characters speak briefly and to the point, but their diction is suffused with imagination, ever and anon bursting forth in a flash of poetry, such as this instantaneous photograph of the

"Still Spanish boy,
His black hair shining and his ears with edges
Of the clear ruddiness of pomegranates,
The light of sunset is so shed on him."

Or in a weighty saying like this:

"History
Is life and death, and never resurrection."

Or in Michelotto's pithy simile on Cæsar's apparent torpor ere, in Macauiay's phrase, "he caught his treacherous condottieri in one snare and crushed them at one blow":

"Such air a dragon sleeps in."

Or in Alexander's exultation at the triumph of his son:

"Our Duke knelt down;
He took the emblem, took the hand and kissed
The foot of Christ's vicegerent; then together
We stood erect and he advanced; for once
He went before me—that was joy!—before me,
The Rose in his right hand, the hovering Dove
On his beretta, with its fretted rays,
A nimbus round him from the monster pearls,
And he before me like a star of heaven!"

His inordinate family affection, passionate to the verge of insanity, is the dominant feature of Alexander's character throughout. It has abundant historical justification, but the very skill and thoroughness with which it is worked out inevitably falsify the representation of the character as a whole. Of the doting parent we have a masterly portrait; of the statesman and ruler, unfathomable in craft and endowed with tremendous driving power, we hardly obtain a glimpse. It remains for some future novelist or dramatist to depict the Spanish Pope on this side, and to solve the difficult problem of representing utter worthlessness and unscrupulousness in policy allied with exuberant geniality in private life. Neither Cæsar nor Lucretia is a complex character. Save for the hinted imputation of offences on Lucrezia's part, of which impartial history acquits her, both appear to be represented as they actually were. Cæsar's callous egotism makes an effective foil to his father's fondness; while his energy and audacity extort involuntary admiration. The subordination of political to private interests obscures the divine irony of Cæsar's career. He thought himself most astute when, after employing his agents to commit all necessary crimes, he requited them with the scaffold; and never suspected that Providence was dealing in the same manner with himself.

Arizona Sketches. By Joseph A. Munk, M.D. New York: The Grafton Press. 1905.

This is a good example of a new type of book in which the literary element is subordinate to the pictorial. Nearly every other page contains two excellent reproductions of well-made kodak pictures, and Dr. Munk evidently follows the example of lecturers who, having a collection of slides, accommodate their address to the exigencies of their illustrations, for he describes only those phases of Arizona life and scenery of which he has been able to snap off good pictures. These, however, are so excellent and well selected (so far as they go) that a glance through his pages will convey a better and truer impression of cattle ranching, of the grotesque vegetation of the Arizona desert, of the famous Meteoric Mountain and its supposed crater, and of some of Arizona's characteristic scenery, than most writers can convey with the pen. But the book gives in no sense, nor does it profess to impart, a complete description of Arizona and its products—it omits, for instance, all reference to its most prominent industry, namely, mining; nor does it pictorially display the rapid growth of some of its new mining towns. These are the best and most striking features of the progress of the Southwest.

Arizona, in popular estimation, is the land of romance, rowdyism, and exaggeration, and in the past it deserved its bad character. As farming drove cattle-ranching westward from Texas and through New Mexico into Arizona, that most picturesque but reckless group of frontiersmen, the Texas cowboys, and the Indians, between them, some twenty years ago, made life strenuous, if not precarious, in many parts of the Territory. But the frontier has been pushed into the Pacific, and beyond—into the Philippines, in fact—and Arizona and New Mexico now claim that their good behavior, as well as their industrial position, entitles them to be accepted into the great family of States. It does seem, in fact, an anomaly that Arizona, which contributes 250,000,000 pounds of such an important national staple as copper, or about one third of what all the mines of the Union turn out, should be excluded from a vote in Congress, and therefore be under the same disability, viz., taxation without representation, as justified our forefathers in throwing some chests of tea overboard in Boston harbor and fighting for their independence. At the same time, Arizona thinks that her population and her wealth entitle her to separate Statehood. Her territory extends nearly 400 miles from east to west, and over 400 miles from north to south, giving her an area of 112,920 square miles; and to tack her on to New Mexico, with an equal area, would make such an unwieldy State that many Arizonians would prefer to remain under the disadvantages and advantages of Territorial government until deemed big enough and good enough to be endowed with the responsibility of Statehood, rather than to be harnessed to an adjacent section, the great bulk of whose population is alien in race and language. Arizona is undoubtedly growing to the requisite stature, for, though there seems to be no standard

by which full national manhood is to be measured, judging by the puny size of Idaho, Wyoming, and Nevada when they were made States, she will soon reach that maturity of political, social, and commercial life which will compel parties in Congress to heed the force of public opinion despite the exigencies of national party politics.

Twenty years ago her population was so small that the census enumerator was known to remain as a guest at a ranch for a full fortnight in order to add an expected baby to his list. The census of 1900 gave 92,903 as her white population, with 26,480 Indians, and a small number of negroes and Asiatics; but so rapid has been her growth since, that in 1902 the Territorial enumeration put the population at 140,000, and it is now approaching 200,000. The largest increase has been in the southern counties, where copper mining has been most actively prosecuted. Within the last five years the copper mining towns of Bisbee, Clifton, Morenci, and Globe have more than doubled in population, and within that period the railroad junction town of Douglas has grown from a single tent to a well-built city of 6,000 inhabitants, with large stores, brick schoolhouses, banks, mercantile establishments, and metallurgical works and manufactories. The mining, metallurgical, railroad, and mercantile interests of a single firm in the Southwest give employment to 10,000 workmen.

Agriculture has not kept pace with mining, but, under the stimulus of the irrigation schemes now being carried forward under the Reclamation Act, known as the Hansbrough-Newland measure, large tracts of desert, which thirst for water to become gardens of perennial fertility, will, under Arizona sunshine, be peopled. The Southwest is already furnished with abundant railroad facilities. Two transcontinental roads link it with the East and the West, and about 1,000 miles of north-and-south lines and branches give access to every important industrial point. In fact, Arizona has more miles of railroad per head of population than any other section of the Union. Cheap fuel and cheap transportation have for years reduced this, the most arid section of the whole American desert, from being the haunt of the Indian and the cowboy, into an active centre of business and industrial activity. The Indian remains, but he has submitted to the inevitable, and, whether it is congenial or not to his hereditary instincts, is peaceably and successfully cultivating the land, and works on the railroads and about the mines for better day's pay than the white laborer of the East receives.

Tibet and Turkestan: A Journey through Old Lands and a Study of New Conditions. By Oscar Terry Crosby, F.R.G.S. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

The English authors of the books heretofore treating of the British occupation of Lhasa have reluctantly admitted that there was little to excuse the invasion of Tibet. Not being hampered by office or national prejudice, our countryman, Mr. Crosby, in his stirring tale of adventure and still more stirring record of wrongs, tears off with a pitiless hand the thinly decent covering which "political necessity" threw over the Lhasa affair, and exposes that affair in its naked simplicity. Substantially the same view is taken by the author as was taken in the *Nation's* review of Landor's 'Opening of Tibet'; only, in addition, Mr. Crosby seeks to show that fear of a Russian invasion of India from the North is a bugbear. The deeds done in the British raid were without warrant in actual conditions or in any topographically justified apprehension. There remains no excuse for the Younghusband expedition.

The way is paved for this frank expression of conviction by a description of Mr. Curtis's attempt to reach Lhasa from the west, and his failure to do so; by our author's inference that the Russians could not do so; and by his study of geographical data. These parts of the book are sandwiched together rather oddly. Tibet precedes Turkestan in the title, because Tibet is the chief subject of Mr. Crosby's regard. But in the book itself Turkestan precedes Tibet; then come a history of Tibet and the denunciation of the British movement; after this a short history of Turkestan; and then, as appendices, a geographical paper and (British) state papers relative to Tibet.

It is unfortunate that the arraignment of the Younghusband expedition is weakened by extraneous matter calculated to invite adverse criticism. As a prophet in respect of Russia, Mr. Crosby risks his reputation by the statement (p. 19) that he "can see nothing to suggest destruction of the essential unity of that Empire," and that "local irritations in Finland, Poland, and the Caucasus, however justified they may be, cannot go to the length of establishing independent Governments in an age which demands consolidation." As to the latter statement, time will show; it is at least a daring prediction. But there is not much essential unity left in Russia. Not many will agree with the author's induction that irrigation is liable to be a curse to America, because of the "enervating facility and the great vulnerability of irrigation systems," as shown, for example, in Bengal. There is hope for us, he thinks, in some mitigating circumstances, though climate does not seem to be one of them! But, from an argumentative point of view, the greatest defect in the author's Tibetan thesis is that he undermines it by asserting his adherence to that philosophy which teaches indifference to right and wrong. After Mr. Crosby has gone out of his way to proclaim his belief in the universal Will which impartially urges the wolf to slay and the lamb to bleat objection thereto, and has identified the wolf with England and the lamb with Tibet, how can he expect to convince his readers that the wolf deserves rebuke? That same philosophy gave moral strength to all the thugs of India, where it was taught two thousand years ago. If the British wolf kills the Tibetan lamb, it is only the red slayer thinking along the lines laid out for it. Why should Mr. Crosby lament as "pathetic" and "harrowing" any processes of the universal unmoral Will? To him, "unjust" and "cruel" are the words of those foolish people who believe in the freedom of the will. As he says himself: "If, then, the British power, ruthless, shall complete its destruction and construction in Tibet, then the ruthless act shall have demonstrated its necessity in the general scheme of things. Why preach about it, then?" Why, indeed! But we are persuaded that Mr. Crosby's morality is deeper than his philosophy, though he would have us believe that he preaches as the lamb bleats.

The author secured one of the rare manuscripts found in the sands of Turkestan, and has presented it to the Congressional Library. Its authenticity appears to be vouched for. Mr. Crosby has also laid scientists under obligation by correcting M. Grenard's faulty estimate of the number of monks in Tibet (not half a million, but 175,000). His defence of the polyandry of a polyandrous people is clever, and has much of truth. At least it explains very well the reason for the system in the nature of things Tibetan. We have left no space to speak of the venturesome trip with M. Anginieur through Turkestan and a corner of Tibet over mountains 18,000 feet high; but the narrative will well repay perusal. Trifling lapses are a lacuna on page 141; "kharma" for karma, pages 169, 173; and "Musselmen" (p. 109); but "talismans" has escaped the dire corruption of analogy. Curiously enough, Hoernle, the name of the well-known Sanskrit scholar whom the author visited in Oxford, appears five times as "Hoerule"!

The Life of Reason; or, The Phases of Human Progress. By George Santayana. Vol. iii., Reason in Religion. Scribners. 1905. Pp. ix., 279.

In this, the third, volume of his *magnum opus*, Professor Santayana contemplates the wide field of the religious consciousness, and applies thereto the principles laid down in the first two volumes. It thus claims consideration in a wider context, though it is certainly not lacking either in interest or in intelligibleness for those unacquainted with the earlier volumes. Indeed, while as brilliant in form and as stimulating in point of view as they, the present book succeeds in throwing fresh light, and is a real help in estimating the ultimate drift of Mr. Santayana's philosophy. For, sooth to say, the outcome of the earlier volumes was a trifle enigmatic. They seemed at many points to fall in with the drift of the most recent philosophy. They were distinctly "pragmatic" in their view of truth, and scornfully critical of the metaphysical bogies of absolutist philosophers. Their rejection of rationalistic intellectualism went so far as to come perilously near to avowed irrationalism, and their insistence on the chaos of instincts in which all rational activity was rooted, seemed to import into their very title a touch of satire. Nevertheless, there ran through the whole a thread of naturalism of a distinctly older pattern, which provoked unanswered questions as to its relation to Mr. Santayana's more novel views.

Now the present volume makes it fairly clear that this naturalism is really the deeper current in his thinking. Mr. Santayana is, of course, much too modern and too well versed in psychology not to conceive the phenomena of the religious life as primarily psychological in their significance, and therefore not to feel bound to bestow on them serious and sympathetic consideration; but at the critical turning-points a

deep-seated prejudice in favor of naturalism always weights his scales. He cannot conceive that religious experience can in any way acquire cognitive value. He is firmly convinced that "the idea that religion contains a literal and not a symbolic representation of truth and life is simply an impossible idea" (p. 98). He argues that successful religion can only pass into "contemplation, ideality, poetry," and that to conceive it as really efficacious is to degrade it into an art of exploiting the world (p. 42-3). That the exploiting of the world is necessarily degrading is also an unargued prejudice (though not a naturalistic one), hard to combine with a pragmatist theory of knowledge.

It is not surprising, therefore, that Mr. Santayana will not hear of any future life in any literal sense; but that his attitude proceeds not from reason, but from bias, appears clearly from his remarks on the value of what seems empirical evidence of survival. While not venturing to deny (p. 230) that there may be "a residuum of clairvoyance and telepathy and an occasional abnormal obedience of matter to mind" in these psychical phenomena, he is quite sure that it indicates nothing but lower faculties unworthy of investigation, and argues in a pathetically *à priori* and dialectical fashion about the possibilities of "disembodied life." It is clear that here again his naturalism strikes deeper than his empiricism.

After thus brusquely sweeping away the ordinary foundations of man's religious life, Mr. Santayana proceeds, however, to seek the spiritual consolations of "reason" in a somewhat surprising way. For the word seems to have subtly changed its hue. Hitherto it had figured merely as the faculty of distilling satisfactions out of a naturally irrational whirl of things. Now it suddenly becomes a faculty of soaring, Platonically, to the ideal goal of all life, of uplifting one's self onto the plane of pure intellect, one and divine and timeless, of "gravitating towards a fixed object called truth," and thereby resting in an unearthly "contemplation of things not implicating time in their structure," and so becoming "ideally immortal" (pp. 263-273). In short, Mr. Santayana revives for our edification all the hyperboles of Aristotle's "theoretic life," and produces a similar feeling of incongruity. Despite his protests against mysticism, the whole doctrine seems highly mystical, rather than reasonable. It is hard to see how an ideal goal which does not exist, can unite a plurality of minds between which it would form a "gulf" if it did exist (p. 264). Nor does it seem a plausible mode of escaping from the flux of cosmic changes that we should concentrate our attention upon abstractions from which we have ourselves excluded the thought of their time-relations. For are not our ideal objects just as transient as those who think them? To palm off the "eternity" of an abstraction on a bewildered public is an old philosophic trick; but one would not have expected Mr. Santayana to descend to so paltry and manifest a *tour de force*. The congruity of Mr. Santayana's conclusions with his premises, then, is not as clear as might be desired, and few, perhaps, will care to share his precise combination of abnegation and enthusiasm. But his work remains of high interest as a human document, and abounds in memorable sayings and incitements to quotation.

The Long Day: The Story of a New York Working Girl, as told by Herself. The Century Co. 1905.

This is the recorded experience of a worker in good faith, who came from the country with neither money nor friends, and with only such business training as had been furnished by a short period of teaching in a country school. No story of amateur trifling is hers. She must have worked or starved, and in her dreadful experiences she touched the very bottom of the industrial question. As a narrative the book is powerful and absorbing, and it must have, we should suppose, a definite value as a contribution to the great question, How can the working girl be helped out of her depressing and depraving surroundings? The closing chapter, which supplements the record with suggestions of some palliative measures, contains the kernel of the matter. Of these indicated remedies one is the building of a system of hotels after the plan of the Mills Hotels for men. Another, a greater interest on the part of the church in the workwoman's welfare, not from an eleemosynary standpoint, but as an adjuster of her social and economic difficulties:

"A live and progressive church—a church imbued with the Christian spirit in the broadest and most liberal interpretation of the term—can do for us, and do it quickly and at once, more than all the College Settlements and all the trades unions that can be organized within the next ten years could hope to do. And for this reason: the church has all the machinery ready, set up, and waiting only for the proper hand to put it in motion to this great end," *i. e.*, the solution of the problem "affecting the economic condition of the wage-earning woman."

Personally, the author has great faith in trades unions, and would like to see them organized by women. She has observed, on the other hand, that workwomen so far are blind to the benefits of organization, and she adds with naïve candor that "it has not yet been proved that the trades union, carried to its logical conclusion, is likely to be a panacea for the industrial woes of the sex which does favor and support it." This idea, therefore, she reluctantly sets aside to await growth. Meantime, to the church she appeals, and to the workwoman's hotel she points for help. In relation to the hotels, she insists that they be business enterprises, with neither religion nor "coercive morality" as their watchword. More to the point, she avers, is a parlor. "The number of young girls who go wrong in a great city like this for want of the various necessities of a parlor must make the angels in heaven weep."

In the working girl's lack of equipment she finds the main cause of her difficulties; not only—not even chiefly—in her lack of technical training, but in her utter ignorance of how to work. Not to understand the principles of labor is to dislike work; to dislike it is to fail as a wage-earner; and from the failures come the delinquents and criminals. It was from reading Booker Washington's 'Up from Slavery' that the author of 'The Long Day' awoke to the perception of industrial immaturity as the workingwoman's handicap. In addition she finds her equally ill-prepared to think right, to live right, or to meet the moral crises that waylay her. Yet she sees daylight in some directions, building hopes on the free kindergartens, whose effects are only now beginning to be felt as a factor in the industrial field. She fell in with many who had had public-school teaching for a greater or less time, but found them deplorably weak in two of the "R's." All wrote well; but not one was there "whose knowledge of the simplest rudiments of learning was confident and precise." The only girl whom she met who had had kindergarten training knew how to work, and had learned the secret, as she herself said, "of killing two birds with one stone," and of "makin' of your cocoanut save your muscle." The writer does not unduly generalize from this one instance, yet it is evident that, even without it, she is firm in the belief that intelligence and method will follow kindergarten training. Has she not seen the workers—the baby band "learning the rudimentary principles of work under the blissful delusion that they were at play"? Better books, too, for the working girl she asks for, and better books that they will read—not Shakspere, Ruskin, or Pater, but clean, present-day romance; present-day because the girls will read no other. Finally, to teach the working girl to work intelligently is to substitute "working" for "being worked." It is to teach her

"to think about herself and all those things which most vitally concern her as a woman and as a wage-earner. And then, you may depend upon it, she will settle the question to please herself, and she will settle it in the right way."

The writer's tone, even when there is most provocation to heat, is conspicuously fair and free from hysteria; eminently broad, sane, and hopeful is her view. But did the Young Women's Christian Association really recommend a boarding-house as one kept by "a lady of very high Christian ideals"? The language does not sound like that business-like purveyor of the working girl's welfare.

With its disclosures, its suggestions, and its hopes, 'The Long Day' is a book that must and will be read. It would not be surprising to find it coloring the counsels of them that sit and devise relief for suffering humanity.

Il Libro dei Viaggi. Principe Baldassare Odescalchi. Rome: Casa Editrice Nazionale. 1905.

These two volumes belong to a series of a dozen books of travel issued by the same house. The descriptions of visits to Palestine, the Argentine Republic, and Constantinople, which have already appeared in the *Nuova Antologia*, are enlarged, and an account of the four weeks spent in America by Prince Odescalchi in September, 1904, as a delegate to the Interparliamentary Peace Congress at St. Louis, is added. His travels were limited to the itinerary hospitably provided by this Government. He "hesitated to yield to the desire to publish an account of this journey," and there is much in these pages to justify that hesitation. Errors like "handsome-cab", "forweler" (four-wheeler, the name he applies to cabs), "bengio" (banjo), "bigst" (biggest), illustrate the difficulties

of English for a nation of phonetic spellers, and, like "St. Louis, the capital of Louisiana," the "Illinois River" for the Potomac, and *"incerlezza"* for *incertezza*, *"hanuo"* for *hanno*, have little excuse. His steamer, entering New York harbor, neared "Cuney-Island" and coasted along "Governors Island, where the custom house is, and Ellis-Island." The small number of steerage passengers was "due to the excitement of a Presidential campaign, which always causes a total suspension of public works." Our author attributes the decay of American shipping to the dearth of American sailors and the high price of labor.

The morning after landing, he wished to engage a *valet de place*. He not only could not hear of one, but not even succeed in making any one understand what a "domesticus di piazza" was, and he followed the democratic advice to make use of the automobiles for "Seeing New York." The feeble and not scrupulously refined jests of the megaphone man, and the extravagant laughter with which they were received, were, with reason, distasteful to him, but they lead him to comment at length upon the American's "childish" fondness for jokes. He writes much about American bad manners, but the case cannot be entirely hopeless since at West Point the interparliamentary visitors were "taken first to the library, because they like to show foreigners their collections of books as a sign of their increasing culture"; and in the reading-rooms both men and women were so absorbed in their books that "none stirred to look at us, although we were representatives of all the Parliaments of Europe, people not to be seen every day in this country." In the Metropolitan Museum the *biga* found near Norcia (the only complete one known) and the frescoes discovered at Bosco Reale lead him to regret the inefficiency of the Italian provisions for preventing such treasures from leaving the country, and to admit having done his utmost to secure these paintings for that Government. He succeeded only in having some small specimens of them given to the museum at Naples. Yet he notes how few Italian paintings are in the collection, and not one of first rank, and how small and unimportant is the collection of Italian porcelains and majolicas. He takes too seriously the invitation of the mayor of Philadelphia: "If any of you should wish to become a citizen of this city, he has only to ask. We will accept him with pleasure." The mayor "thought to honor the Europeans," but "in the past such an offer would have been received as an affront if it had been made to a *civis romanus* like myself."

Throughout his long service in Parliament, Prince Odescalchi has given much attention to Italian emigration, and he visited Argentina to study this subject. More of the agricultural classes, more from Northern Italy, have gone there. Here his compatriots, he says, are considered "undesirable," and therefore he recommends that the tide of emigration should be deflected by Italy to South America, where the newcomers "would meet a better welcome, and, in consequence of racial affinities and the common origin of their speech, would be less at a disadvantage and probably would preserve the impress of the ancient Latin civilization."

It is a welcome sign of changed conditions to find this descendant of the family of Innocent XI. recognizing, in the very broad religious toleration which exists in this country, one of the finest characteristics of our people.

The Autobiography of Samuel Smiles. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Autobiography has been wittily defined as "that which biography ought to be." There is no more delightful species of literature than a genuine autobiography—that is to say, one in which the writer has nothing to conceal, no appearances to keep up, and in which weaknesses and blunders have a share of the canvas as well as virtues and success. Hence the charm of Alfieri's Autobiography, and of Montaigne, who is so freely autobiographical. And so it sometimes happens that a man whose other writings show no particular indication of genius may, if he will, write a supremely interesting account of himself. Judging from the volume before us, it would seem that the converse also holds true. Dr. Samuel Smiles wrote a number of books in the last fifty years which were singularly successful and meritorious—if large sales be accepted as the test of merit; but his autobiography is a decidedly dull book. He was a shrewd and successful Scotchman, resembling in many ways one of his countrymen who has achieved an immense fortune in this country, and who is not restrained by any false modesty from informing the world that his success is due to the possession of excellent qualities of mind and body. Every other page of this book is devoted to self-glorification over the success of the writer's previous books and their translation into many languages. This sort of elation is perfectly legitimate, but its too frequent expression tends to weariness, and would incline a cynic to suspect that the sales of 'Self-Help' were falling off and required some such stimulant.

As an account of the man Smiles, except in this matter of vanity, the book is quite valueless. Glimpses we get of his views of literature (other than the product of his own pen), as when he says of Ebenezer Elliott, the Corn Law rhymer, that he "gained a reputation as a poet equal to that of the best of his time"; and we may infer absolute self-confidence from the fact that he wrote a 'Guide to America' without considering it necessary to cross the Atlantic. He describes his visits to various countries, but has nothing to say about them that is not better said by Baedeker, and to one who has recently enjoyed Montaigne's 'Journey into Italy,' Dr. Smiles's account seems a veritable *reductio ad absurdum*.

The gospel of success will always be popular among the complacent optimists who are satisfied that everything is for the best in this best of all possible worlds; but there are others.

Poésies de Guillaume IX., Comte de Poitiers. Édition critique. Publiée, avec une introduction, une traduction et des notes, par A. Jeanroy. Toulouse. 1905.

That William of Poitiers was not the first of the troubadours may be inferred from the relative perfection of his style and versification, as well as from his own boast that he bore the palm at this trade; but of his predecessors we know nothing. We have, then, in this slender volume of sixty-one pages all that has reached us of the verse of the first of that long line of Provençal poets whose music caused the old chronicler Philip Mousquet to say that, when Charles the Great divided his conquered lands among his vassals, he gave Provence to the singers and musicians. These earliest examples of a lyric poetry that has influenced every European literature of importance, are of no small interest, and fortunately M. Jeanroy's French translation makes the reading of them possible to others than special students of Provençal.

The earlier editions of William's poetry by Keller, and by Holland and Keller, are to-day difficult to obtain, and were, moreover, incomplete and uncritical. M. Jeanroy has for the first time given us all of the eleven poems ascribed with reasonable certainty to this poet, with the readings of the various manuscripts. The book is a reprint of an article in the *Annales du Midi* for April, 1905. In addition to a critical text, with notes, the editor offers us a discussion of the language and versification, and seeks to point out, as already perceptible in these poems, the peculiarities of sentiment and expression which characterize the later court poetry. The mystic exaltation of love with which we are familiar in Dante, with the traditional opposition of the disdainful lady and the humble and patient lover, must have already existed, for we find it well developed but a few years later in Bernart of Ventadorn; yet of this we catch but glimpses in the poetry of William. He was no platonic lover, satisfied alone with setting his plaints to music, and the full-blooded passion of his love often finds expression in the sensual and brutal. Instead of worship, we often find a touch of contempt for woman as his inferior. Nevertheless, the germ of the later convention is here, as the germ of the elaborate and artificial versification of a later time is in the comparatively simple forms of his verse.

Those who are interested in William of Poitiers as an historical figure—as the grandfather of Henry's Queen Eleanor and the great-grandfather of Richard the Lion-Hearted—will perhaps be disappointed at finding the discussion confined to William as a poet. The poems themselves, however, throw valuable light on the character of the gay cavalier who led an army of one hundred thousand men into Palestine, and, after its annihilation, if we may believe Oderic Vital, made jesting songs of this ill-starred crusade.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alleman, Herbert C. The Gist of the Sermon. Philadelphia:: Lutheran Publishing Society. 75 cents.
Bassett, John Spencer. The Federalist System. (The American Nation. Vol. XI.) Harpers. $2 net.
Beckwith, Charles Minnigerode. Rightly Instructed in God's Holy Word. Thomas Whittaker. $1 net.
Blake's Lyrical Poems. With introduction by Walter Raleigh. Henry Frowde.
Bliss, Annie Marie. Smile and Sing. Reading, Mass.: A. M. Bliss Publishing Co.
Boardman, George Dana. Life and Light. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1 net.
Bonner, Geraldine. The Castlecourt Diamond Case. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.
Bowman, George Ernest. Vital Records of the Town of Halifax, Massachusetts. Boston: Massachusetts Society of Mayflower Descendants.
Browning's Selected Poems. Edited by Percival Chubb. Longmans. 40 cents.
Carey, Wymond. "No. 101." Putnams. $1.50.

Castries, Henry de. Les Sources Inédites de l'Histoire du Maroc. Vol. I. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Catharine Grace Loch: A Memoir. With an introduction by Field-Marshal the Earl Roberts. Henry Frowde.
Centralization and the Law. With introduction by Melville M. Bigelow. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cestre, Charles. La Révolution Française et les Poètes Anglais. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Chamberlain, Leander. The True Doctrine of Prayer. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1 net.
Children's Letters. Collected by Elizabeth Colson and Anna G. Chittenden. Hinds, Noble & Eldredge.
Churchill, W. S. Lord Randolph Churchill. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. $9.00.
Cicero's Orations. Edited by Albertus C. Clark. Henry Frowde.
Colcock, Annie T. Her American Daughter. The Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
Daniel, J. W. A Maid of the Foot-Hills. Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
Davis, H. W. C. England under the Normans and Angevins. Putnams. $3.
Dodge, David Low. War Inconsistent with the Religion of Jesus Christ. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Dresser, Horatio W. Health and the Inner Life. Putnams. $1.35 net.
Dumas's Excursions sur les Bords du Rhin. With introduction by Théodore Henckels. American Book Co.
Dutton, Maude Barrows. In Field and Pasture. American Book Co.
Elzas, Barnett A. The Jews of South Carolina. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Empire, The, and the Century. Edited by Charles S. Goldman. Dutton. $6 net.
Findlay, Alex. Physical Chemistry. Longmans. 75 cents net.
Foster, R. F. Complete Bridge. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Franklin's Autobiography. Edited by William R. Cairns. Longmans. 40 cents.
Gardenhire, Samuel M. The Long Arm. Harpers. $1.50.
Gaskell's Cranford. Edited by Franklin T. Baker. Longmans. 40 cents.
Gibbon, Percival. Vrouw Grobelaar and her Leading Cases. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Graham, George W. The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. The Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
Griggs, Edward Howard. Moral Leaders. B. W. Huebsch. 20 cents net.
Gunckel, John E. Boyville. Toledo, O.: Newsboys' Association.
Gunnison, Herbert F. Two Americans in a Motor Car Touring Europe. Brooklyn Daily Eagle.
Heroic Romances of Ireland. Translated into English prose by A. H. Leahy. Vol. II. London: David Nutt.
Hewlett, Maurice, The Works of. Vol. V.: The Queen's Quair. Macmillan Co. $3 net.
History of all Nations. Vol. XIV.: The Age of the European Balance of Power. By John H. Wright. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co.
Hobhouse, L. T., and J. L. Hammond. Lord Hobhouse: A Memoir. Longmans. $4 net.
Hood, Charles Newton. Europe on $4 a Day. Medina, N. Y.: The Rolling Stone Club. 50 cents.
Hopkins, N. Monroe. Experimental Electrochemistry. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3 net.
Huidekoper, Frederic Louis. Military Studies. Kansas City, Mo.: Kimberly Publishing Co.
Hunt, W. Holman. Pre-Raphaelitism and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. $10 net.
Irving's Sketch-Book. Edited by Armour Caldwell. Longmans. 40 cents.
Jefferson, Thomas. Letters and Addresses. Edited by William B. Parker and Jonas Viles. The Unit Book Publishing Co.
Johnston, Alexander. American Political History. New ed. Vol. II. Putnams. $2 net.
Journeys of La Salle. Edited by Isaac J. Cox. 2 vols. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1 net each.
Julius Cæsar. Edited by Hamilton W. Mabie. American Book Co.
Kelsey, Frederick W. The First County Park System. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.25.
Knowles, Archibald Campbell. The Holy Christ-Child. Thomas Whittaker. 80 cents net.
Lang, Andrew. New Collected Rhymes. Longmans. $1.25 net.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre. The United States in the Twentieth Century. Translated by H. Addington Bruce. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $2 net.
Lester, J. C., and D. L. Wilson. Ku Klux Klan. Neale Publishing Co.
Masterman, C. F. G. In Peril of Change. B. W. Huebsch. $1.50 net.
Merejkowski, Dmitri. Peter and Alexis. Putnams. $1.50.
Montague, Elizabeth May. Beside a Southern Sea. Neale Publishing Co. $1.
Norton, William Harmon. The Elements of Geology. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Pierson, Arthur T. The Bible and Spiritual Criticism. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1 net.
Schillings, C. G. Flashlights in the Jungle. Translated by Frederic Whyte. Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.80 net.
Sears, John Henry. Geology of Essex County, Massachusetts. Salem, Mass.
Shakespeare's Sonnets. Edited by William J. Rolfe. American Book Co.
Sharpless, Isaac. Quakerism and Politics. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.
Sienkiewicz, Henryk. On the Field of Glory. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Soden, Hermann von. The History of Early Christian Literature. Translated by J. R. Wilkinson. Putnams. $1.50.
Sprague, Carleton. The Mission of Beauty. Buffalo: The Matthews-Northrup Works. $1.25.
Thomas, Allen C., and Richard Henry. A History of the Friends in America. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston Co.
Thorne, Guy. A Lost Cause. Putnams. $1.50.
Vine, Marshall George. In Loco Parentis. Dutton.
Ware, Joseph. The Divine Man. Mechanicsburg, O.: The True Light Publishing Co.
Whitaker's Almanack, 1906.—Peerage, 1906. London: Whitaker.
White, F. M. The Weight of the Crown. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Whittaker's Churchman's Almanac, 1906. Thomas Whittaker.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 1, 1906.

The Week.

The real debate over the Statehood bill, in corridors and cloakrooms, having lasted ever since Congress convened, the House devoted a day to open discussion, and on Thursday passed the bill. It must have been a day of uncommonly cogent argument, for the net result was that four of the Republicans who opposed the special rule on Wednesday voted for the bill the next day, and five others did not vote at all. This, by the way, reduces the gallant band of thick-and-thin "insurgents," who stuck by their colors through both the tariff and Statehood fights, to only sixteen. The fight is now carried to the Senate, where there will be something more than a few hours of cut-and-dried speechmaking. The outcome is as uncertain as it was last year. The general opinion last autumn was that there was a drift of sentiment favorable to the amalgamation of New Mexico and Arizona, but this impression has been somewhat counteracted by the more than ever vigorous opposition developed in the lower house. There are few disinterested advocates of immediate Statehood for Arizona and New Mexico separately, but there are many who favor the postponement of a final decision until it can be seen how far their promise for the future can be actually realized. Whatever the disposition of the Senate, we trust that Oklahoma and Indian Territory may no longer be kept waiting on the determination of an absolutely unrelated question.

Of Secretary Taft's eleven army bills submitted to Congress, two are especially important, that providing for an army reserve of 50,000 men, and the proposal to "eliminate" officers in order to get rid of the deadwood and provide for a regular flow of promotions. The army reserve plan is a modification of one urged by Secretary Root, which Congress wisely refused to consider, and which called for 100,000 men. The marked decrease in this new measure shows that some doubts as to the practicability of the larger body had arisen. Indeed, it may well be asked whether 50,000 is not beyond the range of possibility. Several years ago Congress authorized the establishment of a list of men qualified for service in the Federal Volunteers, to be made up of resigned officers, members of the militia of the several States, etc. The list is still pitifully small. The rates of pay of the enlisted men in this new reserve are to be graded in accordance with their wages while in the regular army, and they must be ready for ten days' drill every year during an enlistment of five years. Now every one knows that the men who leave the army are largely men who wander; many of them are not worth having in a reserve, and one in ten deserts. It will be no easy matter, therefore, in our judgment, to find 50,000 men under forty years of age who are worthy graduates of the regular army and are willing to join this reserve. Moreover, to keep track of men of this kind will be enormously laborious.

Inadvertence seems to be in the Cabinet what aphasia is in insurance circles. Through inadvertence, Secretary Taft candidly admits, he exceeded his power in making a monetary agreement with the Panama bankers. But he explains that the damage was not great, since a contract made in disregard of law could at any time be broken in disregard of equity. "It may not be fair to the other parties, . . . but it can be done," were his words. Reviewing the transaction, the irregularity of which he freely conceded, he put the blame upon Congress for failing to legislate for the canal strip. The argument was, in effect, If you gentlemen turn a ticklish business over to us without instructions, you must take the chances of our mistakes. We have no wish to judge Secretary Taft harshly, though his defence before the Senate Committee on Finance comes curiously from a trained jurist and one often mentioned for the Chief Justiceship. We wish merely to call attention to the happy-go-lucky fashion in which the great canal enterprise is being conducted. It may be no great matter that a Cabinet officer should innocently overstep his powers; it is a grave matter that Congress and the Executive should be perfectly satisfied with a régime in which this sort of straining of constitutional prerogative is regarded as natural, and even necessary.

Another absent-minded official is Senator Lodge. The other day, in sheer gayety of heart, he had spoken of the Dominican protocol as "the beginning of a great policy." This was said "inadvisedly"; he meant the "continuance" of a policy handed down from the fathers. Having cleared away this misapprehension, he proceeded to reveal to the Senate the limitations of its treaty-making powers. Not theirs to interfere in delicate negotiations; not theirs to question the terms of a treaty until it should please the Executive to lay it before them for ratification. Let them keep within their own powers, and trust Mr. Roosevelt's wisdom until the fulness of treaty-making time. So speaks Mr. Lodge, the strict constructionist, forgetful of a certain Lodge who, in *Scribner's Magazine* for January, 1902, proclaimed the "treaty-making power of the Senate," and vindicated its right to be consulted in advance in all important preliminaries to a treaty. Possibly, this article was written "inadvisedly"; we can conceive reasons for the author's being willing to forget it when no paltry reciprocity treaty with Newfoundland is at issue, but the "continuance" of the routine policy of intervention, bequeathed to us by the founders of the republic. Evidently, the treaty-making power of the Senate is delightfully elastic—comprehensive when you wish to burke a treaty unpopular with your constituents, strictly limited when you wish to support a President "going it alone."

Senator Spooner defends with spirit our limited representation at the Algeciras Conference. "In the long, long reach of time," says the Senator in cosmic purview, "are we to confess that we dare not send delegates to international conferences to protect American interests, because we fear they will not know when to withdraw?" In other words, how are our diplomatists to learn how to get out of bad boxes unless first they get in? How may they practise the modest and useful art of self-effacement unless first they have obtruded themselves? Such an argument takes us back to those early Christians who, to demonstrate their faith, voluntarily exposed themselves to the direst temptations. These experiments as often revealed the frailty of the flesh as the might of the spirit. But, on the point of slipping away adroitly, Mr. Spooner emphasizes the President's capacity for seizing psychological moments:

> "The President of the United States, who hit upon the psychological moment to intervene and bring to an end the deplorable war between Russia and Japan, can be trusted to determine the psychological moment when Ambassador White and his colleague, Minister Gummere, must withdraw from the Moroccan conference in order to save this country from all danger of unfortunate European entanglements, should such a moment come to pass."

Now the crudest intelligence of the most craven American can grasp the evident fact that there is no use in perceiving the psychological moment for withdrawal unless you have something to withdraw. Evidently, if you are to recall your delegates at the instant when the peace of the world wavers in the balance, you must first send them. This explains all.

If Congress ever does order the Treas-

ury Department to put the customs machinery on a business basis and abolish at the same time ports of entry whose expenditures exceed receipts, it will also be destroying one of its annual subjects for discussion. Mr. Brundidge this year has performed the task of procuring the list of such ports for the information of his colleagues. There were fifty-one of them—four more than there were two years ago. There is really a story in every one. Some are seaports of old-time renown, now forgotten and decaying. Some are custom-houses created in preposterous places as the outcome of Congressional log-rolling. Some, like Brazos de Santiago (Brownsville, Tex.), are really only stations for the apprehension of smugglers, and have a value out of all proportion to the revenues they turn in. There are ten ports which, with aggregate expenses during the last fiscal year of $5,160.33, turned in actually not a penny of revenue. While, for the reason already stated, it is not true that every port operated at a loss ought to be closed, and some officer is needed at most of these places, yet this feature of the system of customs collection is a crying absurdity.

Charges of political heresy are said to have been brought against Representative Brownlow, national committeeman from Tennessee; and before the excitement of the Congressional campaign begins, he is likely to receive a formal trial before Chairman Cortelyou. The proceeding itself is unusual, and the line of defence, according to report, is to be more novel still. Mr. Brownlow's free-silver speech in 1896 he justifies by confessing that he merely used the gist of a former speech on the money question by his party's Presidential candidate, McKinley. If anything like a general inquisition is planned, we fear that similar defences would be pretty often heard. What proportion of the Republican laity, even the Republican priesthood, we wonder, subscribes to all the thirty-nine articles of its faith? The poor wretch suspected of Anti-Imperialism, as the thumb-screw is turned, will shriek out the names of the group of regular Republicans, a member of the Ways and Means Committee among them, who voted in the House the other day for a declaration favorable to Philippine independence. The trembling heretic dragged to the stake for his revisionist views is no more guilty than half his brethren, if the truth were but known. And the rack would be broken down before all the dissenters on the canal policy, rate regulation, or ship subsidies were purged of their sins. Neither is it a favorable time for such reformatory action, nor is a Congressman who has "taken more appropriations for his State than any other man" a good choice for the first victim.

The country's great prosperity is eloquently indicated by all the financial weather-signs of the period. Exchanges of bank checks during December in the whole United States, lately compiled and published, afford some astonishing comparisons. They not only run 12 per cent. beyond the previous December maximum of 1904, but are actually double the same month's total as recently as 1898—itself a year of real financial prosperity. Iron consumption, another and even more accurate index of genuine trade activity, similarly surpassed all precedent. December's output exceeded that of the year before by no less than 25 per cent.; that for the whole year 1905 almost exactly doubled the figure of 1898—a rather striking parallel to the testimony of the bank exchanges. Reports of our foreign trade, lately published for December and for last year as a whole, are perhaps less impressive in comparison, but they, too, bear witness to the active industrial movement of the country. December's exports reached unprecedented figures; its imports have been equalled in only five other months of the country's history, and four of those five months fell in 1905. The year itself far surpassed the record both in exported and imported merchandise; its total outward and inward trade ran half a billion dollars beyond 1900, and the fact that the surplus of exports, under such circumstances, was smaller than in that peculiar year is, we should say, a sign of greater economic health. These are the dry statistics of the industrial situation. They are abundantly corroborated by descriptions of the trade situation, coming from every quarter of the country. It is probably true that the United States has at no previous time reached such a level of uniform prosperity.

Notwithstanding Gov. Vardaman's efforts to put an end to mob law in Mississippi, there was an increase in the number of lynchings in that State during 1905—twenty, as against eighteen in 1904. All the victims were negroes, but only two were guilty of the "usual crime." One was murdered by a mob for writing an insulting letter, and another for uttering a threat, while four were murderers and four had attempted to kill. Three had attacked or fired on officers of the law. Sixteen were hanged and four were shot to death; six after being taken from official custody. In one case of rape the mob was composed entirely of colored men, the victim also being colored. Encouraging features of this bad year for law and order were Gov. Vardaman's dispatch of special trains and prompt ordering out of the militia to save prisoners, with the first recorded conviction of a white man, Robert Young, for killing a negro criminal. Young was given a life sentence after conviction by a white jury for having shot a manacled negro when he was on a train bound for the penitentiary. In all probability, Young will be pardoned ere long, but the conviction will none the less have a salutary effect. Moreover, four "prominent citizens" of Hattiesburg have been indicted for participating in a lynching; but the men accused of killing Sheriff Poag of Tate County because he defended a white prisoner, were acquitted after a long and heated trial.

The existing election law in this State does not seem to have a solitary friend willing to speak a good word for it, but its hostile critics are increasing in numbers. The presentment of the Special Grand Jury which has been investigating election cases, reviews the abuses which have been known to exist for many years, but which came into especial prominence at the last election. Not only were the rights of watchers disregarded, but "many disputes arose at the polls by reason of different views as to the proper method of counting disputed ballots." What else could any one expect from a law which provides an indefinite number of alternative methods for doing the same thing, and expresses its intent so dubiously that the Supreme Court itself does not pretend to understand all its provisions? There are really two separate questions involved here. The rights of watchers and the proper registering of their protests can be secured only by having election officers who better understand their rights and duties. But so long as the present rules of marking and counting exist, it is ridiculous to talk about the elimination of wrangling and bad feeling over the polling-place returns. The Grand Jury, like the State Superintendent of Elections, puts in a word for the use of voting machines. These, of course, do eliminate all disputed counts and minimize the harm that a bad election board can do. Yet we are strongly of the opinion that the adoption of a new form of ballot resembling either that of Massachusetts or Montana should precede the purchase of the machines.

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals has not, under its present management, the slightest claim upon public confidence. The proceedings at Thursday's annual meeting show clearly enough why President John P. Haines has so steadily refused to render a detailed accounting of the moneys which he has received and expended. If there has been no actual stealing—and there are a number of suspicious items to be explained—at least the bookkeeping has been incredibly slack and inaccurate. What the eminently respectable gentlemen of the board of managers

have been doing in recent years is a question which should be pressed home, not only by every subscriber to the funds, but by every taxpayer who is interested in seeing that dog-license fees are properly disbursed. The inefficiency of Mr. Haines's administration has been notorious; and yet some of the best-known men in this community have consented to play the rôle of dummy directors, and by their acquiescence in abuses try to delude people into the belief that all is well with the Society. What is needed now is a clean sweep, both of those who have been directly guilty of maladministration and of the managers who have been recreant to their trusts and have supinely assented to wrong-doing.

Now that the Funeral Drivers' Union has been organized here, and the closed shop agreed upon, deaths and burials will no doubt be put on a far more businesslike basis. It has long been a cause of complaint that thoughtless people choose exceedingly inconvenient hours and places for departing this life. Hereafter, persons wishing to die will be notified to do so between 8 A. M. and 5 P. M., with an hour off at noon for dinner. Deaths occurring after hours or on Sundays or holidays will be charged for at the rate of time and half-time. No person will be accepted for burial unless he has a union card in his pocket. Walking delegates will supplant clergymen at the services. Contracts may be entered into with the New York Central and Interborough Railway Companies to arrange all accidents according to a systematic plan, say, on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday afternoons, thus not interfering with the Saturday half-holiday. Visitors to cemeteries in the Bronx will be required to go by the Union Railway, in which case they will probably be old enough when they get there to know better than to come back. In that way they will spare the funeral drivers needless work. Finally, the old-fashioned "At Rest" on tombstones will be discarded in favor of a neat union label.

In offering the Curatorship of Paintings to Mr. Roger Fry, the Metropolitan Museum takes a step that promises the best things for the impending reconstruction of the staff. Mr. Fry is a young English painter who has made for himself an excellent position as an historian and critic of art. He thus combines a practical knowledge of the materials of painting with a wide experience of all the European schools. His personal preference is for the Italian primitives, and this is fortunate, since the Museum, now lamentably deficient in that field, may count upon an intelligent and systematic building-up in this neglected branch. In all his critical work Mr. Fry has given evidence of a judgment not only keen, but also controlled by good sense. His work has been free from the aberrations so common among connoisseurs. Among our artists and amateurs he is no stranger, and both personally and officially he may be sure of his welcome. His appointment will mean, we are confident, that the curators are to be responsible for the upbuilding of their own departments and are to have the spending of their own funds. On no other principle can a museum grow satisfactorily. And if an officer is not competent to judge the needs of his own department and make his requisitions on the treasury judiciously, the remedy is not to tie his hands or subject him to delays in consultation, but to replace him with one who has the obvious qualifications for a curatorship. Mr. Fry's coming, then, will be a welcome indication that the complicated and unbusinesslike system which has trammelled the Museum from its foundation to the present day, is about to yield to what we may call the "cabinet idea," by which the heads of departments shall have ministerial independence and responsibility.

Another art museum is in luck; the Field Columbian Museum at Chicago will receive a bequest of $8,000,000 from the estate of the late Marshall Field. It is the largest gift ever made for such a purpose. To transpose this sum of money into terms of art is difficult, yet comparisons may aid. Even with a liberal deduction of income for administrative purposes, the Chicago museum will have a larger purchasing fund than any European museum. With our own Metropolitan Museum and that of Worcester, the Columbian is in a position to compete in the art markets of the world. In this power there is some compensation for being late in the field. Yet it brings some corresponding dangers. Already the Metropolitan Museum is beset by the most absurd and extravagant proposals. Similarly, Chicago will now become a shining mark for the rampant enthusiast and the guileful art broker. The danger is of letting the new-gotten riches burn in the corporate pocket. The museum that marks every day with a white stone will soon accumulate a most undesirable deposit of minerals. Such cautions are not amiss when this country steps, in a year or two, from the last to the first position as public buyer in the art market. It is only fitting that the funds gathered through the most enlightened business methods, by such benefactors as the late Jacob S. Rogers, Stephen Salisbury, and Marshall Field, should be expended with similar care and judgment.

The British election returns, now practically complete, only confirm the extent of the Unionist defeat. With nine constituencies yet to be polled, the maximum Ministerial majority, reckoning in Nationalists and Laborites, has reached 353, while the actual Liberal majority is 95. For the moment there has been returned only a handful of Mr. Balfour's Cabinet to constitute the Front Bench Opposition; and though this ragged firing line will undoubtedly be recruited by the withdrawal of Unionist members to make place for ex-ministers in safe constituencies, it is clear that Mr. Balfour's reported plan of heckling "C-B," will be pursued under considerable difficulty. The Independent Labor party has returned 45 members. This group, in conjunction with the 84 Irish Nationalists and the Unionists, might make trouble in case of dissension on the Government side, but it is hard to imagine circumstances that could lead to so unnatural an anti-Liberal alliance. The party that has converted the Conservative majority of 134, in 1895, to a Liberal one of 95 to-day, need hardly fear any sudden reversal of the verdict of the country. Unionist editors will take what comfort they may from the fact that the majority of votes cast is relatively small in favor of the Government. This is due partly to the plural vote. As members of a university convocation, as possessors of offices in the City, or of residences in both London and the country, many Englishmen vote in two or more constituencies. And, curiously enough, it is precisely in Lombard Street, among the aristocracy and among the *intellectuels* of the universities, that Chamberlain has exercised the greatest glamour.

To have provided kings for two new thrones, those of Greece and Norway, and queens for Great Britain and Russia, is something of a title to remembrance, and the late Christian IX. of Denmark will possibly be remembered chiefly from the honors that fell so readily to his children and children's children. The eagerness with which greater monarchs sought alliances with the house of Oldenburg, and European chancelleries welcomed its scions as candidates for debatable thrones, testifies not only to the strict neutrality of Denmark, but also to general confidence in the royal stock. Its daughters have been judged worthy to bear kings, and its sons to rule justly. Few monarchs have been more sorely tried than King Christian. Early in his reign the Danish Duchies were torn from his kingdom by Germany, and England permitted the spoliation with a supineness that aroused Mr. Robert Cecil, later Lord Salisbury, to his highest flights of satire. The last years of King Christian were saddened by the growth of a radicalism which, while disapproving, he accepted with all loyalty and equanimity.

"SOCIETY" JOURNALISM.

The acquittal of Norman Hapgood on the charge of criminal libel is a great victory for decency. The editor and the proprietors of *Collier's Weekly* were actuated by a high sense of duty when they told the unvarnished truth about Justice Joseph M. Deuel's connection with Col. William d'Alton Mann and his nasty sheet, *Town Topics*. Fortunately, *Collier's* is prosperous as well as courageous, and, when called upon to defend itself, was able to wage the contest to the bitter end. It secured skilled counsel, and in the collection of evidence it spared neither energy nor expense. The result was a sickening revelation of the weakness and vanity of men prominent in the financial and the fashionable life of this community. *Town Topics* was exposed as a parasite upon the social body. Its editor, a bankrupt in fortune and in character, was filling his pockets by bullying the rich who might be liable to attack in his columns, by selling them stock at preposterous prices, by borrowing from them on worthless security, or by whining at their doors. A more repulsive picture of journalism ot the gutter has never been drawn. All these facts *Collier's* fearlessly laid bare. The medicine, though bitter, has been wholesome. If New York society and the country in general profit by it, the credit will be due to *Collier's*, which fought the good fight.

And how about the complainant in this action? *Collier's* declared that it was disgraceful for a judge to be connected with "a paper of which the occupation is printing scandals about people who are not cowardly enough to pay for silence." Justice Deuel appealed to the courts for redress. It took the jury seven minutes to decide that *Collier's* was right, and that, as a matter of fact, Deuel's conduct was disgraceful. He has violated the provision of the charter which forbids him to accept employment outside his regular duties. This employment, had it even been legal, would have been impossible for any man who was not lost to all sense of propriety or honor. Deuel is no callow youth, upon whose ignorance or inexperience Mann has imposed. His hairs are white with age. He could be under no illusion as to the nature of the enterprise in which he embarked. When he went to the office of *Town Topics*, week after week, to read the proofs and advise the writers how to avoid libel suits, he was aware that he was engaged in the dirtiest business in town. He waded into the slime with his eyes open. His pretences of virtuous indignation against the follies and sensualities of the "smart set" are transparent hypocrisy. But enough of this wretch—for, as Mr. Jerome observed, he emerges from the trial shattered in reputation.

Back of these two sinister figures, Mann and Deuel, stand the people upon whom they preyed. Our polite and refined society must share the shame of its scavengers. *Town Topics* would have died of inanition long ago had it not been for the criminal rich and the silly rich. The first class, swollen with ill-gotten gains, men whose business is gambling and swindling, and whose pastime is vice, have furnished abundant material for salacious paragraphs; and, when attacked beyond endurance, have paid handsomely for being let alone. Their troubles, however, are primarily due to their own guilt. The silly rich are the ones whose plight is pitiful. They are often innocent, well-meaning folk. With a guilelessness that approaches imbecility, they suppose that they gain distinction when their names are printed in the society columns of *Town Topics* and other newspapers, and when they are asked to subscribe to the ridiculous 'Fads and Fancies of the Four Hundred.' A three-year-old girl artlessly displaying a new ribbon is a model of dignity and reserve compared with the grown women who give descriptions of their gowns to society reporters, and who thrill with pride when the lists of their guests are thrust before the public. It is upon the bad taste, the ignorance, and the vanity of this tribe of the witless that Mann and Deuel have battened. By flattering, cajoling, and threatening those who have everything but sound judgment, they have made *Town Topics* and its allied ventures a gold mine. It was like stealing candy from a baby. If our silly rich are incapable of taking to heart the lesson of these disclosures, they would remain unmoved by the thunders of Sinai.

It must be a disagreeable revelation to some of our contemporaries that maintain a "society column," to find themselves in the Mann galley. Several of their "society editors," it appears, have been purveyors of tattle and scandal to the general sewer for that sort of thing now laid open. The result ought to be, we think, to raise sharply the question how we are going to distinguish between the reputable and disreputable in that kind of journalism. "I hear," said Matthew Arnold with one of his sweetest smiles, speaking to a youth who had got an article into an English "society journal"—"I hear that you have become one of ——'s hired Stabbers." Col. Mann's list of contributors, as disclosed on the trial, was plainly not composed entirely of stabbers. Literary folk have often an innocence equalled only by their need of money, and we have no doubt that many a book-review or general article has been written for *Town Topics* with honest intent by honest writers—though their cheeks must now be tingling as they think with what a crew they were associating. But we fear the same cannot be said of the thoroughly sophisticated "society editors" who were in Col. Mann's employ. It may be set down for certain that they were not hired for their *beaux yeux*. Indeed, the evidence was clear that, in one case at least, a society editor was paid to fetch and carry servants' gossip.

This certainly casts a comic, or ghastly, light upon the reports of doings in elegant and exclusive society printed in many reputable newspapers. How much of this class of news is handed out at the area-door like cold victuals? How many enterprising society editors get admission into the houses of the great, as the Newport correspondent did, disguised as a musician? If it is the servants' hall, and not the drawing-room, whence comes the tittle-tattle over which so many of the people whom Thackeray called the "would-be genteel, the silver-fork worshippers," pore in the rapt conviction that they are thereby brought into touch with the richest and therefore the most enviable of mortals, the fact ought to be known.

But the entire blame for these absurdities cannot be loaded upon the shoulders of silly or venal writers for the press. They could set up the defence which is offered, for what it is worth, in the case of other kinds of journalism. They could say that they are giving "society" what "society" demands—or, at least, likes. If the coarse smutch of social notoriety were offensive to the majority of those upon whom it is laid by much of the current newspaper "Gossip of the Clubs" and "Notes of Society," the thing would be stopped. We have seen how a few gentlemen drew the line at blackmail; if all the ornaments of society found the glaring publicity given to their parties and their gowns equally distasteful, they would soon cease to be victims. But every newspaper knows that many not only like it, but foster it—even clamor for it. Personal missives detailing the glories of the writer's (or the writer's wife's) raiment, communications from regular advertising agencies giving all the particulars about a "quiet little musicale" or an account of a "very exclusive reception about which society is agog," are far too frequently thrown upon an editor's desk for him to imagine that a shrinking sensitiveness is our chief social ailment.

Let us, then, not be too mirthful over the fine ladies and gentlemen who now have the mortification of seeing their laughable social plans and aspirations and their ridiculous social hangers-on exposed to the public gaze; let us, rather, ask if the whole thing does not betray a false standard, for setting up which each of us is in his way partly responsible. Are we all, in practice, believers in the truth that the highest society is the most intellectually and morally refined society? Do we all hate and shun the little tricks of *réclame*? Is it

a real annoyance to us to be among the mentioned or the photographed on occasions which set the crowd agape? Do we think more of the conversation at a dinner than the wealth and dress of the company or the excellence of the food? Would we give more to keep out of the Court Circular than to get into it?

In the lifting the roof off *Town Topics* we have had given us a picture of "society" as illuminating in its way as the picture of high finance which Mr. Hughes had previously drawn for our instruction and reproof. But in one case as in the other the true moral strikes far and wide, and hits spectators and censors as well as the immediate and exemplary sufferers. And as the insurance disclosures will fail of their due effect unless they make us all more scrupulously honest and delicately honorable, so the bringing of this huge basket of social scandal to the public laundry will avail us little unless out of the disgust spring a new simplicity and sincerity, with fresh resolves to make of social intercourse, not a milliner's show or a crackling of thorns under a pot, but a means of furthering whatsoever things are true, lovely, and of good report.

"THE WASTEFUL WEST."

The conviction on Friday of the Rev. George G. Ware, an Episcopal rector of the frontier and the manager of a Nebraska cattle company, for conspiracy to defraud the Government by means of false homestead entries, marks a further victory in Secretary Hitchcock's war on the land thieves and wasters. It is a significant comment upon the spirit of the heedless West, confirming what Mr. Emerson Hough, in writing of the pine-lands adventurer recently, says of the careless waste of the people. Scarcely more than half of the available good timber in the country has been used—mere waste has accounted for the rest. Though, as Mr. Hough says, "if we had our forests back, we could afford to wage two civil wars and not be in debt for either," and could wage one on the value of the burned and rotted timber, forest waste is only one item in the big bill to be charged against the reckless West. Against the cattlemen, who have enclosed areas equal to principalities and reserved for the use of their scattered herds States capable of supporting New England's population, the charge of prodigal extravagance holds equally; it holds to a less degree against the miners; and the very farmers themselves—our models of frugality and productive economy—have tilled their fields apparently with the idea that when the land was exhausted by their unvarying crop routine, they could move across the road to fresh soil.

It is only when this big "God A'mighty's estate" has shrunk to a small fraction of its original value that any one in authority has stopped to consider the waste. Because the good timber has absolutely passed out of the possession of the public, the West is beginning to listen to the new talk about forest conservation and the replanting of denuded areas. But in the cattle country to-day they speak of Secretary Hitchcock's honest efforts to protect the settler against the big pasture pirates as the fancies of a man suddenly gone insane. To the cattle owner it does not appear to be waste to bribe soldiers' widows and orphans to "enter" forty sections of public land to be turned over to him, and then coolly to fence forty more sections of the domain supposed to belong to the public. He says, and believes, that every head of stock he owns must have twenty-five acres of range. Millions of acres of land classed as "worthless, except for grazing," is in the possession of the herd owners, and only a few settlers who are in search of good land know that the classification is a farce. Mr. W. R. Lighton, in the Boston *Transcript*, cites a case in illustration:

> "One year ago a ranchman in the neighborhood of Lusk, Wyoming (twenty-five miles west of the Nebraska line), bought a tract of 320 acres which had been in use at cattle range for many years. The price paid was $1,000. By way of experiment this tract was enclosed by fences to exclude grazing animals, and the wild bunchgrass was permitted to grow undisturbed. With absolutely no other attention, three hundred tons of hay were cut last summer, . . . which was sold in the stack on the ground for seven dollars a ton."

This particular tract of grass land was not exceptional; it was "high-divide" land, like millions of acres of the kind upon which the twenty-five-acres-to-a-cow rule holds. It is in the same region, on the North Platte, in western Nebraska and eastern Wyoming, that $3,300,000 has been allotted by the Government to a project to reclaim 100,000 acres of "desert" land by irrigation. No wonder President Roosevelt's irrigation policy has proved so popular in the West! The man who could divert the bothersome settler from the grazing lands to the absolutely arid regions by turning water into the sage brush and making the settler pay for it, deserves a monument, and the cattlemen would undoubtedly subscribe to build one. But for Secretary Hitchcock no cow-country memorial will be raised; no "timber Senator" will ever sing his praises, and only the Federal grand juries that return indictments agaist the mineral land thieves, the "timber-land miners," will breathe his name with respect. His one idea seems to be to get the man—cowman, sawmill owner, or miner—off the land he does not own and which is owned by, and held in trust for, the landless. Consider the contrast: The reclamation service has spent, or is to spend, $28,000,000 to reclaim a million acres of desert for which settlers will pay $28 an acre; the Interior Department in the past year has found more than 500 indictments in nineteen States against land thieves, and this "is but the result of preliminary skirmishing." Under one law, the Kincaid act, some 2,000,000 acres of land in Nebraska have been fraudulently obtained by the cowmen.

This Kincaid act is an illustration of the general official laxity in regard to the public land. It was a bit of special legislation providing for the creation of "grazing homesteads" of 640 acres in western Nebraska—the ordinary homestead, of course, being 160 acres. Now here was an inexcusable legalization of waste, tried as an "experiment" with the support of the President, who in his message to Congress referred to "the proposed extension of it to other States." Instead of a prompt pulling up on the part of Congress, we have Mr. Lighton's assurance that "already Congressmen Martin of South Dakota and Brooks of Colorado are fashioning bills upon the Kincaid model; Mondell of Wyoming is to follow suit in the interests of his eager constituents; Montana is also in this waiting line, and there are indications that a half-dozen other States are to help in the formation of a flying-wedge which will carry the deal through."

The attitude of the West toward the wasters of the public domain is like the attitude of Wall Street toward the insurance grafters. It is an "open game," with equal chances for all. As Fred Dumont Smith, a Kansas State Senator and a valiant fighter of the Standard Oil monopoly, who was indicted recently in connection with land frauds in his State, says of the new activity of the Interior Department, "the United States is in mighty small business" when it prosecutes those sturdy pioneers who are making Government land fertile with windmills. The only trouble with Senator Smith's argument is that these "best citizens" and "sturdy settlers" of western Kansas are, as a rule, wealthy residents of cities far from their humble ranch firesides. The history of the pillagers of our forests is being repeated in the public-land States. As it was thought impossible to exhaust our magnificent pine lands, so it is taken for granted in the West that "God's out o' doors" will last indefinitely.

THE "BENNINGTON" COURTS-MARTIAL.

The acquittal of Ensign Wade, the engineer officer of the ill-fated *Bennington*, with the all but similar decision in the case of her commander, Lucien Young, by the court-martial which tried them, is very unfortunate. The court of inquiry was so certain that Ensign Wade was responsible for the accident that it recommended the court-martial. Secre-

tary Bonaparte differed from it to the extent of insisting that Commander Young also be tried. Now, the question is whether any one is to be held responsible. Is this disgraceful affair to be dismissed as a visitation of Providence? Commander Young was reprimanded merely for failure to attach his signature to the "smooth steam log" of the *Bennington* during the seven months of 1904 and 1905 antedating the disaster. On every other specification of the charges against him he was acquitted.

Obviously, no sane person can attribute to this technical carelessness of the commander the disaster to his ship. The Judge-Advocate-General and the Secretary of the Navy alike disapproved of the court's decision as to both Young and Wade, and returned the findings in the latter's trial for a revision, which resulted only in the court's adherence to its original decision. Since no officer is to be punished for what could only have been due to gross negligence or inefficiency, the public has the right to ask several pertinent questions. For instance, is it not fair to conclude that this representative court-martial, in acquitting these officers, meant to throw the responsibility on the present naval engineering system? And what assurance is the Navy Department now prepared to give that there will not be a similar disaster any day? When the accident occurred, Secretary Bonaparte earnestly besought press and public to withhold criticism or condemnation until the facts could be ascertained. His request was granted. It is now time, in view of the failure of his judicial machinery to exercise a deterrent influence by such severe punishments as would have been inevitable in the British navy, for the Department itself to place the blame and to let the public know whether men or system were at fault. Was the Bureau of Steam Engineering lax, or does the final responsibility rest on the Bureau officer who put Wade in sole charge of the engines?

It is the system which is now on trial, that arrangement of 1899 by which line and engineer officers became one, and are now supposed to be ready to serve on the deck or in the engine room, as they may happen to be assigned. Under it the conditions in the navy have gone steadily from bad to worse. Secretary Bonaparte himself has published his uneasiness over it. Rear-Admiral Melville, our best naval engineer, has repeatedly come out against it. Even the present engineer-in-chief, Rear-Admiral Rae, in his last annual report, called for additional engineering specialists—82 in number—and admitted the present dangerous conditions by saying that "such a plan, if systematically carried out, would soon furnish the service with a body of competent engineers, and would place engineering where it properly belongs, in the line of the navy." But just why 82 engineering specialists, most of them doing permanent shore service and never going to sea, should be considered as part of the line, except by courtesy, may well be asked. Plainly, this plan is nothing but a compromise; an endeavor to have a separate body devoting all its time to engineering, and yet indistinguishable from line officers by rank, dress, or title.

Still another defence of the amalgamation is that by Lieut.-Commander Chandler in the current *Proceedings of the Naval Institute*. He is certain that the *Bennington* disaster and the consequent attacks upon present conditions should not alter the law of 1899. Like Rear-Admiral Rae, he admits that so young and inexperienced an officer as Ensign Wade should never have been given full charge of the *Bennington's* engines. Such defects as have arisen in the working of the law, he attributes to the "enormous deficiency in the total number of officers, and the comparatively little time and attention given to steam engineering in comparison with other branches of education." Young officers, he finds, have not been encouraged to give special attention to engineering, and those who have taken it up have done so without any particular assistance from the Navy Department. The fact that a few line officers have by their own personal exertions perfected themselves in engineering is to him proof positive that amalgamation can be made all that was expected of it, provided only that the law be lived up to. Yet even he admits the necessity of some change in the original plan in order to provide the navy with designers of engines as well as operating engineers.

Rear-Admiral Luce has put the question now before the public in the smallest compass in the current *North American Review*. It is "whether or not a man can master two professions." Can he be at once a competent steam-engineer and also a naval officer, whose duties may require him to be a torpedo and gunnery expert, a navigator, an infantry drill-master, an astronomer, and a master of international law? To Rear-Admiral Luce the task seems impossible; and so he heads his article "a plea for an engineer corps in the navy," coming out flatfooted for a return to the old state of affairs—with the one exception, that, in order not to bring about the old-time rivalry between line and staff, he would not have the engineers educated partly for the line at Annapolis, but wholly for the engine-room at some centre, like New York or Philadelphia, where engineering work in modern machine shops could go hand in hand with theoretical studies. In other words, he would give the engineer officers a more thorough training than that of the old days.

To some such plan as this we are convinced that the *Bennington* disaster should lead. We are of the same opinion as in 1899 that the amalgamation law aims at the practically impossible. In view of the reflection upon the Department in the outcome of the *Bennington* court-martial, some decision as to a change should be reached at the earliest possible moment. Either Rear-Admiral Rae's plan must be attempted, or Rear-Admiral Luce's. The former will inevitably lead to the latter, in our opinion. But what the public wants now, and has the right to demand, is the prompt assurance that no such inexperienced officer as Ensign Wade shall ever again be put in charge of engines, no matter how short-handed the Department may be, and that this whole engineering question shall at once be threshed out by a joint board of naval experts and civilians, in order that proper legislation may be prepared without any delay. The frank admission on all sides that the engineering service is in chaos, with the failure of the Mare Island court to punish, should lead to immediate action.

JOSEPH WHEELER.

The death of Gen. Wheeler emphasizes afresh the end of an era. There survives not a single one of the great military commanders of the Confederacy. Mosby, the scout and guerrilla, now residing in California, is perhaps the last of the Southern military leaders whose doings at one time were in every mouth. But of the Confederates of high soldierly renown won by the hardest kind of fighting in battle after battle not one still lives, unless we except Simon Bolivar Buckner or A. P. Stewart. The Northerners who commanded corps or independent forces and remain to tell of their exploits may almost be counted on a man's fingers: Schofield, Schurz, Howard, Dodge, Sickles, Grierson, Merritt, T. J. Wood, Wilson—the list is pitifully short, particularly when one considers that three-quarters of a million of the rank and file are still on our pension rolls.

A great cavalry leader Joseph Wheeler undoubtedly was before he was twenty-seven years of age. Robert E. Lee ranked him next to J. E. B. Stuart, who is admitted to have been the greatest cavalry genius produced on either side during the civil war. The Confederacy never had any prejudice against young men or West Point graduates. It did not allow them to be shoved aside by political generals as so often happened in the North. Hence, men like Wheeler, Stuart, Beauregard, the Lees, Johnston, Longstreet, and a number of former officers of the "old army" came to the front early in the South and continued as the stars of the service until the end. In the North, on the other hand, Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Meade, and Thomas were long in obtaining high commands.

In the cavalry particularly, the South had the advantage, especially as there were so many more practised horsemen to draw upon than in the North. Besides natural-born cavalry leaders like Stuart, Wheeler, and Fitzhugh Lee, it had Forrest, Mosby, and Morgan for scouting and guerrilla work, and for a time these men had things a good deal their own way. Gradually, however, the North found men to combat them at their own game. Sheridan, Merritt, Custer, Pleasonton, Grierson, Averell, Wilson, Kilpatrick—to mention a few—appeared upon the scene, and were capable not only of being the eyes of the army and protecting its flanks, but of conducting long raids into the enemy's country, destroying communications, and harassing an army by persistent sticking to its flanks.

This latter was a habit of Gen. Wheeler's in which he excelled. When Sherman marched to the sea, Wheeler was ever in touch with him, refusing to be driven off and clinging like a leech. Later on, when Sherman marched northward from Savannah, Wheeler again went after him, sticking to him no matter how worn his horses or tired out his men. That northward march of Sherman's is rightly celebrated because of the extraordinary physical difficulties encountered, owing to bad roads and worse weather. But what he did, Wheeler did too. Those same optimistic qualities which distinguished the little general at Santiago and made him confident that that city would soon be taken, even when he was down with fever and Gen. Shafter wanted to retreat, were then manifest, together with determination and aggressiveness. He and his associates and Northern rivals practically revolutionized the handling of cavalry, and made of it an extremely mobile mounted infantry, fighting with equal efficiency on horseback or on foot, as quick to throw up entrenchments as infantry, and able to endure extraordinary hardships and cover great stretches of territory with surprising speed. Europe was slow to learn the lesson of this, and has not yet wholly acquired it. To the British, however, the Boers brought it home, and, as Gen. Sir Ian Hamilton has recently said, Europe must speedily digest this and other teachings of our civil war if it would make progress in a military way.

While history will thus always have a very high place for Gen. Wheeler, it will also dwell much on the sentimental aspect of his career, which arises from his resumption in 1898 of the blue uniform which he, a rebel, had laid aside thirty-seven years before. It is not necessary to speak of this action of his and of Gen. Fitzhugh Lee as typifying the final reunion of the North and South to lend it its proper importance. In some aspects, the North and South are to-day as far apart as in 1861, and must continue to be, so long as there are radical differences between them over fundamental questions like that of the suffrage. Moreover, nobody had for years doubted that, in the event of a foreign war, the South would fight with all its old-time bravery and dash. Certainly no American citizen looked for anything else in 1898.

Nevertheless, the return to the United States Army of Fitzhugh Lee and Joseph Wheeler was both picturesque, striking, and (waiving the morality of the war itself) praiseworthy. History contains few parallels. That men branded in 1861 as traitors and rebels, as deserters from an army in its hour of need, from a Government which had educated and supported them, could within their life-time be given high rank and important commands in that same army, would have seemed impossible as late as 1880. It was the final proof af the far-sighted wisdom of the magnanimous policy of the victor towards the vanquished which must ever be one of the glorious pages in American history. Had Jefferson Davis and his Cabinet been hanged, and his generals imprisoned, permanently disfranchised and excluded from participation in the Government, there must have remained enduring sores and lasting grievances. As it was, Lee and Wheeler had no personal grudges to hold them back in 1898. It was not given to them to be of great military value to the Union in the war with Spain and the subjugation of the Filipinos, but their commissioning was well worth while from every point of view, and must have been for them the greatest happiness of their lives.

AUTHORS OF PRESIDENTIAL MESSAGES.

Professor Dunning of Columbia has reprinted from the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society his interesting paper on the first annual message of Andrew Johnson. That public document was, in fact, written by George Bancroft. This is the strange discovery which Professor Dunning made when rummaging among the Johnson papers in the Congressional Library. His story of the identification has almost a detective flavor. The notes and rough sketches of all of Johnson's messages were preserved in large envelopes, but the one covering the message of 1865 had little in it but a complete draft. This was in a handwriting not Johnson's or that of any person in his employ at the time. While Professor Dunning was mildly wondering at this manuscript, Mr. Worthington Ford came up, and, noticing the writing, said, "Why, that is George Bancroft's hand." Thereupon it flashed upon the Professor that he had seen in the files of Johnson's letters a note from George Bancroft, marked "private and confidential." It ran as follows:

> "My task will be done to-morrow, but as no one knows what I am about and as I am my own secretary, I must ask a day or two more for a careful revision and for making a clean copy, which must be done with my own hand."

The date of that letter was November 9, 1865. It was on December 5 that the message was sent to Congress. The interval was, therefore, just about what would have been natural for Bancroft's copying, and we have the draft of the message in the same handwriting as the note speaking of his "task," and referring to a "copy which must be done with my own hand." Careful collation of the Bancroft draft with the message as actually sent in and published, shows that there were only a few modifications of the phrasing, with here and there the insertion of a routine paragraph summarizing the work of a department. The demonstration is complete. The real author of the President's annual message of 1865 was, not Andrew Johnson, but George Bancroft.

This fact, we can now easily see, had much to do with the high favor with which the message was received by the country. Johnson was in a trying position. Not only had his unequal hand to be put to the work dropped by the mighty Lincoln, but he had, if possible, to overcome the unhappy impression made by his public behavior on entering office. It was feared that he would prove to be a boor of low habits. Hence it was certainly a stroke of luck for him that his first important state paper should bear the hall-mark of dignified writing. It won instant and wide praise. Professor Dunning quotes some of the current approval. The *Evening Post*, he reports, found the message "frank, dignified, direct, and manly," with "not a single ambiguous sentence." He notes also:

> "The *Nation*—and here was praise from the very throne itself—declared that any American might read it with pride, and found solid hope for democracy in the fact that such a document should have been produced by 'this Tennesseean tailor, who was toiling for his daily bread in the humblest of employments when the chiefs of all other countries were reaping every advantage which school, college, or social position could furnish.'"

Probably no other message was ever "conveyed" so bodily by a wise President, yet our Chiefs of State have usually been ready to exercise a sort of literary eminent domain. Whenever a friend or adviser had a happy thought or a well-written passage, apt for message or speech, Presidents have made it their own by appropriating it. There is more of Hamilton than Washington in the Farewell Address. Many of Andrew Jackson's public utterances came hissing hot from the fire of his kitchen cabinet. Mr. Cleveland was, no doubt, much beholden to the pens of others. Daniel Manning and David A. Wells are

supposed to have been responsible for some of the phraseology of his famous tariff message; and Gresham and Olney left their sign manual on the Hawaiian and Venezuelan messages. But Presidents have always leaned heavily, in such matters, upon their Secretaries of State. It was noted that President McKinley's speeches and state papers gained an unwonted and welcome literary quality after Mr. Hay had entered the State Department. In a Boston speech, that least poetical of Presidential orators dropped into verse from a little-known poem of Mr. Hay's own. As for our present voluminous producer in the White House, no one living man will have the audacity to claim personal responsibility for anything but a few drops of that mighty flood; yet there are literary claimants, even here, ranging all the way from Jacob Riis to President Mellen.

We are dealing, of course, with no vulgar question of plagiarism. The problem of authorship, strictly speaking, seldom arises in connection with Presidential messages. They, as a rule, are mosaics; and only the higher critic who can confidently dissect out the documents in the Pentateuch would venture to assign the various bits to the Secretaries, or others, who contributed them. Indeed, it is hard to think of a President as an Author. Greater things are for him. Of none of our Chief Magistrates could it have been written what Horace Walpole said of a young sprig of nobility for whom he played the part of literary godfather: "He thinks nothing so charming as Authors, and to be one." The charming author, to a President, is the one to whom he can go in the seigniorial spirit of a Molière and take from him for his own use the noble sentiments he finds nowhere else so well expressed. This, it may be, is the reason why President Roosevelt quotes so often from himself.

MOZART.

Saturday afternoon's performance of "Don Giovanni" was the only contribution of the Metropolitan Opera House to the celebration of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of Mozart's birth, although "The Marriage of Figaro" and "The Magic Flute" may come as postludes later in the season. In our concert halls the jubilee week has been celebrated by putting at least one Mozart number on every programme. In Germany and Austria there has been a real Mozart revival, with headquarters, naturally enough, at Vienna, where the master spent the greater part of his short life and where he died. When Director Mahler, of the Imperial Opera in that city, accepted his post, nine years ago, he made the conscientious, artistic production of Mozart's operas the main object of his managerial activity. Beginning with "The Magic Flute" and "Figaro," he gave performances which served as models for all Europe in the same way in which Wagner intended the Bayreuth festivals to demonstrate to the world the right method of interpreting his own music dramas.

Mahler once confessed that his understanding of Mozart had come much more slowly than his appreciation of other masters. Others have had this experience. Edvard Grieg wrote a magazine article a few years ago in which he berated the Wagnerites for underrating Mozart, although Wagner himself had said: "I believe in God, Mozart, and Beethoven." Grieg tells us that he himself "loved Mozart, then for a time lost him, but found him again, nevermore to lose him." Tchaikovsky wrote to Frau von Meck: "I not only like Mozart, I idolize him. . . . The music of 'Don Juan' roused in me a divine enthusiasm which was not without after-results. . . . It is thanks to Mozart that I have devoted my life to music." Gounod wrote: "The score of 'Don Giovanni' has influenced my life like a revelation." To him Mozart was the master of masters. The three composers just cited belong to Norway, Russia, and France; their testimony bears witness to Mozart's remarkable influence beyond the boundaries of Greater Germany. Such internationalism seems particularly meet in his case, as he himself represents a fusion of Italian and German elements, with a dash of French influence; for Paris, during the several months he spent there as a youth of twenty-two, taught him not a little, especially in the line of orchestral coloring. On Italy, Mozart exerted a deep influence through Rossini and his followers; yet, oddly enough, although he wrote all but two of his operas in the mellifluous Italian style and to Italian words, none of them has ever been really popular in that country, whereas the rugged, boreal music-dramas of Wagner are much in vogue there. Herein lies one of the mysteries of musical history. One of Director Mahler's experiences in Vienna illustrates the present attitude of music lovers in general toward Mozart's operas. Five years ago he mounted "Così fan tutte" in the most sumptuous and artistic manner. No detail was neglected that might help to ensure success, but the deficits reported from the ticket office compelled him, after two months, to drop the opera. Last December, in view of the impending jubilee, he tried to revive it—but in vain; only the first performance drew a satisfactory audience, although the cast was excellent and the attention to details had gone so far as to give the leader a chance to accompany the recitatives on a genuine, specially constructed clavichord. It is useless to meddle with the musical dial. Opera-goers in Vienna, as in New York, have long since made up their mind that of Mozart's seven chief operas ("Idomeneo," "Entführung," "Così fan tutte," "La Clemenza di Tito," "Figaro," "Don Giovanni," and "Magic Flute"), only the three last named suffice for an evening's entertainment. The others contain some gems, but on the whole not only fail to move us, but do not even arouse our interest, except as students of musical history. In other departments the ravages of time are even more conspicuous. Of Mozart's three dozen or more songs, only one survives in concert halls; of his forty-one symphonies, only three are heard today, and those not often; of his still more numerous sonatas and other pieces for pianoforte, barely half-a-dozen are known to modern concert-goers.

It would be incorrect to make the flight of time entirely responsible for this state of affairs. Bach was born seventy-one years before Mozart, yet his works are steadily gaining ground while Mozart's are losing. The conditions of the latter's unfortunate life, and his manner of composing, account for the ephemeral nature of most of his works. He wrote music as other people write letters. Grieg relates that one time, when in Vienna, he saw the MS. of the D minor concerto for piano. "In the finale Mozart was in some way or other interrupted in his writing. When he again took up his pen he did not continue where he had left off. A stroke of the pen over the excellent piece, a new finale, the one which we all know! No laborious search for the lost thread." In some cases this impromptu method worked well; in others it did not. A great proportion of his 626 works are mere *pièces d'occasion*. He wrote songs for his friends as they wrote their names in albums, and cared not what became of them. Many of his pianoforte works were composed specially for his pupils. "The silkworm produces its smooth, regular ball of silk without effort," writes Professor Shedlock, "and in like manner Mozart could turn out allegros, rondos, sets of variations *à discrétion*. The sonata in C minor is, to our thinking, the only one in which he was entirely absorbed in his art."

When, however, Mozart was thus entirely wrapped up in his work he achieved results equalled by few and surpassed by none. His "Don Giovanni" and "Magic Flute," in particular, contain imperishable pages of inspiration; here are oceans of melody and marvels of dramatic characterization, which make it seem probable that had he lived more than a paltry thirty-five years he might have anticipated Weber and even Wagner. He knew better than any one else that he had just arrived at the threshold of his greatest possible achievements. "And now I must go," he said on his deathbed, "just as it has become possible for me to live quietly. Now I must leave

my art just as I have freed myself from the slavery of fashion, have broken the bonds of speculators, and won the privilege of following my own feelings, and composing freely and independently whatever my heart prompted."

Although Mozart's life was thus, like that of Schubert, whom he resembled in so many ways, an "unfinished symphony," he wrote not only much immortal music, but music which it is particularly important that the composers of our time should study and take as a model, because it is preëminent for two important elements which they foolishly neglect, to wit, melody and simplicity. Richard Strauss, the leader of the contemporary culprits, has expressed his great admiration of Mozart; but if imitation is the sincerest form of flattery, then his own works are a criminal libel on Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN AND ELECTRICITY.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 23, 1906.

One notes a tendency among certain physicists to return to Franklin's one-fluid theory of electricity, and to identify his electric fluid with the ether. This tendency is seen, perhaps, more strongly in England than on the Continent, and it is accompanied by an idealistic trend of thought which forms one of the most remarkable reactions between physics and metaphysics. It naturally leads one, on this anniversary of his birth, to examine his work in electricity, and to comment upon the attitude of the philosophers who seize the present confusion of physicists in the presence of radium and the mysterious phenomena of the X-rays to proclaim the ultimate reversion of the thinking world to an idealistic conception of matter and energy.

It is not often that a scientific man can appeal by his experiments to the whole human race so that, from the most ignorant to the most cultivated, the experiments become household lore. Franklin, we have believed from our infancy, drew the thunderbolts from the sky; in our minds he is the incarnate Prometheus. His kite experiment was dramatic, and the setting of the stage more impressive than an Irving could accomplish. Great cumuli, formed, like the fisherman's genie, out of thin air, darkened the heavens, and, flashing with ire, came on the rising wind to the accompaniment of thunder. The calm philosopher stood with bared head at the centre of the stage, and, by his renowned action, stirred to life the Promethean myth—the strange myth which seemed to foreshadow the relinquishment to man of a celestial fire. Without detracting from his philosophic insight, it can be said in passing that his safety in making the kite experiment is one of the most convincing examples of luck on record. An immediate follower of his example was killed, and to-day no one, even a boy, would dare to repeat the experiment. Instead of being covered with opprobrium for what the common-sense Yankee still calls "monkeying" with lightning, he became the greatest electrician of his age, thus uniting a command over one of the most subtle manifestations of nature to his influence over "that fiery particle, the mind of man." His kite experiment led to a renewed interest in experiments with Leyden jars and electrical machines—experiments which were not due to him alone, but which were brought into notice by his dramatic experiment. The fashionable world of Paris amused itself with electrical experiments; and, instead of playing bridge, the court ladies stood on insulated stools and gave sparks to adoring courtiers. In most colonial houses, fifty years ago, there was a popular engraving representing Franklin at the court of Louis the Sixteenth, being crowned by the ladies in the presence of a brilliant assembly of courtiers. Artists painted him gazing out of the canvas with that imperturbable smile "o'er all the ills of lightning victorious," while forked flashes were seen through the open window.

When we examine Franklin's work in electricity, we discover that the results of his experiments and the repetition of those of foreign investigators are embodied in his one-fluid theory—a theory which seems to have been given a new lease of life by the modern theory of the negative corpuscle. In Franklin's view, the negative state of a body was explained by a deficit of a fluid. The negative-corpuscle theory accounts for it by the detachment of a negative corpuscle from a positively charged body. A positively charged pith-ball shows a negative state when the negative corpuscles are detached, in comparison with a positively charged pith-ball which retains its full complement. We can picture to ourselves a species of electrical vacuum thus created between the balls. The electrical condition of the surrounding space is disturbed and the balls are forced together. This statement merely expresses what takes place, without giving any illuminating reason for the action; and we have to confess that we are no nearer a decision between the claims of the one-fluid theory and the two-fluid theory which was in vogue before Franklin enunciated the former, than the philosophers were 200 years ago. The truth is, that Franklin got hold of the hardest end of electricity, and could not make much progress. His experiments were interesting, but did not really lead to the great development of electricity seen in the nineteenth century. The electric spark may be said to contain the whole potentiality of electricity. During 200 years we have learned little more than Franklin knew about it; and it must be confessed that our study of lightning has not conduced to the great development of practical electricity. Indeed, lightning is still a terror and an impediment to electrical enterprise. It was reserved for that remarkable race, the Italians, through Galvani and Volta, to open a more fruitful method of studying the phenomena of electricity. Without the battery, Franklin's results would have remained on a par with the philosophic observations of the Greeks—somewhat more extensive, but food for philosophy rather than for science, being devoid of measurement. Without measurement, science cannot advance beyond the wild surmise of the philosopher. It must be said, however, that Franklin had the merits of an early explorer, and doubtless excited the imagination and increased the interest in the subject of electricity. The explorer on the Peak of Darien, gazing on the mysterious ocean spread before him, doubtless thought of Eldorado, new peoples, and wonderful products of new climes. As long as philosophers worked with electrical sparks without measuring instruments, their vision did not include an electrical Eldorado.

Franklin had a clear sense of the universality of the manifestations which he studied; and when Mr. James Alexander of New York suggested that the velocity of electricity could be measured by allowing it to run down certain rivers and to work its way back by other water-courses, Franklin showed clearly that all parts of such a circuit would respond instantly to an electrical stimulus. He evidently believed, however, with Mr. Alexander, that electricity would follow the water-courses instead of being instantly dissipated in the earth; for he ranked water with metals in respect to electrical conductivity.

When we class Franklin with the non-measuring philosophers, we shall be asked, "Did Faraday ever make a quantitative measurement?" and we can answer that Faraday had essentially a mathematical mind, which did not express itself in symbols: he was a scientific poet without the rhyme. His mathematical conception of lines of force forms the basis of the most mathematical and the best treatise on electricity ever published, Maxwell's treatise on electricity and magnetism. We propose, therefore, to class Franklin among philosophers who have condescended to study nature—the type which has a *raison d'être*, but which is not the best working type, for they have not the essential tools. His principal work in electricity resulted in the formulation of the one-fluid theory, which we may class as a philosophical production, not engendering any unanimity of belief; and in the kite experiment, with the application of the result to lightning-rods. Even to-day there is not a realizing sense of the amount of energy which is often manifested in a lightning discharge, and which no lightning-rod is competent to carry to the ground. The early experiments with glass electrical machines and with Leyden jars, and the celebrated kite experiment, gave an erroneous impression of lightning. Timid people still seek safety in a thunderstorm in featherbeds, sit on chairs provided with glass legs, stand on plates of glass, or feel confidence in rubber boots. A moment's reflection will convince us that a discharge of lightning often many hundred feet in length cannot be prevented by a few inches of glass or any insulator. It would be highly unsafe to repeat Franklin's kite experiment if one stood on a plate of glass in proximity to the string, for lightning exhibits a side flash. From the fact that Franklin was not killed, certain electricians believe that he did not actually draw lightning from the skies, but merely showed that there was a difference of electrical state between the higher regions of the sky and the ground. On many days under a clear sky one can obtain sparks from a kite string suitably conducting. It was reserved for Faraday to show that the only complete protection from lightning is a metallic cage.

I should soon lose the attention of the general reader if I endeavored to develop at length the theory that all matter is electrical, and that it consists of knots in the ether. This theory is based *au fond*

on what is termed electric inertia—that is, the disposition of an electric current to continue when the circuit, or wire carrying it, is broken, and to resist starting when the circuit is made, or the ends of the connecting wire are coupled with the dynamo or battery. This illustration of something resembling the inertia of matter is not a very scientific one, but it perhaps enables one to grasp the idea that the reactions between currents of electricity formed in space might cause the inertia which enables us to conceive of matter. The attitude of physicists toward this electrical theory of matter is simply this: Let us see how far a mathematical treatment based upon this new conception will carry us, for in this analysis we may be able to clarify our views without committing ourselves finally to a theory which seems at first sight to be so opposed to daily experience, a theory of no matter. Franklin, in his one-fluid theory, did not identify electricity with possible motions or knots in a universal ether. He held fast to the usual conception of matter, something that you could hit your head against; and he conceived of a subtle fluid, the electric fluid, which was contained in different proportions in all bodies. The particles of the fluid are supposed to repel one another, according to the law of the inverse square of the distance, and to attract those of matter according to the same law. Those of matter are supposed to repel each other and attract those of electricity. We have, then, cases of surcharge and cases of deficit, which are analogous, perhaps, to conceptions now much in vogue in England, and which arise from the theory of the negative corpuscle.

The power of words has never been more strongly exemplified than by the effect on mankind of the celebrated line of the Frenchman, "Eripuit cœlo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis." I have analyzed the major part of this proposition, and I leave the minor part to the historians.

JOHN TROWBRIDGE.

WINTER EXHIBITION AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, January 1, 1906.

For some few months past, various rumors have been about as to the change the Academy proposed to make in the character of its Winter Exhibition. Academicians, it was said, had discovered that the result of the annual show of Old Masters was the depreciation of their own work, and had therefore decided that, to bring back academical masterpieces into favor, there was nothing to do but to boycott the Old Masters. It looks, however, as if, when the time came, the Academicians had not the courage of their weakness. To judge from the exhibition just opened, in order to avoid too abrupt a change, they hit upon a compromise, and resolved to boycott only the foreigner, planning a representative showing of English masters from the days of William Dobson to the very last Academician who died but yesterday. Then, at the last moment, apparently they hesitated again—afraid of the public, afraid of the critics, afraid of the Morellians, for whom the Winter Exhibition has lately been a happy hunting-ground—and a few foreigners were allowed to creep in, to the utter destruction of whatever unity in the series had been proposed.

I do not write this to find fault, for, as it happens, the little group of foreign work contains two or three of the most important pictures in the gallery. The show would be notable were it only for the appearance in it of a Franz Hals, hitherto, in modern times anyway, unknown to fame. That it should have remained unknown so long is the more extraordinary because it is so large a canvas you would hardly think it could have passed unnoticed, especially as it is years now since interest in Hals was revived and he took his rank again, as he should, among the masters. The painting belongs to Colonel Warde, who, it is said, now insures it for ten thousand pounds, though it was bought early in the last century for virtually a song, a mere trifle of eighteen pounds. Prices, it is true, have nothing whatever to do with the real value of a picture, but they make an amusing commentary on the changes of fashion among art patrons, who think themselves people of taste. It is a characteristic Hals, a large portrait group of "The Painter and his Family," according to the Catalogue—of any other family rather than his, according to some critics. Against a landscape background husband and wife sit side by side, their hands clasped. By the father stands the son, a mere lad; the daughter, young and demure, stands near the mother; between and a little behind them, a small black boy, the one solemn person in the group. To the right of the girl, you look to a wide stretch of open country, beautifully suggested, and, in the distance, a town, a low red blur on the horizon. The picture has not the irresistible gayety, the life, the delightful abandonment of that memorable portrait of Hals and his wife in the Rijks Museum at Amsterdam. The richness and joy of youth have left her, just as the touch of rose has gone from her cap, and he—if it is Hals—no longer swaggers with the old light-hearted irresponsibility. But the picture is full of the most splendid, the most vivid, the most masterly passages. The painting of his own long, brown boots, turned down loosely at the top, is as amazing as anything Hals ever did, and the two children have more charm than is always found in his figures. The little girl, so tenderly, so broadly rendered, becomes positively beautiful in her shy, smiling homeliness, positively graceful in the childish awkwardness of her pose; one hand hanging stiffly at her side, the other holding a fan. And the way some of the detail is put in—her gloves, for instance, as well as the unclasped hand of the wife, and Hals's boots—is like a forecast of the splendid breadth of execution, the overwhelming truth, of those two marvellous groups of old men and old women at Haarlem.

This picture will probably monopolize the interest in the little series of Dutch and Flemish masters. But among the few Van Dycks of varying degrees of merit there is one of his very finest, "The Wife of Snyders." You have only to look to know that it was turned out by no diligent factory of pictures, that it is the work of the master, in which no pupils, no apprentices, no assistants, had part. It is very simple—a three-quarter length of a woman, seated, wearing a dark gown and the prim ruff and cap of the day. But it has the splendor, the unity of tone, that marks the masterpiece. The face and the hands, too, are full of character. The detail of lace and embroidery is most delicately indicated, and there is, on a table in the background, a vase of flowers so well subordinated to the figure that you do not see it at first, but, when you do see it, it strikes you as a little masterpiece in itself.

One other picture in the group I must mention, because it is the finest portrait I remember by Cornelius Janssens, a painter who so very often leaves one cold and indifferent. The title in the Catalogue is "Portrait of a Lady in Black," so that it does not, as in the case of the Van Dyck, borrow additional interest from the personality of the sitter. It has all the Dutch austerity of arrangement. It is a half-length; the lady is standing; her pose is simple, her dress is quiet, her jewels make no lavish display. But here again the charm is in the suggestion of character, the beauty of tone, the artist's fine sense of design. In so restrained a scheme he knew how to make everything tell, even to the little coat of arms placed in an upper corner, the one touch of brilliant color in the solemn harmony.

This series covers little more than the wall of one room. The English pictures fill all the other galleries. It is not easy to say upon just what system they were selected. At first, when it is found they begin with Hogarth, one thinks the idea was to make a representative and chronological collection; but many gaps are soon discovered. If, in the third gallery, one goes even further back than Hogarth, to Dobson, who here seems but an English re-echo of Van Dyck, there is nothing by Walker, the contemporary of Dobson, and the painter of that fine "Cromwell" in the National Gallery. There are good Wilsons and Turners, but Constable, Bonington, and Crome are poorly represented, and there is no Cotman at all. Coming down still later, it is hard to say why, if Rossetti and Burne-Jones are included, Ford Madox-Brown should be left out; why, if so much space is reserved for Simeon Solomon, whom the Academy did not care to recognize during his somewhat tempestuous and disreputable life that has only just ended, none could have been spared for an Academician like Dyce, who had much in common with the Pre-Raphaelites and was so much more scholarly than any one of them. The inclusion of Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Simeon Solomon, and others, to whom the Academy remained indifferent when generous recognition would have been of use to them, might almost suggest a belated act of reparation on the part of the Academy. But when their pictures are reached, after passing through three galleries of the work of the earlier British painters, one is inclined to believe the reparation not altogether untinged with malice.

I have said who the foreign Old Masters are, and tried to give some idea of their work. If the earlier British pictures have been gathered together without any particular rhyme or reason, a number of them show what great things had been accomplished by the British school before the protest of the Pre-Raphaelites made itself seen—and heard, too—in the Victorian wil-

derness. There is nothing of Hogarth's to equal "The Shrimp Girl" in the National Gallery, but the portraits are fairly good examples of his power of observation and his tremendous command of technique, and there is a group at Wanstead House that, if somewhat naïvely stiff in the arrangement and pose of the little figures, has, in the room where they are gathered, the beauty of tone and the stateliness he knew how to get out of the domestic architecture and decoration of his time. I have seen more distinguished Reynoldses before this at Burlington House, but it is interesting to come upon the originals of mezzotints and color-prints so popular just now. And then his "Miss McGill, afterwards Countess of Clanwilliam," from Cobham House, I do not think has been publicly exhibited before for many years, and his huge portraits of George III. and Queen Charlotte, if conventional and perfunctory presentments of royalty, are treated with a dignity and an impressive and appropriate sumptuousness of color rarely, if ever, found in the royal portraits of to-day, the royalty of our generation seeming instinctively to want the wrong thing in art, and the painters, on the other hand, becoming paralyzed in the royal presence. Gainsborough, too, I have seen to greater advantage in previous exhibitions. But there is a "Miss Adney," a half-length in an oval frame, all delicate rose and white, that is lovely as decoration if the face is unusually flat and pretty, even for Gainsborough, whose talent was not for vigorous and solid modelling. His "Giardini," the violinist, also tells—the portrait of a man in red coat, that has real beauty of color and much more vigor and life than many of his more celebrated canvases. And the not very well-known portrait of his two daughters has a personal interest, though it fades and the figures seem vague and impersonal when they are compared to the wonderful children in the Hals group.

On the whole, the most striking portraits of the British School come from the men of lesser reputation. The Raeburns are numerous, and are mostly excellent examples, but there is among them one in particular—"Of a Girl" is the indefinite title—that possesses a charm not very often characteristic of his work. The child, delightfully placed on the oval of the canvas, sits with her hands folded in her lap, her long, loose brown mits repeating the note of dull gold in her hair. She is without the sentiment, she is spared the accessories, Reynolds loved. Just as she is in the portrait, so Raeburn may have seen her many times, shy and quiet, sitting with her elders. The pose natural to her was the pose that pleased him, nor did he attempt to improve upon her simple white dress, content to give it no new beauty except the beauty of the triumphant sweep of his well-charged brush. Among the Romneys, also, there is one that stands out above the others, "Mrs. Dawes," a lady long past her first youth, full of the fascination of Lady Hamilton, so that he was able to see more than prettiness in her face, to enjoy the amusing color in her silk gown of orange shot with green, the fine quality of her laces, the depth and air in the gray background. More surprising, however, is the "Portrait of Mrs. Warde," by Opie, who so seldom has any surprises in store for us. But this is really charming in the sympathetic rendering of a charming head and the decorative pattern got out of the placing of the large straw hat with its blue ribbons.

The selection of the landscapes has not been so fortunate, though for this very reason they had on Press Day the greatest success with the critics, who see small use for a picture that cannot be attributed to a painter never credited with it before. "Is it beautiful?" is no longer asked, but, "Is it right?" A stately "Rouen," the white cathedral towering above town and river and bridge, catalogued as a Turner, was dismissed as "not right at all, though the very thing the American would pronounce a characteristic example." Turner may never have painted it, but why the deceit should take in the American particularly, it would be difficult to say, since, if it had not been for the mistakes all Europe made during centuries in the cataloguing of characteristic examples, where would be the modern game of "attributions"? However, right or not right, there are a few very beautiful landscapes, none more beautiful in my eyes than a little "Lake of Nemi" by Richard Wilson, classical in arrangement it may be, with the towered town on a height in the foreground, but so full of light and air—the far hills with houses scattered over the slopes gradually fading into a gray haze on the horizon—that Corot might have signed it. There are also two or three good Turners—a "Venice," a "Pilot-Boat." And De Wint, with a sombre, imposing "Lincoln," is the surprise among the landscape painters as Opie is among the portrait painters.

Altogether, if there are not many great masterpieces, the average of the work of the earlier British masters is excellent. It sets the standard you carry with you into the first of the rooms devoted to the more modern painters—a Pre-Raphaelite room, Holman Hunt is absent, because the death of the artist is a necessary qualification for the admission of his pictures. But Millais and Rossetti appear, and, with them, hang Burne-Jones, their immediate disciple, and Simeon Solomon, a later follower, and Val Prinsep, who, evidently from the canvas now shown, was very much with them at one time. And how does Pre-Raphaelitism come out of the test to which it is now put? Honestly, my feeling was entirely one of disappointment. There was such youth, such romance, such audacity in the Pre-Raphaelite movement—though I ought to add that the more the members of the Brotherhood write about it, the less romance and the less audacity remain; but not even the confessions of Holman Hunt can rob it of its youth, and the movement was a revolt as truly as the Romanticism of *les Jeunes* in France in the thirties, as the realism of the ardent little group of the sixties and seventies. In the other galleries you can form some idea of what it is the Pre-Raphaelites revolted against. There are landscapes with the brown tree and the brown grass that were the deadly sins of art to Holman Hunt; there are a couple of Wilkies, with the trivial tale and sentiment that were to him anathema. And what did the Pre-Raphaelites give in the place of the old conventions? Millais's "Knight at the Ford," the only one of his Pre-Raphaelite pictures shown, may be taken as a fairly typical example. It is in many ways very fine, a remarkable performance for a youth—if, in looking at it, one could only forget the delightful caricature Sandys made of it, the lithograph, now very rare, that Sandys once told me offended Ruskin's father much more than Ruskin himself.

Holman Hunt, in his big book, has just been explaining again what were the methods of this little band of reformers. The same explanation is in some of Millais's letters already published. The young men went down into the country with all the enthusiasm of missionaries, painted their landscape background from nature day after day, and all day, no matter what the effect or how it changed with the rising or sinking of the sun in the heavens. They left spaces for the figures they afterwards copied from their models when they came up to town. I doubt if the "Knight at the Ford" was done quite as scrupulously as the "Ophelia" or "The Huguenot," but all the defects of the method still clung to Millais when he painted it. The horse, with its burden of three figures, in the foreground, looks as if it had been cut out and pasted on. Turn from it, back into the other room, to that big canvas by Hals. How well in the landscape the figures are, how entirely they belong to it! The Pre-Raphaelite gives a thin flat surface of paint; the Dutchman, with no mission in the world except to paint as well as he knew how, gives nature, gives life, as it is. It may be that the Pre-Raphaelites soared to higher themes than Wilkie, with his tiresome "Blind Man's Buff" and "Rabbits on the Wall," but they were apt to let their subjects get the better of them. Some of the pictures I have always remembered as the most splendid by Burne-Jones have a place—"Love among the Ruins," "Laus Veneris." But look at the "Laus Veneris," with its group of women in bright crimson and scarlet and blue, and then turn back again to the Hals and look at the group there, and you will see how much more splendid and sumptuous the color is in their sombre brown and black. Burne-Jones's design seems as much a piece of tapestry as the tapestry he painted on the wall behind the women; and as for the distance out of the window, where the knights pass, it has not the beauty that even Wilkie could give, in the little "Errand Boy" in another room, to so insignificant a feature as a distant rose-flushed cottage wall with a green water-butt set against it. The Pre-Raphaelites have proved nothing so much as that subject does not make great art, and that conscientiousness is not the chief virtue of the artist. Holman Hunt might fill a dozen more large books with his profession of their faith, himself as their high-priest and prophet-in-chief, and still could not make us discover in their pictures a beauty that had not been surpassed by the great masters—and some of the little masters, for that matter—who were to him no better than renegades and infidels. After the older work in the collection, the paintings in this series look weak and thin and empty.

It is in the chance for this comparison that I found my chief interest in seeing them at the Academy. Besides, there is the less need to dwell on individual examples because they have been so many times described—for instance, Rossetti's "The Beloved" and "Mnemosyne," and several of the small water-colors, really the best things he ever did; Burne-Jones's series of "The Princess Sabra." The Simeon Solomons hardly seem to me to justify the at-

tention this artist is just now attracting in London. His drawings, which are not exhibited, are better than his overworked paintings and mystery-laden, self-conscious water-colors.

Of the other paintings there is little to be said except that there is a fine landscape by Cecil Lawson, who was never in the Academy, and work by recent Academicians and Associates that ought to make the Academy do penance in sackcloth and ashes for the rest of its existence. There are some interesting things in the water-color room, among them a number of Turner's mountain peaks and mountain lakes, and here and there a delicate little drawing by artists like Fred Walker and Pinwell. The Black-and-White Room is devoted to a collection of drawings and sketches by Watts, studies for his pictures, which would have been more appropriately shown with the exhibition of his paintings last winter.

N. N.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS IN AUSTRALASIA.

SYDNEY, December 25, 1905.

New Zealand has just been the theatre of one of the most keenly contested struggles these colonies have witnessed. All Australia hung, breathless, on the late triennial general elections in the southern colony. Within the British Empire the sun rises earliest in New Zealand, and there (to borrow Daniel Webster's fine image) the drum-beat of State Socialism started, in company with it, on its journey round the world. The system on which the colony timidly embarked thirteen years ago, with the Socialist developments which Australia is day by day adopting from it, and which the Motherland, under the new Liberal ministry, may now begin to adopt, was on its trial. Industrial arbitration, old-age pensions, and the nationalization of the land were the chief bones of contention. Both sides made extraordinary efforts. In the preceding session the Government carried a number of Socialist measures. It increased the amount of the old-age pension by almost 50 per cent. It devised a large scheme of State dwellings for workmen. It legislated against Trusts. It proposed to augment by 50 per cent. the sum annually devoted to repurchasing private estates in order to provide small farms for the moneyless settler. Not content with these performances added to the long list of suchlike measures already on the statute book, the Cyclopean energy of the Premier was lavish in promises. He undertook to build 3,000 workmen's homes and (reviving an old idea of John Bright's) to provide "a free breakfast-table" in every one of them. He held out the hope that old-age pensions would yet be made universal.

The Opposition, for its part, showed no lack of resource. It created two more parties—the New Liberals and the Independent Labor party. It exposed the financial condition of the colony—the heavy burden its Socialism was laying on it in an indebtedness of sixty millions sterling, the pressure of taxation increased in ten years by a guinea a head, and the cost of living raised by at least 20 per cent. It recalled the "gagging bill" passed last session, by which freedom of speech on the platform was restricted. It denounced the despotism of the Premier who has for twelve years been governing New Zealand as Bismarck ruled Prussia, the slavery of the civil service, which must vote as he orders, and the reign of terror that is extinguishing every spark of independence throughout the colony. All its efforts were worse than fruitless; they recoiled on itself. The New Liberals were decapitated. The Independent Laborites were wiped out. The Opposition was almost annihilated. The Government majority of two to one was converted into a majority of more than three to one. By what seemed a virtually unanimous vote, the colony riveted on its own neck the yoke of its Socialist administration, its autocratic Premier, its moral enslavement. If it is in chains, it is in love with its chains.

A closer scrutiny gives a somewhat different complexion to the result. In round numbers, 200,000 males and females (for the suffrage is bisexual) voted for the Government, and 170,000 voted for the Opposition. Had 30,000 individuals voted differently, the relations of parties would have been reversed. Had an equitable method of voting been in use, the Opposition would have been returned with six-sevenths as many members as the Ministerialists, whereas it has less than one-third as many. An enlightened Minister vainly tried to introduce the Hare method into the colony, and similar unsuccess attended its attempted introduction into the Commonwealth; but it has for years been in force in the two chief towns of Tasmania, and the Tasmanian Government lately proposed to extend it to the entire State. Proportional representation is the dream of all liberals in countries where no constitutional limits are set to legislative omnipotence.

Though old-age pensions were a bone of contention between the rival parties at the late general elections, the contention was to determine which should have the most of it. The leader of the Opposition vied with the Premier in proposing to universalize them. There was no question of repealing the act creating them. The mere suggestion would have been fatal to the party making it. Those who are in the receipt of them, those who are looking forward to enjoying them, and all on whom both classes would be dependent, would have combined to defeat the proposal. The sentiment in Australia is almost the same. Though Tasmania, South Australia, and West Australia profess to be too poor to introduce them, no ministry would venture to abolish them in those States where they have been established. The retrenching Victorian ministry is at heart opposed to them, but all it has dared to attempt is to reduce the amount of the pensions and surround them with a variety of restrictions. The reforming ministry in New South Wales is no less secretly hostile, but it seeks only to lighten the cost of administering them, to sweep away abuses, and to expose the wrongful acceptance of them by individuals whose relatives are well able to support them. Queensland is about to introduce such pensions. Even the only free-trade ministry the Commonwealth has seen, though anti-Socialist on principle, was willing to enact a general system, applicable to all Australia, provided the various States would consent to the respective amounts being deducted by the Commonwealth treasurer from the proportion (three-fourths) of the customs duties returned to the States. The old-age pension is on its way to become a standing institution, permanently incorporated in the structure of the colonial governments.

Whether these adventurous colonies will be able to sustain the burden they are laying on their own shoulders, and by what means, are questions that are causing their administrators no little anxiety. More than twenty years ago, when the subject of old-age pensions was first broached, a pioneer Socialist minister toured New Zealand and expounded a plan for raising the necessary funds by means of voluntary contributions collected by the State and thereby made compulsory. That was on the model of the impracticable German system, which is even now advocated by moderate Liberals; but the tour was a failure, and the scheme could by no possibility have been a success. The more alluring Danish model has been deliberately adopted in both New Zealand and Australia. The principle of self-insurance has been ignored; all attempts to provide by special taxation for the consequent expenditure have been abandoned, and the outlay is being met from ordinary revenue. It is depleting, and in all the three colonies it far exceeds the original estimates. The various acts may, indeed, be affirmed to have been passed on false pretences, though it is doubtful whether the popular pressure could in any case have been resisted. In fact, the moment the bill was passed, a rush was made, and, for a time, till measures were taken to thin it, the crowd of applicants continued to swell. Were they all bona-fide, and such as the act contemplated?

Very much the contrary. The income-tax and old-age pensions together are making perjurers of a large portion of the population of Australia and New Zealand. A late Premier of Victoria admitted that there had been "some shocking cases of imposition." In New South Wales old and respected colonists are sent to prison for understating their income or their property. Others forge false declarations about themselves or the ability of their children to support them. In New Zealand the registrar states that "the extent of the imposition practised and the amounts obtained by unscrupulous persons are almost incredible." In 1902, and again in 1903, large sums were recovered, by legal proceedings or otherwise, from pensioners who had been paid under fraudulent claims. In 1902 and 1903 many were struck off the rolls. And here the writer may be permitted to correct an error of his own in the *Yale Review* for August, 1904. He there stated that it was now practicable to measure the curvature of the parabola described by old-age pensions in common with all other sociological phenomena. After only five years of the operation of the act, it seemed that the curve had reached its apex, and the diminution of the pension roll by the death of old pensioners exceeded its enlargement by the addition of new pensioners. It was a sanguine conclusion. It is a fact that in 1903 and 1904 there was a notable decline in the number of pensioners, but this was not owing to the deaths overtaking the additions to the roll. It was exclusively due to the excision of fraudulent pensioners. The pension roll

yearly lengthens, and the Premier of New Zealand estimates that the increase will continue for years to come.

Two recent amending acts have in various particulars changed the complexion of the system in New Zealand and New South Wales. On the eve of the general elections the Premier of New Zealand introduced a bill which the Opposition described as "a magnificent electioneering bribe." The first and most important new provision was that the amount of the pension was raised from £18 to £26 annually. Mr. Seddon asserted that, since 1898, when pensions were first granted, the cost of living, in house-rent, food, and clothing, had so materially increased that £26 would now go no farther than £18 did then. The admission, if it is well-founded, seems to be a condemnation of the legislation that has brought about the increase; but that is by the way. The prosperous southern colony, it must be allowed, has shown remarkable self-restraint in so long refusing to yield to pressure by augmenting the pension. With far less excuse, impecunious Victoria began by fixing the amount at £26, which a retrenching ministry afterwards endeavored to cut down to £17, but was compelled by the Legislature to raise it to eight shillings a week, or almost £22. In New South Wales, not then at the end of a long chain of annual deficits, it was from the first extravagantly fixed at £26. Even now a reform Ministry does not dare to reduce the amount, which may be considered as henceforth the unalterable figure in all the colonies.

New Zealand, a pioneer in all social innovations, sound and unsound, has been the first to face the issue involved in the granting of old-age pensions. Is the pension a right or a dole? If it is a right, then all persons over sixty-five years of age, who have resided in the colony for twenty-five years, are entitled to receive it, and a late Minister for Works in New South Wales asserted that it is a right; but no other leading public man has ventured to take the same advanced ground. As already stated, the leader of the Opposition in New Zealand proposes that the difficulties arising from the necessity for discriminating between fit and unfit claimants should be obviated by making the pension universal, and the Premier looks wistfully in the same direction, but is scared by the vision of the enormous burden that would thus be laid on the shoulders of the colony. Successive purgings have brought down from 42 to 35 per cent. the proportion borne by actual recipients of pensions to those qualified by age and residence to receive them, but the registrar professes to be unable to forecast the numbers that would be thrown on the rolls should a period of industrial depression succeed the present somewhat factitious prosperity. General destitution would then make the pension practically universal.

The declarations of Australian Premiers on the character of the pension are uncompromising. A late Premier of Victoria averred that to call it anything else than a charity was mere "sentimental moonshine," and the Victorian Government has retrenched its pension roll by one-fourth on the score that the relatives of 4,000 of its pensioners were in a position to support them. The Premier of New South Wales asserts that a pension granted only to the necessitous cannot be described as other than a charity, and a chief feature of his amending statute is the machinery created to test the eligibility of applicants. He refuses to make it obligatory on near relatives to maintain a pensioner or a claimant, but great powers are conferred on the officers administering the act to make searching inquiries into all the circumstances of the applicants. A special clause gives effect to the avowal of the Premier that, if applications for pensions are made in open court, there will be an incentive to wealthy persons not to leave their poor relations unprovided for. In introducing the bill Mr. Carruthers (the first native-born Premier New South Wales has had, and the head of the first ministry consisting entirely of natives) gave ludicrous accounts of the well-to-do class of persons who have been literally enjoying pensions, and he confirmed the statement of his predecessor in office, that thousands whose relatives are well able to support them are in receipt of pensions. No feeling of pride deterred them from accepting their ten shillings a week. On the contrary, not a few individuals are proud of being pensioners, though it is doubtful if this sentiment will survive. They certainly must not be confounded with paupers. The intention of the act was, like the Danish system, to supply an honorable provision for superannuated wage-earners such as shall not be in the nature of poor-relief. The two categories, of pauper and pensioner, are quite distinct, and, so far are the pensions from having diminished the amount expended in State charitable aid, as it was claimed would be the case, that the two are mounting side by side. Perhaps the pension might be described as a cross between an equity and a charity. J. C.

Correspondence.

BLACK VERSUS ITALIAN LABOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be permitted to point out what appears to me to be an injustice, unintentional no doubt, in the account of the recent meetings of the American Economic Association at Baltimore, in the *Nation* for January 18? In speaking of the last session, devoted to the "Economic Future of the Negro," your correspondent sums up the papers and discussions in the following words:

"On the one hand, the black was shown to be a thrifty, reasonably industrious peasant, whose standard of life rises rapidly under favorable conditions; and on the other hand, he was characterized as a besotted degenerate, from whom neither progress nor even stability may be expected."

In so far as the second part of this statement is intended to apply to the leading paper of the session, that by Mr. A. H. Stone of Mississippi, it seems to me a most unfortunate misrepresentation. Mr. Stone took for his subject "The Factor of White Competition," and, after briefly showing how white labor has prevailed in Northern cities, he took up the question of white competition as a possible factor in Southern agriculture, where until recently the negro has been supreme. After showing that, during the ten years covered by the last census, the negro has lost ground slightly, he set forth the results of competition during the last seven years between Italian and negro labor on a large plantation at Sunnyside, Arkansas. The results were so marked in favor of the Italian that an inquiry into the causes of the negro failure was in order. These are to be found in well-known traits and habits. To quote Mr. Stone's words:

"Too much time spent out of his crop; too much putting off to a more convenient season; too much waiting for the weather to improve; a too constant and a too successful besieging of those in authority for money accommodations and supplies; too little reckoning against the future day of settlement; too much 'leaning on the Lord,' and too little upon himself in things not spiritual; too much living for to-day and not enough for to-morrow."

From the point of view of the planter, the greater efficiency, thrift, and, above all, reliability of the Italian make him more profitable as a laborer. Yet Mr. Stone pointed out that, on his own plantation, Dunleith, with negroes only, he had been able to make as good a showing, so far as the crop was concerned, as had the owner of Sunnyside with Italian labor. This was not due to difference in soil, for there is practically no difference, but to what he described as "about the most paternalistic system of plantation management since the war." Showing thus that it was possible for negro labor, closely supervised, to compete with white labor, little supervised, he pointed out that the negro could not hope always to be shielded from the full effect of white competition. He said:

"I do not believe it will ever come to me to do them [the negroes] a greater service than now, if only my voice could reach them, by telling them that here is the only key to the safety of their future economic position; it lies in arresting the growing agitation throughout the South of the movement for foreign immigration—by removing its cause. I believe the negro still has it in his power to do this, at least in large measure, by making of himself an efficient and dependable factor in the economic life of the South? I believe he *can* do this, but will he? It would mean a revolution in the present social and industrial life and habits of the masses. To me the outlook for such a course does not seem encouraging. It will be a slow process of attrition, when it really comes, the working out of the results of competition. It will not be attended by any sensational features. There will be nothing sudden about it nor will it mean the extinction of the negro as an economic factor. It seems to me that its effect will be merely to submerge the incompetent mass, and elevate in that very process such as can weather the storm."

It is true that Mr. Stone's view is not that of the blind optimist who judges the negro masses by the talented tenth; but it is equally remote from that of the blind pessimist who regards the negro as a "besotted degenerate, from whom neither progress nor even stability may be expected." Mr. Stone has proved himself so truly the friend of the negro, both on Dunleith plantation and in his spoken and printed utterances, that it seems to me only fair that when his attitude is, however unintentionally, misrepresented, some corrective statement should be made. W. G. LELAND.

CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON,
January 27, 1906.

Notes.

Persons having letters of important bearing upon the life and work of George Bancroft, the historian, are requested to communicate with M. A. DeWolfe Howe, 26

Brimmer Street, Boston. Originals will be carefully copied and returned. The Bancroft family have placed in Mr. Howe's hands all the collected biographical material for an authoritative Life and Letters.

Macmillan Co.'s spring announcements embrace 'Napoleon and his Times,' in the Cambridge Modern History Series; the second part of Thomas Hardy's drama, "The Dynasts"; Stephen Phillips's new play, "Nero"; 'The Development of Shakspere as a Dramatist,' by Prof. Geo. P. Baker; a 'Life of John Wesley,' by Prof. C. T. Winchester; 'The Cyclopædia of American Agriculture,' edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey; 'Tarry-at-Home Travels,' by Edward Everett Hale, with illustrations; 'Mars and its Canals,' by Percival Lowell; 'Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony,' by Prof. Domenico Mazzotto; 'The Manufacture of Wine,' by Paul Pacottet; and 'India,' by Flora Annie Steel.

'Great-Grandma's Looking-Glass,' a poem by Blanche Nevin, with full-page silhouettes by Annis Dunbar Jenkins, is announced by Robert Grier Cooke.

A slavish following of our practice of letting the name of the English publisher of an English book precede that of the American led us, in the title-page caption to our recent notice of Miliukoff's 'Russia and its Crisis,' to imply that the Chicago University Press was not the original publisher. Our attention has been called to this by the Press. The book-buyer may have no quarrel with us, but the bibliographer has grounds for one.

In a notice of the 'Further Recollections of a Diplomatist,' by Sir Horace Rumbold, we indicated the probability of another volume to complete the series, and it has now appeared under the title of 'Final Recollections of a Diplomatist' (London: Edward Arnold). The story of diplomatic life is brought down from 1885 to 1900, and covers Sir Horace's experiences at Athens, The Hague, and Vienna. His account of these courts and of the leading personages attached to them is mildly interesting, but leaves the impression that diplomats have very little to do except attend balls and other social gatherings. Possibly it was an excessive interest in these serious matters that delayed Sir Horace's diplomatic promotion, or it may have been a suspected incapacity for the lighter labors of diplomacy. Whatever the cause of this delay, Sir Horace considers that his merits were not properly appreciated by the Foreign Office, and he winds up his story with another grievance—that a retired diplomat is nobody at all.

> "Ci gît Piron, qui ne fut rien,
> Pas même Académicien."

Another book of "water-colors and pen-and-ink sketches in India,' which is remarkable more for the pictures than the print, lies before us, 'The High-Road of Empire,' by A. H. Hallam Murray (E. P. Dutton & Co.). It recalls agreeable memories to one who has travelled in that country, and contains chiefly pictures of well-known places such as the bathing-ghats of Benares, views of Agra, etc. Less familiar are the Bijapur sketches and views of Jodhpur. The aged author relates that he was easily able to leap across a stream ten feet wide—a somewhat unusual effect of the enervating climate of India. The text is pleasant, gossipy talk, with a due modicum of history and archæology.

The 'Memoirs of Catharine Grace Loch,' Senior Lady Superintendent of the Royal Red Cross in India, edited by A. F. Bradshaw, M.A., with an introduction by Lord Roberts (Henry Frowde), is a tribute to a cheery and brave soldier of the cross, who united executive ability with the "faculty of inspiring affection," as the editor says. She was a pioneer in the excellent work done for the soldiers of the crown in India, and her premature death after a few years of service left vacant a post difficult to fill. The memoir is largely autobiographical, being drawn from her letters and diary, and gives a very real picture of the conditions under which the work was carried on, as well as an insight into the noble character of this modest heroine of peace.

The fifth volume of the translation of Jātakas, begun under the editorship of the late Professor Cowell (Cambridge, Eng., University Press; New York: Macmillan), will be welcomed by all students of folklore to whom the original text is a closed book. The present translation is by H. T. Francis, who did part of the translation for the third volume in the same series. R. A. Neil, who assisted Mr. Francis in the former translation, died in 1901, leaving the whole burden upon the shoulders of the latter scholar. This accounts for the long delay in the appearance of the fifth volume, which includes books xvi.-xxi. (Jātakas 511-537), bringing the translation up to the end of the same volume of the text. The latter appeared in 1891. Another volume will see the whole excellent work completed.

The article of greatest general interest in the *Geographical Journal* for January is the Rev. Walter Weston's account of his travels in the Southern Japanese Alps. His descriptions of the wonderful scenery are illustrated by some remarkably fine reproductions of photographs. Of the peasantry he says that their simple, unaffected politeness and kindly hospitality leave the most delightful memories behind, while their honesty is demonstrated by the fact that in fourteen journeys among them he has been robbed but once. He had frequent opportunities of observing how their habits of life prepared them for the hardships and privations of the Mantchurian campaigns, as well as developed self-restraint, patience and resourcefulness. Their social organization is extraordinary, each village headman having a rough map of his district and being able to furnish the minutest information of the circumstances of any given family. What their powers of endurance are may be gathered from the statement that in Kofu, one of their most progressive towns, some of the silk filatures employ several hundred persons, chiefly young girls, whose hours are said to be fifteen per day, without a break for meals, or even a Sunday holiday, and this continues all the year round, with the exception of two months in the winter. The exploration of the Beaufort Sea, lying to the north of Alaska, is advocated by Sir C. R. Markham. It is the least-known part of the Arctic region, and the hoped-for discovery of land on the edge of the polar sea would solve an interesting geographical problem. The account of canal irrigation in the Punjab shows a wonderful achievement. On a tract three times as large as Rhode Island, which a few years ago was an uninhabited waste used only for grazing, are now raised annually crops mainly of wheat, oil seed, and cotton valued at $20,000,000. The paper read by Prof. W. M. Davis at the Johannesburg session of the British Association, entitled "The Geographical Cycle in an Arid Climate," is a study of the phenomena presented by the deserts of the world.

The report of the Librarian of Congress shows the Copyright Office up to date in the handling of its vast business, so profitable to the Government in cash profits and in the books and other articles secured for the Library. The Manuscripts Division has outgrown its cabinets, which must be doubled. Apropos of the recent acquisition of some Franklin Pierce papers, it is stated that "in 1901 the Library possessed the papers of no President of the United States. It now holds the papers of Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Jackson, Van Buren, Polk, Pierce, and Johnson. Breckinridge and Crittenden papers mark a notable increase in the Southern collections. In literary MSS., the Library is defective. The St. Louis Exposition contributed handsomely of its spoils to the Library, by international comity, as usual. Two appendices are given up to lists of prints from the Chalcographie du Louvre and of facsimiles of copper and wood-engraving of the old masters from the German Reichsdruckerei—more comity. The Librarian states that an international agreement on the subject of cataloguing is almost in sight.

It is a reasonable inference from the care lavished upon its catalogue to the ideals and standards of a publishing-house. The 'Portrait Catalogue' just issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is a more than fair example of the work of the Riverside Press, and is a desirable possession in itself. It is not the first of its class put forth by this firm, but it stands at the head in point of beauty of manufacture, without and within. The title-page alone is enough to stamp the quality of the Riverside bookmakers. It is beautifully invented. The portraits, domestic and foreign, are very numerous, and there is a brief history of the firm, with accounts of the several departments. The evolution of the title-page device is curiously illustrated at the close. The "Riverside" has been completely eliminated from Vedder's original conception.

Berlin papers report the establishment of a German-American literary "Vermittlungs-Bureau," called "The European Literary Bureau," with headquarters in Berlin W., Motzstrasse 41. This establishment represents American book and periodical publishers, and has for its special purpose to act as an agent between American and German publishers. Even in cases where it cannot undertake the handling of manuscripts, it aims to secure the rights of German authors and publishers in the United States, taking advantage of the law passed March 3, 1905. The bureau has also dealings with English and German theatres, and undertakes to handle plays in either country. Financially, it derives its support from the American participants, so that German authors and publishers are put to no expense if one of their books or theatrical plays is reproduced in this country.

In order to assist impecunious students in working their way through the univers-

ity. *Arbeitsämter* have been established, not by the university authorities, but by volunteer students' associations, in all the leading university towns of Germany. They offer to students of all nationalities and religions the opportunity of earning money by tutoring or becoming *Hauslehrer*, by assisting in collecting data for scientific researches, excerpting and transcribing documents, preparing indices, proof-reading, and the like. The services are free of cost to all applicants, and are rendered by volunteers from the students' associations.

According to the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, the philosophical faculty of Giessen has decided henceforth to issue its diplomas in the German and no longer in the Latin language. We believe this is the first instance of such an innovation by a German university faculty. The *Zeitung* expresses the hope that the bombastic exaggeration which the doctor diplomas inherited with the Latin will also be discarded, as nowadays the average doctor is anything but a *vir doctissimus*. With this change another piece of mediæval *Zopf* in academic life becomes a thing of the past.

A report comes from Rome that the Central Commission for Antiquities and Fine Arts, by a vote of seven to four, has decided to take up for serious deliberation the proposal of Professor Waldstein to establish an international association for the purpose of engaging in the excavation of Herculaneum.

In the *Mitteilungen* of the German Orient-Gesellschaft, the leader of the German expedition, Dr. Koldewey, reports a discovery of great importance for the topography of the city of Babylon, and for the location of the castle of Nebuchadnezzar. This is the famous Arachtu canal, so often mentioned in the inscriptions. News is also given of the work only recently undertaken by the Society in examining the ruins of synagogues in Galilee, in charge of the three savants, Kohl, Watzinger, and Hiller. A work is thus for the first time being done that Ernest Renan so warmly pleaded for more than forty years ago, as these synagogues are of great importance from the standpoint of architecture and the development of civilization in Palestine. How urgent the undertaking was, may be judged from the fact that a number of such sites, reported only a few years ago by various travellers, have now entirely disappeared, and the commission could report on only eleven remains, but all instructive specimens of their kind.

The Protestant College at Beirut, Syria, is remarkable among similar institutions for several reasons. Founded thirty-nine years ago by Dr. Bliss, with three rooms and ten students, it has now, says a writer in the *Churchman*, numerous and spacious buildings costing half a million dollars, and 736 students. The number would be much larger, many applicants for admission being refused, if it had funds for more land, buildings, books, and apparatus. Seventenths of the cost of instruction is borne by the students themselves. Its cosmopolitan character is shown by the fact that thirteen nationalities are represented in it, and, all race prejudices being laid aside, are working harmoniously together. In the preparatory department, English is taught, as it is the medium of instruction in the Schools of Commerce, Medicine, Biblical Archæology, and Philology, though Arabic, Turkish, French, and German are taught also. The distinguishing characteristic, however, is the catholic spirit with which the college is administered, so that the members of twelve distinct churches or religious bodies are to be found in it. Incorporated under the laws of the State of New York, it is independent of the missionary organization of any church, being one of the leaders in practical federation, welcoming and finding the coöperation of all.

Mr. Ellsworth Huntington, the American traveller, well known for his remarkable journey through the Great Cañon of the Euphrates, is engaged, together with another American, Mr. R. L. Barrett, in an exploration of the Tarim Basin in Chinese Turkestan. From a dispatch summarized in the London *Times*, we gather that the summer and early fall of 1905 were spent in studying the river system in the southern part of this region, with a view to supplementing the work of Dr. Sven Hedin in elucidating its physical history. The resemblance of the basin, with its sand waves, huge shingle beach, and green tide-flats, to an inland sea is striking, and, but for the absence of water, it would be a genuine Mediterranean. The ruins of ancient villages were found to be considerably more numerous and to cover a much larger area than had been expected. Three new sites were discovered, of which the farthest in the desert must have been once the centre of a large agricultural population. The abandonment of these places was due, according to local tradition, to the failure of the water supply, which, if correct, would indicate the gradual desiccation of Central Asia in historic times. This winter Mr. Huntington proposes to study the Lop Nor region, and in the spring to visit the curious Turfan depression to the north.

The statement, made in this journal several years ago, that, since the introduction of tables and chairs, systematic physical training for all, improved diet, etc., in Japanese schools, the legs of the new generation had lengthened a half-inch, was challenged. The proofs that the Japanese are growing taller are ample, as shown by the reports of the army surgeons, who in 1892 examined 348,337 men applying for enlistment, and in 1902 431,093 men. At the former date, the number in stature below 5 feet was 20.17 per cent.; in 1902 the percentage had fallen to 16.20; and that of men below 5.2 feet, from 37.93 to 36.07. Between the same dates the percentages were, of men 5.4 feet and over, 10.06 and 12.67; and of men between 5.2 and 5.4 feet, respectively, 31.84 and 35.06. The change of the national fashion from sitting, often for many hours, on hams and heels to chairs, and the introduction of habits of physical exercise for all classes during the growing period, dates from 1870, when the first of the 1,200 or more American and other foreign teachers began the modern system of education in Japan. Enlarged data on this point will be among the results of Japan's putting a million of men in arms during the struggle with Russia.

—The edition of 'The Poetical Works of William Blake,' which has been prepared for the Clarendon Press (H. Frowde) by Mr. John Sampson, is, in point of laborious research and painstaking arrangement, one of the most admirable pieces of editing that we have lately seen. The text of Blake's poetry, owing to his peculiar method of publishing, or not publishing, is of a special complication, and the matter has not been greatly helped by the proneness of previous editors to evade rather than master difficulties, and to make Blake write what they think he ought to have written rather than what he actually did write. Mr. Sampson preserves for the first time the integrity of the sources. He gives the poems in the Rossetti MS., the Pickering MS., etc., each in a group by itself instead of lumping them under the customary but quite arbitrary title, "Ideas of Good and Evil"; and what is more important, he prints Blake *verbatim et literatim*. We find, for example, many curious bits of spelling, capitalization, and punctuation like

"Tyger! Tyger! burning bright."

that greatly enhance the weirdness and intensity of Blake's intense and weird imagination. The very copious bibliographical and textual notes which underrun the text are, perhaps, too minute and elaborate to be of service to any but the most devoted student, but Mr. Sampson's happy thought of printing in footnotes passages from the Prophetic Books illustrating the symbolism of the poems, will be helpful and suggestive to the less thoroughgoing amateurs of Blake. For a volume so intricate in substance, the book is uncommonly pleasant in typography. We have noted but a single slip, and that a pardonable and not unengaging one. On p. 76, a certain copy of the 'Songs of Innocence' is said to be in the possession of a fortunate gentleman residing in "Providence, N. Y."

—Since the appearance of Greenough and Kittredge's 'Words and their Ways,' we have met with no book of comparable scope so solid and so suggestive as Prof. Otto Jespersen's new work on the 'Growth and Structure of the English Language' (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner), or so likely to realize the Copenhagen scholar's ideal of profit at once to the layman and "the expert philologist." To the technical reviewers, very likely, chapter iv., "The Scandinavians," will prove most attractive, since it organizes, critically, the conclusions of such investigators as Björkman, Flom, and Brate, and, altogether, puts a new construction on Scandinavian influence in Old and Middle English. To the layman may be recommended especially chapters i. and ix. Chapter i. is "a rapid sketch of the language of our own days," as it strikes a foreigner—"a foreigner who has devoted much time to the study of English, but who feels that, in spite of all his efforts, he is only able to look at it as a foreigner does, and not exactly as a native would." Judged by the style of his book, Mr. Jespersen's sense for English idiom is not to be sneezed at. Yet, rating that sense at less than its actual value, and granting to the native the Dane's unusual linguistic training, we must still credit the "foreigner" with an immense superiority of perspective when it comes to a general characterization of our language. In comparison with other tongues, English, in its system of sounds, its rhymes, its concision, sobriety and restraint, its cadences, its sparing use of diminutives, its direct word-order, seems to Mr. Jespersen "posi-

tively and expressly *masculine*": "it is the language of a grown-up man, and has very little childish or feminine about it." In chapter ix. the time-honored statistics on the comparative richness of the vocabularies of Shakspere, Milton, and the day-laborer get a salutary shaking up, somewhat to the advantage of Milton and the day-laborer, and without injury to Shakspere. "It is easy," we read on page 214, "to prove that [Milton's] vocabulary really contained many more than the 8,000 words found in a Concordance to his poetical works. We have only to take any page of his prose writings, and we shall meet with a great many words not in the Concordance. The greatness of Shakspere's mind is . . . not shown by the fact that he was acquainted with 20,000 words, but by the fact that he wrote about so great a variety of subjects and touched upon so many human . . . relations that he needed this number of words." The whole book is full of interest.

—Mr. E. E. Soderholz, whose name is well known in connection with studies of the "Old Colonial" architecture in the United States, has illustrated, with the help of "others," a book on 'The Country House,' by Charles Edward Hooper (Doubleday, Page & Co.). It is not unfair to treat the illustrations as the most striking and suggestive part of such a book, although one is left wondering whether the selection of subjects and the judicious taking of negatives from them is "illustration" in any accepted sense. Here are an enormous number of really admirable details of existing houses —stairs, fireplaces, verandas, bay-windows, door-pieces, and the like, with, moreover, some scores of exterior views, generally with plans to match; and again views of outbuildings and of gardens and garden-houses, *perrons*, studies of rock-work, and the like. In short, here is a perfect iconographic encyclopædia of house-building and decorating; and even the end papers or linings of the volume are treated with photographic views—with two large landscape photographs showing in each case a pergola with vines, and such other accessories as a large formal garden might present. The text is a serious analytic study, in which, for instance (chapter vi.), "Windows and Window Motives" are considered—the structure of the window sash and frame, its setting in the wall of the house, its modification and extension into the bay window, the oriel, and the like; all very intelligent and sufficiently complete. And in connection with this, another word about the illustrations seems in order—the unusual and really charming character of many of the subjects chosen. It is not to-day only that we note the easy superiority in the American community of simple domestic building and its appliances over the big and formal architecture of the state-house and court-house, the bank and the city mansion; but such a round bay window as that shown on page 109, and such a combination of porch and "Palladian [*i. e.*, Venetian] window" as we find on page 105, would at once recommend the book to the student. It is a small quarto in shape and appearance, containing 330 pages and at least 350 pictures.

—On the great subject of Shinto, the indigenous religion of the Japanese, Mr. Ernest Satow, formerly student-interpreter in Japan and now British minister in Pekin, wrote abundantly with profound scholarship, acknowledging at the close of his labors that the last word had not been said on Shinto, being himself uncertain as to its indigenous origin. Chamberlain suggested that its mythology of the Kojiki, or Book of Origins, had been inspired by Chinese legends, but neither professed to employ the comparative method, though Satow advised it. Happily for scholarship, one who has studied Shinto not only in its literary monuments and in the interpretations of aliens, but who has dwelt long on the soil and made direct and profound observations, has taken up the task, and part of his work is now in print. 'Le Shinntoisme,' by Michel Revon (Paris: Ernest Leroux), is a work of original research, in which the author, applying the theory of evolution and the comparative method, arrives at some results, scientific, original, and very important. So far from having its deepest roots in Chinese soil, as some have thought, Revon has demonstrated that the God Way is a spontaneous religion, and in most respects similar to all the other primitive religions, that the mythology of the Kojiki (now accessible in English and German) is autochthonic, and that the magic and myths of Shinto are connected with the oceanic religions. Dr. Revon was for a decade professor in the faculty of law in Tokio, and is now in charge of the course of history of the civilizations of the Far East at the University of Paris. His works on Hokusai (in French) and on the Flora of Nippon Archipelago (in Latin), and his monographs on modern Japan and on Japanese civilization, beside his text and copious references to authorities, show a keen observer as well as a student of the first books of importance treating of the Malay, Chinese, and Japanese worlds. He is well able to criticise those native scholars, like Hirata and Mabuchi, whose fanatical patriotism and anti-Chinese bias so often mar the conclusions of their genuine scholarship. Revon is possibly the first author in print, though not the first thinker on the subject, who has wondered how the very numerous oceanic myths of the primitive Japanese could be correlated to Chinese outlook and fancy. The Kojiki stories of origins are very largely those of the "blue plain of the sea" and of lands beyond the waves. Revon has shown clearly that these are allied to Malay lore. Complete demonstration of derivation from Malay origins may be given in the succeeding portions of this interesting study. Most fascinating is the author's notice of the many interesting survivals in popular customs. He demonstrates that phallicism was an organic part of the primitive Shinto system. This is the ablest contribution in recent years to the study of a religion which has struck its roots more deeply into the Japanese soul and national system than any imported from the Continent.

BAYARD TAYLOR.

On Two Continents: Memories of Half a Century. By Marie Hansen Taylor. With the Coöperation of Lilian Bayard Taylor Kiliani. Illustrated from Contemporary Portraits and Paintings by Bayard Taylor. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1905. Pp. xi., 309.

Few echoes of the recent past will be more acceptable to the student of American literature than this unpretentious volume of reminiscence, recalling the portly form, the winning voice and the restless activity of Bayard Taylor. In simple, direct narrative as charming as that of Andersen in 'The Story of My Life,' Mrs. Taylor tells of her childhood in the old town of Gotha, in "a by-gone time" when court-ladies sat knitting their stockings by the faint light of a candle-dip, and a young girl was thought clever if she but learned to keep house, acquired a smattering of French, said little in company, and never looked wise. Mrs. Taylor's father was the eminent astronomer, Peter Andreas Hansen, declared by Simon Newcomb "the greatest master of celestial mechanics since Laplace"; and, as affectionately sketched by his daughter, we see him stealing away from his young wife at a ball to solve an abstract problem, and forgetting to return, or surprised in his dressing-gown and slippers by a party of fashionable duchesses. From this typical, secluded German circle, the young girl set out on her first trip to Rome, and there, under the guidance of her uncle, Emil Braun, the archæologist, a friend of the Brownings, she revelled in the Eternal City of Goethe, with its "walking Caryatids," until she found "the home of her soul."

Returning to Germany, Marie Hansen met Bayard Taylor first in 1851, on his way back from the Orient, where he had fallen in with her uncle, Bufleb, on the Nile. Beneath the starry skies of Egypt the affectionate German told the traveller of his niece at home, and she in turn learned from her uncle how the wandering American was seeking to recover from the loss of his first love, to whom he had been wedded but shortly before her death. Five years later, Taylor reëntered the little cottage provided especially for him at Gotha; but "as he did not know how to carry on a courtship," his relations to the German maiden "remained on a footing of simple friendship." The winter of 1856-7 found Taylor in Sweden and Lapland, but in the budding month of May he came back to Thuringia, and a few days afterward he and Marie Hansen were engaged. A trip to the Land of the Midnight Sun postponed the marriage in Castle Friedenstein until September 27, 1857, when, through Taylor's wit, the court *Prediger* proclaimed him "Landowner and Citizen of the United States," and then the young couple made a visit to London and a tour of Greece. In the following summer they returned to Gotha to reside until their only child, Lilian, was born, and two months later all three sailed for the New World.

The story of Mrs. Taylor's early experiences in America, told with rare candor and engaging modesty, presents her as a large-hearted, affectionate, patriotic woman, tactfully adapting herself to the new environment among her Quaker relatives in the home of Penn. Journeying from New York to Wilmington by rail, and thence fourteen miles by buckboard over rough roads to Kennett Square, Bayard Taylor and his family were welcomed to a table laden with ham, roast-beef, vegetables, preserves, and pie, all crowded together; and, after glorious autumnal days, Mrs. Taylor decorated the first Christmas tree set up in that part of America. Now and then the plucky wife accompanied her

husband on his lecturing tours, in 1859 going even to California by way of the Isthmus, a perilous but "wonderfully beautiful voyage"; and, again, she remained alone courageously long weeks at home, while the overworked lecturer toured the sparsely-settled country. The civil war, too, stirred her inmost soul; she led the women of her neighborhood in preparing supplies for the soldiers, she guarded her home from marauders incensed by Taylor's connection with the *Tribune*, and she ventured with her husband, in his capacity as war correspondent, almost on the field of battle. Vivid and full of local color are the letters of the young wife to her anxious relatives on the fall of Richmond, the surrender of Lee, and the assassination of Lincoln; and equally absorbing are the tidings of the great struggle between Germany and Austria sent by the aged parents from Gotha, to the borders of whose township the theatre of European war had changed. The decisive move at Königgrätz, and the beginning of Bismarck's brilliant career, showed Mrs. Taylor how thoroughly German she had remained; while the tremendous victory of the Germans in their life-and-death struggle with the French was celebrated by the poet as well.

All in all, however, the years passed pleasantly with the Taylors in their new and spacious "Cedarcroft," designed and erected by Taylor near the scene of his birth and amid the staid old Quakers, whose sterling merits both the alien Bayard and his German wife appreciated. Of modest tastes, Taylor's chief extravagance was books, pictures, flowers, and an overpowering hospitality that brought guests from near and far and kept them for weeks, not to mention the neighbors who tarried so long under the welcoming roof that there was nothing else to do but to put them to bed! Taylor came to number Longfellow, Bryant, Whittier, Emerson, Lowell, and Alice and Phœbe Cary among his friends and guests, and other Americans whom he often entertained at "Cedarcroft" were Putnam and Fields, his loyal publishers; Willis, his early patron; Mrs. Botta and Susan Warner, the eloquent young Curtis, Boker and Furness, the steadfast Greeley and his eccentric wife, Edwin Booth, Aldrich, Bret Harte and McEntee, J. L. Graham, Sidney Lanier, Stedman and Stoddard, who called the company of poets, artists, and authors thus gathered together "a nest of singing-birds." In the meanwhile, Taylor and his wife crossed and recrossed the ocean, now spending a night with Tennyson at Farringford, then sleeping in the room occupied by Goethe at Ilmenau, and again enjoying the hospitality of the Grand Duke of Weimar, and so came in contact with many representative Europeans. These chance acquaintances or more enduring friendships afford the author studies of the Poet-Laureate, the Brownings, Wolf von Goethe, Thackeray, Rückert, Barry Cornwall, Swinburne, Garibaldi, Freytag, Bismarck, Auerbach, Karl Witte, Preller, Tupper, Schiller's grandson (Von Gleichen), Lord Beaconsfield, and Alexander von Humboldt, who told Taylor that he would politely try to live until he should see the daughter of Hansen! Once Taylor went to St. Petersburg as *chargé-d'affaires*, assured that, upon the retirement of Mr. Cameron, he should be given the post of minister, and there are spicy recollections of court life among the affable Russian nobility, the cordiality of the British Ambassador, Lord Napier, and his wife, who studiously avoided any reference to the War of the Rebellion, and the marked coldness of the German legation. "If I had been an American born," says Mrs. Taylor, "the diplomatic corps would have approved of me to a greater degree; but as a German, and not of the nobility, I was a stumbling-block in their path which could not be ignored on account of my husband's official position." On the strange conduct of Secretary Seward, however, in promising Taylor the mission to Persia, and then leaving him to wait for months in Europe while Lincoln thought that he was at the court of the Shah, Mrs. Taylor throws no new light, probably because nothing further is or ever will be known in the matter.

Time, reverses, and toil worked a baneful influence on Taylor's dreamy and hopeful nature; little by little "Cedarcroft" proved a greater burden than even his broad shoulders could bear; and, to the sorrow of many, the poet and his wife bade good-bye to the pleasures of country life, and began that restless existence in the grinding metropolis which was later to hurry Taylor so swiftly to his fate. "We made mistakes," says Mrs. Taylor, referring to their venture at Kennett Square, "that we were afterward obliged to atone for as the way of the world demands. And yet, what mattered it in the end! If men and women can be happy, we certainly were." "The heavy burden of journalistic slavery dropped from Taylor's shoulders" when he became Minister to Germany, "but other demands were made upon his strength which were by no means salutary." Entering upon his high office when already stricken with a fatal disease, Taylor hastened his death by devotion to General Grant, who was then touring the world and had reached Berlin. In the Prussian capital, on December 19, 1878, Bayard Taylor breathed his last.

Taylor's personality, as portrayed by his wife, is natural and attractive. He is affectionate to his kin, taking his brothers and sisters and parents to Europe, and selling a share of *Tribune* stock to equip his younger brother for a captaincy in the Union army, and he is devoted and tender as a husband and father, playfully giving his wife a watch hidden in a hat-box, and writing to his little daughter rare descriptions of Indians and "back-woods" natives met with on his lecturing tours. His wit and humor come to his aid when beset by bores, whom he coughs away, intimating the prevalence of a contagious disease; his patriotism is evidenced by the defence of country and home; and the veil is partially lifted from his real religious views, the evolution of which had been but intimated in his poetry. He is *par excellence* a linguist, delighting the Czar by his rapid acquisition of Russian; he works prodigiously at prose, wearing himself out in the service of the *Tribune*; as a lecturer he is "not a born orator, but has adapted himself to the profitable temporary profession because it is demanded of him"; he sketches the Acropolis and the canals of Venice, sets up a studio at Rome or whiles away Sundays in the country painting the beauties of hedge or lawn; while as a poet with ideals as high as those of "*Deukalion*, a type far superior to all other men," he displays facility in both English and German, writing sixteen stanzas of "St. John" at a sitting, and translating six lyrical poems as part of a long review of two volumes of Hugo made in a single afternoon and evening. With all his poetic spirit, however, he is dominated for some time by a former task; he chafes under the restlessness of American life, and he cannot talk to others of his ideas until they have ripened into form. Little by little we see the "Faust" taking shape in English, a "heart-rending, but fascinating" toil, the poet making "innumerable drafts of the Song of the Spirits" alone, while his gifted wife follows with the original before her eyes; his tribute "An Goethe" is submitted for criticism to Gustav Freytag, who finds it "cast in a single mould of true German spirit and German feeling, and needing no improvement." We are sadly conscious of the peculiar gifts which Taylor possessed for a Goethe-Schiller biography, and the facilities—unequalled at that time—assured him by the Duke of Weimar and the scholars of Germany; and we see only too well that, had he settled down to that great work and said nay to the Muse that "came, returned, and would take no denial," we might to-day boast a sympathetic interpretation of the Weimar Duumvirate such as graces no literature.

Nearly half a century of stirring life passes along these 'Two Continents' of Mrs. Taylor, illustrated by the unique portraits of Taylor, Hansen, and Bismarck, and annotated with clever translations by the poet's daughter; and yet it would be delightful to hear more of Taylor's wooing, to know Marie Hansen's part in his literary development and in his masterpiece, the "Faust," and to gaze longer at the bedside of the poet expiring in a foreign land. There is also less about Longfellow and his friendship with Taylor than might be expected, there is no mention of Lowell, nor is there any reference to Taylor's lecture in German on American literature at Weimar, where the story of an eye-witness would be very acceptable. But the volume brings much that is new, and what was previously known has been well retold. There is, in general, a wise discrimination as to content, and the whole work shows the value of that lost art—the keeping of a diary.

THE FIRST EARL OF DUDLEY.

Letters to "Ivy," from the First Earl of Dudley. By S. H. Romilly. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

John William Ward, first Earl of Dudley, escaped greatness by so narrow a margin as vividly to recall Dryden's line regarding the close alliance between genius and madness. Unlike the Earl of Peterborough, whose brilliant successes during the War of the Spanish Succession took England by storm, he was neither a soldier nor a man of abnormally energetic temperament. The affliction which clouded his life and almost nullified his extraordinary gifts, was an undue sensitiveness of temperament arising from an organic cause in malformation of the brain. Otherwise, he possessed almost every advantage of rank, intellect, and character. He had high birth, great wealth,

noble aims, great intellectual acquirements and power of application. Nothing but uncertain health and the same sort of fastidiousness which baffled Lord Acton seems to have stood in his way. Had the gods who gave him so much but given a little more, he might have vied in politics or literature with almost any of his contemporaries.

Such, at least, is the impression one is bound to form of Ward's qualities from the statements which were made about him by those who were quite competent to appreciate his parts. Even the *Quarterly Review* and the *Edinburgh Review* could unite to praise him.

"Fulfilling Lord Bacon's grand recipe," says the *Quarterly*, "his reading made him full, his writing exact. His wit was prompt, sparkling, and epigrammatic; it was playful and indulgent, not, however, from weakness; it was the giant's strength which could afford to be generous. To all these qualities of the head was superadded a gentle and affectionate disposition, a freedom from pride and vanity, a simplicity of habits and tastes—in a word, all the striking features of that noblest of creations—a real English gentleman."

While the *Quarterly* could speak thus, Brougham in the *Edinburgh* was not to be outdone:

"He possessed one of the most acute and vigorous understandings that any man was ever armed with. His quickness was not accompanied with the least temerity; on the contrary, he was as sure as the slowest of mankind. His wit was of the brightest order, combining with the liveliest perception of remote resemblances and mere distinctions . . . all that nice relish of the ludicrous, especially in character, out of which perfect humor is engendered. . . . And it was none of the least enviable of his great qualities that, in union with all these endowments, and in spite of that fortune and station usually so inimical to laborious pursuits, he possessed the faculty of intense application, passing his life by preference in the study, and having acquired the habits of unremitting intellectual labor as completely as if he had been born a poor man, by necessity become a student, gifted with a slow understanding, and at once devoid of fancy and acuteness."

These words from the lips of his contemporaries will serve to give Lord Dudley his place among the élite of Englishmen during the age of Castlereagh and Canning. For the rest, it may be said that his temper was so fastidious that any literary remains saved from the wreckage of his life must awaken curiosity if they do not end in eliciting admiration. There is not even an oil portrait of him, and the one pencil drawing—that by Slater in the rooms of Grillion's Club—is said to have been crunched up, put in his pocket, and long supposed to have been destroyed. It shows an extremely refined and intellectual face, such as any artist might have been delighted to portray. It is true, there already exists in print a portion of Ward's correspondence with Bishop Copleston, his college tutor; but this collection of letters created a sense of disappointment from the formality of its tone and its failure to reveal the charm and power which the writer undoubtedly possessed.

> "Than the first Martyr's Dudley's fate
> Still harder must be owned;
> Stephen was only stoned to death,
> Ward has been Coplestoned."

Apropos of the foregoing epigram, Mr. Romilly observes: "This was certainly hard luck upon the man of whom no less an authority than Madame de Staël has said that 'he was the only man in England who really understood the art of conversation.'"

The "Ivy" of these letters was Mrs. Dugald Stewart of Edinburgh, in whose house Ward had lived for some time during his early years. Concerning Mrs. Stewart's personality little need be said here, save that she had a degree of attractiveness which made a host of eminent people her lasting friends. Sixteen years older than Ward, she had at first given him the affectionate care which, through his mother's neglect, he had never known at home. The whole correspondence is couched in a tone of familiarity blended with real deference, and is wholly unlike the stiffness of Ward's style in his correspondence with Copleston. It was long believed that Mrs. Stewart on her death-bed destroyed the whole of Ward's letters to her; but, though she probably did burn some of them, a great many were preserved, either in the original holograph or in a careful copy. Mr. Romilly, the present owner of them and also the editor of this volume, received them on the death of a relative who, as a child, had been brought up in Mrs. Stewart's family. It was only two years ago that chance led him to open the manuscripts and familiarize himself with their contents.

The correspondence here published runs parallel during the greater part of its course with the 'Creevy Papers,' and covers some of the ground traversed by the first volume of Greville. Ward was a far abler, more acute and more scholarly man than either of these contemporaries, and in his more detailed letters reaches a height to which neither of them attained. As an historical record, the main defect of the papers now printed by Mr. Romilly must be found in their disconnected and sporadic character. There are considerable breaks in the chronology, and no single topic is so fully illustrated by them as is the nature of Whig politics in the 'Creevy Papers.' Ward had an intellectual disinterestedness which kept him from becoming a party hack, and, though he ended his political career by being Foreign Secretary under Canning, he had passed through the stage of moderate Whiggism, and could even admire the genius of Napoleon without being in the least swayed by patriotic prejudice. For example, his letters from the Continent after the Emperor's first abdication are filled with cordial eulogy of the great public works carried out under Napoleon's care; and once, when Metternich asked him at dinner what he thought about Napoleon himself, the answer was: "Mon Prince, je ne suis pas militaire, mais il me semble qu'il a rendu la gloire passée douteuse, et la renommée future impossible." And, apropos of epigrams, to Ward may be ascribed more truly than to Lord John Russell the saying that the cant of patriotism is not so bad as the recant.

Although we find it impossible to make this notice include passages from Lord Dudley's letters which would give an adequate impression of their style, we must state that the book contains a good deal that would stand separation from the context. Ward's sub-satirical strain is very pleasant, for, without striving after effect, he can be witty, and his wit is not ill-natured. While far removed in both conception and manner from the 'Etchingham Letters,' the tone of Dudley's correspondence is not unlike the clever trifling one gets from Sir Frederick Pollock and Mrs. Fuller Maitland. Speaking broadly, one-third of the letters may be called unimportant, since they are but hasty notes illustrating merely the writer's filial affection for Mrs. Stewart. The other two-thirds consist of moderately long epistles—epistles, at any rate, which are long enough to disclose the nature of Ward's tastes and mind. The representative passages that we are unable to cite, include a remarkable scene between Ward and Lady Caroline Lamb (pp. 95-98), the whole series of letters from Italy and France (pp. 262-301), and the appreciation of Canning (pp. 325-328). So far as the architecture of a house can be represented by a single brick, the following paragraph regarding Sir James Mackintosh may be called a fair sample:

"Mackintosh is here on his way to Switzerland. I spent a very pleasant evening yesterday with him and Constant. He is, in truth, a most delightful creature. If I were a king, I should make an office for him in which it should be his duty to talk to me two or three hours a day, and then if my queen offended me, I would send Lady M. to talk for an equal time to her. He should fill my head with all sorts of knowledge, but, out of the great love I should bear towards my subjects, I would resolve never to take his advice about anything. He has got Rogers with him, who, as you know, has published a new poem entitled 'Jacqueline,' for which Murray has been goose enough to give him a guinea a line. But then 'Lara' precedes it, and I suppose he has been obliged to buy the lean rabbit along with the fat one, according to ancient usage."*

In short, the interest attaching to these letters is much greater than that belonging to the average volume of eighteenth-century correspondence, and, quite apart from their service in recalling the memory of an extraordinary man, they bring us much nearer to Dudley himself than do any of his other writings.

Russia. By Théophile Gautier, and by Other Distinguished French Travellers and Writers of Note. Translated from the French, with an additional chapter upon the struggle for supremacy in the Far East, by Florence MacIntyre Tyson. Illustrated by numerous photogravures. In two volumes. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Press. 1905.

Théophile Gautier's work is too well known in the former editions which have presented it to the English-reading public during its already fairly long life, to require detailed notice. In general, it may be said that it stands the test of time wonderfully well; and while minor details of custom or costume have changed in recent years, it seems destined, on its sterling merits, to preserve a perennial freshness and charm. No one has ever described more poetically, with more exquisite imagery, the aspects of nature in Russia, and Gautier's sympathy is of immense value in keeping his mental compass true. Occasionally he seems inclined to generalize on insufficient grounds; occasionally, also, he imagines facts as to which any Russian could have set him right

*Rogers and Ward were not good friends. Ward condemned 'Columbus' in the *Quarterly*, and Rogers retaliated by launching the well-known epigram:

> "Ward has no heart, they say; but I deny it;
> He has a heart, and gets his speeches by it."

had he thought of mentioning them in time. For instance, in describing the church ceremony (which precedes the Blessing of the Neva on Epiphany Day), in the Winter Palace cathedral, he asserts that from the gallery he beheld "the Emperor and the Imperial Family in the sanctuary whenever the Holy Doors in the ikonostasis were opened." This is absolutely impossible, as under no circumstances are women, even of the reigning family, allowed in the sanctuary. The persons thus seen were, probably, assisting priests, and if the Imperial family were not standing in plain sight, twenty feet in front of the ikonostasis, they were absent, in the Imperial withdrawing-room on the right; or the Empress (it was in the reign of Alexander II.) was in the glass box below the gallery, which was specially constructed for her in her invalid years. Either Gautier or the translator confusingly substitutes "Eastern" for "Western" in the elaborate description of St. Isaac. He errs, also, when he states that the Eastern ritual requires all four sides of a church to be exactly alike; and in some other points. Probably the "Romanoff" monastery referred to, near Moscow, should read "Simeonoff," and is a translator's mistake.

In order to furnish a sort of compendium on Russia, various chapters have been added. "The Mir, the Rural Commune," by Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, is too classic an authority as to conditions at the time it was written to require anything but bare mention. "The Russian Army and Navy" (author not named) represents matters previous to recent disasters, including the attribution of Grand Duke Alexis to the general command. "Religions and Sects," by Gustave Lejeal, is an attempt to sum up the entire question, and contains some extraordinary statements. Speaking of the Greek Church, he says: "She refuses to admit the creed of the Council of Nice," meaning that the Eastern Church does not admit to its creed the *filioque* clause, and being obviously ignorant that that is precisely the form in which the Council of Nicæa established it. A little later on he alludes to nine slight differences between the Greek and Russian Church customs, and omits to mention that, so far as Russia is concerned, many of these points refer only to the Church previous to Nikon's reforms, though he does mention Nikon. Where, we wonder, in "the orthodox catechism" (which confines itself to spiritual matters) is the Tsar called "the curator and protector of the Church"? Bishops are said to have large revenues, which allow them "to hold with dignity their places in the best society"; but this is a gratuitous assumption, on the model of the Roman Church, for Russian bishops are supposed to abjure society and devote themselves to their diocesan affairs. In his description of the peculiar sects either M. Lejeal or the translator is responsible for the infelicitous statement (or construction): "There are even a few, fortunately, who think a child should be baptized and fed with his mother's blood"; which is calculated to exaggerate even the legitimately painful doctrine. In the same manner, Sutaieff's doctrine is made to read: "The kingdom of God must come below"—intended for "from within," possibly, or "from below." Just above (vol. ii., p. 193) a typographical error makes "samaboys" out of "samabogs" (self-gods). The most remarkable doctrinal statement of all, however, is connected with Count L. N. Tolstoy: "A new sect has been grafted upon one of the last works of this great writer, 'The Kreutzer Sonata.' Its adherents, people of wealth and learning, would abandon a brilliant position to give themselves up to manual labor." As a matter of fact, the preaching by Tolstoy and adoption by his "adepts" of the manual-labor doctrine long preceded the work named—which is devoted, by the way, to the enforcement of a totally different doctrine!

The section on "Literature" is furnished from the long-familiar works by M. Louis Léger and Vicomte E. M. de Vogüé, and deals only with the older writers, but is, of course, admirable, so far as it goes. "Russian Art," by M. Marius Vachon, is highly appreciative, but hardly competent in the department of architecture, which it assumes to present very fully. (Had the translator, by the way, either rendered the title of the famous old Kieff church, the "Dime," as "The Tithes," or left it its accented *i*, the effect would have been better as well as more intelligible.) M. Vachon relies too much on the pronouncements of Viollet-le-Duc, who was badly informed as to Russian origins and styles in general. Possibly the translator is responsible for "the worship [instead of "reverence"] of images"; and for "Palace of the Corners," as a title for the "Faceted Palace," correctly rendered in Gautier's work. Gautier, by the way, got very much mixed up over that, the Golden Chamber, the Great Palace of the Kremlin, and the Treasury, as well as over the situation of Napoleon's statue there, evidently trusting too much to a belated memory.

M. Jules Legras's book on 'Siberia' is incorporated, with great good judgment. It appeared about eight years ago, and deserves to be known. The translator's own concluding article, on "Russian Policy in the Far East," is brief but excellent. As to her rendering from the French of the various selections, we regret to say that, while it is, on the whole, extremely good, she too frequently loses touch with the idiomatic turns of both languages; and precisely because of its high degree of attainment in most respects, these blemishes are the more noticeable. "The so simple disposition we are fancying," "forcible" (for "perforce"), and "principal" (for "principle") will serve as specimens of this regrettable carelessness.

The illustrations are very numerous, very beautifully reproduced, and well chosen; but it would have been well worth while to have had them labelled by a person acquainted with the country. Rarely does a splendidly prepared work suffer so much in this respect. In volume i., the plate labelled "Tomb of Peter the Great" represents the canopied resting-place of some prelate of the Roman Church (in a Gothic cathedral), surrounded by statues of prelates with the pointed Roman mitre, cardinals' hats, coats of arms, and so forth. Peter the Great lies in a plain, slab-covered tomb, in a horribly rococo church. "The Church Imperial, St. Petersburg" is in reality the church of the great palace at Peterhof, twenty miles from the capital. "Place Sonbrinski, Moscow" is intended for "Place Lubianski." In volume ii., "Entrance to Kremlin from Chinese Town, Moscow," should read: "To Chinese Town from the White Town." "The War Department, St. Petersburg." represents one end of the Admiralty and neighboring buildings. "Assumption Cathedral and Ivan's Tower, Moscow," should read: "The Synod Church." "Poshkoff Museum, Moscow" arises from a confusion of names. It represents the Rumyantzoff Museum, formerly the residence of Mr. Pashkoff. The "Palace of Peter the Great, Moscow," offers a view of the wall, holy gate, and churches in the Novodievitche Convent, several miles from the Petrovsky Palace, which is intended; and the "Cathedral Interior," with its Gothic vaulting, pews, and unscreened altar, is unmistakably Roman Catholic, not Russian. The volumes are beautifully printed and bound.

George Bernard Shaw and his Plays. By Henry L. Mencken. Boston: John W. Luce & Co. 1905.

A great deal too much has been written about Mr. Shaw and his opinions, especially by himself. When the London theatres were making experiments with Ibsen's plays in the eighties, the vast majority of those who saw or read them were far from sure what the author was driving at. But Ibsen was a reserved person, who either did not know or neglected the uses of self-advertisement. Mr. Shaw, no doubt, realized from such an example that if you let discussion languish, the intelligent will simply absorb and give out your theories again in a more popular form without any thanks to you, while the general public will regard your name as a synonym of the suspiciously obscure. The author of the 'Quintessence of Ibsenism' did his best to prove that Ibsen had a persistent purpose (which, however, remains doubtful, since Ibsen himself seems inclined to smile at the assertion that he has always used his plays to expound his social philosophy). But Ibsen, at any rate, kept carefully in the background. He challenged outworn ideals, and showed us situations in which happiness depended on giving them up and following the lead of one's own individuality. For Mr. Shaw, an ideal *qua* ideal is a *bête noire*, except, indeed, the old classical ideal of the Perfect Man, who is no more likely nowadays to become real than when the Stoics dreamed of him. Ibsen has left his mark and made his disciples because he was in earnest, and because he did not stultify his own teaching by a wholesale condemnation of every convention and ideal that has been evolved by the human race. This Mr. Shaw does, and the iconoclastic spirit of youth would probably secure him disciples enough if he did not indulge the freakish irony which drives him to turn and laugh in the face of his admirers directly they try to formulate a Shavian doctrine. It is this excess of irony that shocks the French taste, and has made M. Filon, the critic and historian of the drama, refuse to see in Mr. Shaw's plays any real attempt to reform society; only that mania for tearing down fences and setting fire to commons which he has ascribed to one of his own characters. The fences are repaired, and

the common grows up again all the greener, and there is an end.

Mr. Mencken, in this brief volume of about one hundred pages, attempts to do for Mr. Shaw what was done for Ibsen in the 'Quintessence of Ibsenism,' years ago. But it is not so easy to write a Quintessence of Shavianism unless one is ready, as Mr. Shaw was in his tract, to go all the way with one's subject, or even further, and to wring the quintessence out of him. This Mr. Mencken cannot do. What made the 'Quintessence' valuable was the peculiar equipment of Mr. Shaw for the task, just as George Meredith's 'Idea of Comedy' has become a classic because he himself was a master of the comic spirit. But the writer of the present volume does little more than give us a résumé of the plays and novels. The book is, in fact, intended for those who, after seeing a performance of "Man and Superman," are disinclined for the exertion of reading those plays that are not now being presented on the stage. The truth is, that the time has not yet arrived for a book on Mr. Shaw. Newspaper paragraphs answer the purpose where anything has been left unsaid by Mr. Shaw himself in his prefaces, or by the characters who are the mouthpiece of his opinions. Who can tell whether Mr. Shaw will ever settle down to the task of one who takes his reforms seriously, as a reformer must do unless he intends to create mere bewilderment? As little could the average Athenian appreciate what Socrates was driving at, or whether he would have any permanent place in the history of thought, as we can properly place Mr. Shaw. And Socrates was at least terribly in earnest, and was never tested by becoming the *enfant gâté* of the public. Moreover, Socrates had not been forced to suppress himself for years as a struggling journalist before he could let himself go as a social iconoclast.

It is not easy to interpret the plays of a playwright with a purpose. This fact the ingenious Mr. Verrall is once more demonstrating in his interpretations of the plays of Euripides. Mr. Mencken, however, rather describes than interprets, and his book will no doubt find grateful readers among Mr. Shaw's American audiences. What he means when he tells the playgoer that "Man and Superman" is "in purpose one with the 'Odyssey,'" we cannot imagine, for we had always thought that there was a purpose in the play, and there is none in the 'Odyssey,' save to delight the weary. Mr. Mencken says of "The Devil's Disciple" that, among the religious, only "a man given to constant self-analysis—the 999th man in the thousand" could appreciate it. This is probably an echo of Mr. Shaw's one realist in a thousand in the 'Quintessence.' But he was, of course, the thousandth man, not the 999th.

Mr. Mencken's English is rather too colloquial for elegance. "When Darwin bobbed up," "A young woman of money," "oldster" (a horrid analogous formation), are a few of his faults of style. Nor can we admire the tone of the biographical note. It is not in good taste to drag in a man's relatives as evidence of his private circumstances—at any rate, not until he is dead and has been handed over to his biographers for dissection. Of the Shaw family Mr. Mencken writes: "Its present head is Major Sir Frederick Shaw, Bart,. D.S.O. of Bushey Park, Dublin. A respectable, well-sounding name and address." What has this to do with Mr. Shaw or his plays? Mr. Shaw has shown a rather indecent lack of reticence about his mother, but we might leave his cousins and uncles alone until he has put them, also, into a preface. In the introduction, Mr. Barrie's play is referred to as "*Agnes*-sit-by-the-fire"; Beerbohm is spelt Beer*h*ohm; Sudermann's play is more than once referred to as "Johnnisfeuer." The Berkeley Lyceum is not in Forty-fifth Street (p. 97).

A History of Egypt from the XIXth to the XXXth Dynasties. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D.C.L., etc. With numerous illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. xx., 406.

Primitive Art in Egypt. By Jean Capart. Translated from the revised and augmented original edition by A. S. Griffith. With 208 illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 8vo, pp. xx., 304.

The Religion of the Ancient Egyptians. By Georg Steindorff, Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 12mo, pp. ix., 178.

Three notable works on Egypt are these which have just come from the press. They are the works of specialists, and form valuable additions to the literature of the subject. Professor Petrie is recognized as the most expert and experienced excavator who has ever operated upon the archæological field of Egypt. For many years he has labored in Egypt or Palestine laying bare multitudes of sites and preserving such a record of things just as he found them, that the later investigator is practically as well off as though the excavations had been his own. His professional training as an engineer has stood him in good stead, and his memoirs, issued by the Egypt Exploration Fund, are models of conciseness and of thoroughness. His 'History' has now reached its conclusion, at least it has reached the limit of the dynasties of Manetho. But to say that the history is "completed" is a different thing. No history of Egypt will be finished till the last monument is found and all the mountain tombs have given up their story. There seems to be no sign of exhaustion, and the discoveries by a countryman of our own during the winter of 1904-5, have well nigh eclipsed all that have preceded. But Professor Petrie has completed the task of portraying all of Manetho's thirty dynasties, and he has done it well from a scholarly point of view. He has made a book for students and for specialists, a book which enables us to say that the best and most inclusive history of Egypt is in English; but it is not one that can be read with ease or possesses literary merit. Dynasty follows dynasty, and reign follows reign, and the same method of treatment is used in each case, modified only by the fulness or paucity of material. The various forms of the name of the king are given in English transliteration, and in hieroglyphic character, with the dates of his life. Then follow lists of the monuments which contain his name, tell of his deeds, or testify to his building activity; lists of his wives and children; and in some cases texts are cited showing from whom a given king received divine honor and worship. Then a narrative account of all known facts follows, and illustrations are introduced and make the story plain and more vivid. Frequently there are half-tone representations of the cartouches of kings taken from scarabs and other objects.

The present volume and those which preceded are mines of historical information up to date for the time of composition. Subsequent discoveries have made revision necessary, and the first volume especially should be again subjected to this process. The detail of the volume before us is so immense as to make a correspondingly detailed judgment impossible. One almost stands aghast at the magnitude of the task, and the book is a constant source of wonder that we are able, with such minuteness and such accuracy of statement and chronology, to follow the movement of events in times which long preceded the beginning of our era. We are here taken back more than thirteen hundred years before Christ, and yet the materials dovetail together so closely that the author declares there is no unfilled gap longer than ten years. A similar claim is scarcely made for any other history so ancient. The entire series is now completed except the volume on 'Arabic Egypt,' originally assigned to Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole.

'Primitive Art in Egypt' is by the Keeper of the Egyptian antiquities in the Royal Museum at Brussels. It is from first to last a tribute to the labors of Professor Petrie in excavation and exploration. Professor Capart gives credit where it is due, and cites throughout the various "Memoirs" of Petrie, and the works which he published independently as well as on behalf of the "Archæological Survey" and the "Research Account" of the Egypt Exploration Fund. The volume is sumptuously got up. The type is large, and the illustrations numerous and excellent. On these, of course, the value of the book depends in large measure, and in nearly all important cases the pictures are made by the half-tone process. The body of the text is a plain descriptive narrative based on the objects themselves. At times it approaches a catalogue in its baldness, and generally it is an attempt to describe the objects and such incidental resemblances as have been discovered to objects of other provenience. The order of treatment is dictated by the author's idea of the natural progression of an uncultured people toward artistic expression; first, objects of personal adornment; second, ornamental and decorative art; third, sculpture and painting; and fourth, historical and dynastic monuments. The particular points of interest in this phase of Egyptian art are two—that it is prehistoric, in the sense of predynastic, and that it forms the newly discovered background which explains the otherwise sudden emergence of Egyptian hieroglyphic writing on stone of a high degree of technical excellence at an early point in the "Ancient Kingdom." And the discoveries which have given us these almost startling revelations of primitive conditions along the Nile are mainly the work of one man and his pupils, and have been made within a decade and a half. Professor Capart agrees in the main with Professor Petrie's theories, but he does not obtrude any dogmatic views upon the reader. He looks to

a distant future for a solution of the problems which he attempts to state, and toward the solution of which he has gathered some materials.

Dr. Steindorff, who writes upon the 'Religion of the Ancient Egyptians,' is professor of Egyptology at the University of Leipzig, where he succeeded the late Prof. George Ebers. His work contains a series of five lectures, which were delivered about a year ago in various places in the United States, under the auspices of the "Committee on Lectures on the History of Religions." It is not large, nor is it burdened with notes and references, though these are not entirely wanting. The treatment is assuredly popular. Footnotes would have given a more scholarly appearance, to be sure, but they would not have rendered the lectures themselves more scholarly. In fact, the lectures are learned, notes or no notes, and they are the product of year-long study and investigation by one of the ablest and most brilliant of the younger school of Egyptologists in Germany. There have been many books on the religion of the Egyptians. Some of them have been swamped by details, some have been covered up and obscured by speculations and conjectures, and some have been loaded with things that simply were not true. In the present volume these faults have been avoided, and we have the most reliable, readable, and sane treatment of the religion of Egypt which has appeared. Of course, thousands of things are omitted, but, for a survey of the field and an account of the essential facts, Professor Steindorff's treatise is preëminently satisfactory. He takes us back to the earliest times, and thence traces the development through Egyptian history and out into the non-Egyptian world. Midway he stops to discuss the temples and the ceremonies, magical arts, the life after death, and the graves and methods of burial. The gods are discussed incidentally, and the system of belief is portrayed with as much coherence and consistency as it actually possessed.

In Further Ardenne. By the Rev. T. H. Passmore, M.A. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Popular books on the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg are so few that Mr. Passmore has revelled in a little-exploited field, the best part of which he has tramped over with a sympathetic eye for nature and a far from common tolerance of things or people un-English. His results appear in a fine volume illustrated with full-page photographs equally characteristic and excellent, though the addition of a few of Turner's marvellous sketches would have corresponded more completely with the spirit of the region which the author seeks to render. An ample historical sketch traces the fortunes of the Duchy through its vicissitudes as a battle-ground of Central Europe to its present state as neutral, inviolable territory; the remaining, and larger, part of the work dealing with description and comment concerning people, life, and customs as studied by the author.

In the historical portion, breadth of treatment brings out the successive occupations with a somewhat exuberant wealth of words. For instance, "Feudal Society" (ch. iii.) seems to devote too much space to details of mediæval life common to Central Europe in general. The eagerness to over-dramatize historical movements carries the author away into rhetorical outbursts at least as open to attack as those of the "progressive liberals" so freely indulged in (p. 62). On page 29 we read: "Many know-alls at this day know all about the selfishness and self-indulgence of monks, their 'cowardly flight from temptation,' and the rest. Mr. Ruskin's pedant crudities in 'Ethics of the Dust' may be taken as apostolically exponent of this lofty school." Verily, the oratory of the pulpit is a dangerous habit to give way to in a secular publication. We may add that the victory of Sadowa was not the culmination of a "Seven *Days'* War" (p. 108); Moltke required a trifle more time for his great strategies.

When we turn to the real body of this work, the writer, without change of tone, conveys, notwithstanding, a vivid impression of a charming little country hitherto saved from the personally-conducted mob, where the pedestrian can still roam without incessant fret from horn, dust, or whiff of motor-car. Any wayfarer who knows Esch-le-Trou, Clervaux, Meysembourg, or Vianden can renew through Mr. Passmore's pages some of the experiences of restful enjoyment which the throng of travel renders so rare to-day. Similar appreciation of the Luxembourgeois character emphasizes the simple qualities of application, thrift, and devotion to country and customs which seem to secure to the peaceful folk not merely security from foreign aggression or encroachment, but the same kind of prosperity which the casual tourist observes in Switzerland.

And yet, would that Mr. Passmore had put all his experience in simpler phrase. His command of verbal wealth and imagery too often leads him from standards safe astray. How much, for instance, is there of verifiable generalization, how much of mere showy antithesis, in the following (p. 62): "They [the dark ages] contributed marauders, brigands, oppressors, rebels; we provide anarchists, female post-office officials, dynamitards, Hooligans, the man-woman, regicides, sots, and—a commodity unknown to those older ages—vulgarity"? Again, from machicolated walls the besieged hurled "a rain of scented, warmed, or poly-angular objects—those 'at home' cards, so to speak, which formed so cheering a feature of young European society" (p. 64). We may have no reverence for Louis XIV., but our feeling finds imperfect reflection in the description, "painting the closing decades of the seventeenth century red" (p. 96).

A Self-Supporting Home. By Kate V. Saint-Maur. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

In this day of crowded cities where rents and aliments are more or less of excessive price, and conveniences are out of proportion to discomforts, a practical method of escaping urban life without risking greater difficulties should be hailed with enthusiasm. The plan of a self-supporting home in the country, as depicted by Mrs. Saint-Maur, is intended to assist in this accomplishment with entire ease. It is essentially within the reach of women. It suggests a way by which the sex may emancipate itself from the restrictions of a city home, without revolutionizing domestic traditions, and with economy.

The first twelve chapters of the book deal chronologically with the problems likely to arise in each month of the year. Mrs. Saint-Maur describes the methods to be employed. These have been carefully embalmed, for reference, in a note-book, whose contents, the outcome of nine years' experience, have supplied her with material for her volume, which is really valuable by reason of definite, practical information covering a wide range of topics. The raising of fowl and pheasants, breeding pet cats and rabbits, care of bees, cows, orchards, gardens—these are some of the suggested activities which are given adequate treatment, and are discussed in a businesslike manner. The supremely optimistic tone of the book will arouse apprehensions in some minds. Even a cheerful person will doubt the possibility of life being made so unfailingly joyous and prosperous. In the author's calculations as to the multiplication of animals and dollars, little allowance is made for failures or accidents. No one without the aid of a corps of assistants would presume, in the day of twenty-four hours, to try more than a small number of the many industries prescribed as "necessary additions" to welfare in country living. Yet it is clearly shown, in spite of the enthusiastic gloss, that if enough are undertaken to make the venture pay at all, they must be conducted so conscientiously as to consume a woman's entire time. This is a drawback. Most women would object to the seclusion in the country, away from friends, facilities for social intercourse, and change to a life of quite as strenuous activity along rural lines as that which a town existence demands. The book is less a profitable guide to the "simple life" than a logical statement of old facts, with suggestions of many new ones, regarding those agricultural pursuits which may be followed in a less ambitious way by any woman who has at her command a plot of ground, either in the suburbs of a city or in the more open country.

The style of the author is simple and unaffected. What she says will sound easy of accomplishment to the veriest novice. There is a convenient index, which enables the reader to find readily the special subject in which he may be interested. The illustrations, in some cases suggestive, in others are quite superfluous.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, John. The Confessions of John Allen. Chicago: Mandel & Phillips Co.
Baring-Gould, S. A Book of the Riviera. Dutton. $1.50.
Campbell, Reginald. The Song of Ages. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25 net.
Dillon, Mary. In Old Bellaire. Century Co. $1.50.
Erckman-Chatrian. Histoire d'un Homme du Peuple. Henry Frowde.
Fisher, Clarence S. Excavations at Nippur. Part I. University of Pennsylvania.
Goddard, Joseph. Beauty and Expression in Music. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Hall, A. D. The Book of the Rothamsted Experiments. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Knowling, R. J. The Testimony of St. Paul to Christ. Imported by Scribners. $3 net.
Letters and Exercises of the Elizabethan Schoolmaster, John Conybeare. Edited by Frederick C. Conybeare. Henry Frowde.
Mallett, W. E. An Introduction to Old English Furniture. Imported by Scribners. $1.50 net.
Nicoll, W. Robertson. The Garden of Nuts. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Phillips, Henry Wallace. Mr. Scraggs. The Grafton Press. $1.25.
Reeve, Sidney A. The Cost of Competition. McClure, Phillips & Co. $2 net.
Shakspere's King Henry the Fifth. Edited by George C. D. Odell. Longmans. 40 cents.
Ward, A. B. The Sage-Brush Parson. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

While Congress is wasting time over railway legislation, the day approaches for the going into effect of the new German tariff. In that measure lies a threat of greater injury to American industry than could be caused by a thousand unjust railroad rates. Yet the Administration is sitting down before it helpless. It is not that Germany's coming tariff discriminates against us, but that the absolute control of our Government by the protected interests, combined with President Roosevelt's having paid tariff revision as the price of his phantom railway law, renders it impossible for this country to take advantage of German offers. Germany abounds in good will for us. Her Ambassador at Washington has pressed upon Secretary Root one form of reciprocity treaty after another; but the Senate, where the brute force of our tariff beneficiaries is entrenched, is like a stone wall. Nothing has been done. It is thought nothing can be done. Lodge still has his bogus-jewelry manufactures on his back; the New York Senators are yet ridden by their glove-makers; Penrose and Foraker and Beveridge have each his tariff old man of the sea upon his shoulders; Aldrich remains true to the interests he has sworn to protect, and the Government of the United States is left in the humiliating position of not being able to take a step diplomatically to ward off from its citizens an impending loss of trade.

"His term of service will expire March 3, 1907." Such is the last sentence of the Congressional Directory's sketch of Senator Patterson of Colorado, who last week announced his conversion to the President's Dominican policy. Singularly, the other so-called "White House Democrats" who are counted upon to get the San Domingo treaty through the Senate, are also Senators whose terms of service expire March 3, 1907. Senators have a way of wishing to be reelected. Even Morgan at eighty-one and Pettus at eighty-four say they will seek another term. The term may expire, but Senatorial ambition never does; and the fact of being in good standing at the White House, with a little incidental patronage, is supposed to be a great help in convincing a Legislature that the candidate for reëlection is the man above all others to represent the State in the Senate. Now we are as far as possible from asserting that Senator Patterson's sudden transformation from a violent opponent of President Roosevelt into an ardent supporter has any connection with his own political ambitions. We are for freedom of opinion and disregard of party trammels, and it may be that Mr. Patterson is also, and that he is actuated by the highest motives in breaking with his Democratic colleagues. But he must know that all the Washington gossip is to the contrary; that the common story of the lobbies is that the President is working to win over four or five Democratic Senators by the use of patronage. Consequently, we think Senator Patterson should place his conduct beyond suspicion by showing that not one postmaster or gauger has entered into the forming of his conscientious convictions. To make his disinterestedness as clear as noonday, he might imitate the President in declaring that he will not be a candidate for reëlection.

That the President is using the offices "in order to do business with the Senate," as he expresses it, is unhappily beyond doubt. He is doing it as freely as any more fortunate predecessor —more fortunate in not having been hampered by loud protestations of enmity to the spoils system. One has only to read the columns in the Washington *Star* devoted to the day's events at the White House, to see what is going on. Most of the talk is about scrambling for appointments. "Senator Allee lands his man." "Senator Gamble has had to give up to Senator Kittredge in the fight over the postmastership." "The President has promised Senator Clarke that no internal-revenue collector shall be named without consulting him." And so on. When Representative Overstreet protested against Mr. Roosevelt's giving Senator Beveridge an extra bit of patronage at Indianapolis, he was frankly told that, in the present posture of affairs, it is much more important to placate a Senator than a mere member of the House. Of course, the President is acting from the loftiest motives —that is always understood; but the miserable result is that the public service is being steadily debauched, the spoils employed openly to win votes in Congress, and the broken chains of the bosses welded.

Ingenious friends of the President will need to employ all their most subtle theories to account for his vacillations and final surrender in the matter of rate-fixing legislation. It is now plain that the Senate is to have its way. The Interstate Commerce Commission will not be given power to make railroad rates independently; review and control by the courts will be retained as at present. That is the point for which the best lawyers and clearest-headed men in the Senate have all along contended, and that is the point which the President is now ready to concede. All his loud protests to the contrary were simply playful, it now appears, or fresh illustrations of his "open mind." The clear practical upshot, however, is his tacit abandonment of the campaign he has been waging since his message of 1904. There will be a railway bill. It will contain excellent and needed provisions against rebates and the abuses of private-car lines, etc.; but what Congressman McCall aptly termed "the Presidential non-sequitur" will not be in it. The Commission, that is, will not be empowered to make a rate, to go into effect "at once" without a prior appeal to the courts to determine whether the rate be reasonable and just. In all that matter, we shall stay much as we are. Of course, Mr. Roosevelt will claim a great victory for his ideas, just as he did in the case of the Elkins bill of 1903, which he then declared to be all the railway legislation required; but the facts are not in doubt. The President has retreated. Though assured that he could have the bill he wanted by a combination of Republican and Democratic votes, he shrank before Senator Crane's bogey of a split in his own party which would outlast his term of office. He assents to a rate-making clause which amounts to nothing, and for it has paid the price of giving up tariff revision. A birthright has thus again been sold for a mess of pottage.

But yesterday we had a pretty pen-picture from Washington of the two Wisconsin Senators visiting the White House arm in arm, sharing each other's sorrows, sharing each other's joys. So Saturday's news was an extremely unpleasant surprise. The Consul-General at Hongkong, Gen. Bragg, a Wisconsin man, plans to retire; so Senator Spooner recommended a man for the place and saw the nomination transmitted to the Senate, only to have his new colleague invoke Senatorial courtesy and hold up the nomination. Now, Spooner has returned the compliment by holding up a La Follette nomination, and the two are in a fair way to just such a cat-and-dog existence as was predicted for them when the Governor first decided to go to the Senate. The man over whom the dispute has begun is Dr. Amos Parker Wilder, the accomplished editor of the *Wisconsin State Journal*, who was originally a La Follette man and went over to the Stalwart side only after the Governor's refusal to accept the compromise reform bills passed by the Legislature of three years ago. To change sides, even

from the most conscientious motives, and then receive office at the hands of one's new friends, is not a course calculated to increase or retain the esteem of the old. La Follette's supporters would doubtless regard as pusillanimous a concession on such a point.

Apparently, we are to have another great coal strike. The break between operators and miners in the soft-coal fields seems complete; and it may be followed by as absolute a failure to agree in the anthracite regions also. With the demand of the miners for higher wages, it is possible to sympathize. Positively high wages have become relatively low in consequence of the way in which the tariff and Trusts, hiding behind the tariff, have screwed up the cost of the necessaries of life. This increase within five years is admitted by the Bureau of Labor to be about 35 per cent. But it is unfortunately the case that the United Mine Workers propose to add themselves as one more protective monopoly to the many which make hard the lot of the poor. They are demanding higher wages, not for all men who may wish to labor in the mines, but strictly for their own organization, with no wages at all and ostracism and peril for the miner who does not submit in all things to John Mitchell. This is the intolerable part of the Mine Workers' programme, just as it is of the Typographical Union which is now fighting the open shop in this and so many other cities. The rapid rise of employers' associations, like that of Chicago, is the inevitable response to such attacks upon the freedom of labor. In 1903 there were 1,300 strikes in Chicago; owing to the vigorous stand of the employers, and their sharp prosecutions of law-breakers, the number was cut down to 800 in 1904, and the open shop was established in many industries. Unionism which goes to extremes is, in fact, doing more for the open shop than could any amount of abstract arguing.

Thursday's report of the Chamber of Commerce committee on currency reform may be described as highly conservative. It disapproves Secretary Shaw's plan for a 50 per cent. increase in banknote issues, specially taxed so as to prevent their circulation except when needed. The committee's view is that our present circulating medium is probably larger than the country's needs, and that "the excess, if any, only tends to inflation of values." The committee objects particularly to the Secretary's plan of eliminating from such emergency note issues the words "secured by United States bonds deposited." To do this, the committee argues, is objectionable because it would "constitute another form of currency" when we have too many forms already. Pointing out, further, that very nearly half of the existing national banks are only five years old, and have an average capital of only $59,000, the report very plainly declares that such extended powers of note issue "would, under existing currency laws, prove a most hazardous experiment."

In positive recommendation, the committee goes no further than to urge again repeal of the law restricting redemption of banknotes to $3,000,000 monthly, and to renew the Chamber's proposal of 1902, that Treasury surplus moneys, outside of the gold reserve and a proper working balance, should be deposited in bank against other security than that of United States bonds. Again following the report of 1902, the committee advises that not less than 2 per cent. interest be required on such deposits. It is needless to say that we agree with the committee's recommendations. In the matter of the banknote currency, indeed, we think they go by no means far enough. But whether the actual expedients proposed would meet the situation which Mr. Schiff a month ago described as "a disgrace to a civilized country," we confess to entertaining doubts. The committee thinks that, with a charge of 2 per cent. or more on public deposits in the banks, "there probably would result a return in part of such moneys to the Treasury" when, with a prevalent low rate of interest, "such moneys could no longer be used by the banks to advantage." Undoubtedly, such a result would follow in the case of banks which cater to legitimate trade and not to Wall Street speculation. What the policy of banks with a speculative clientèle would be, we can only judge from their policy towards interior bank deposits. Throughout all the 1 and 2 per cent. call-money market of 1904, these banks paid 2 per cent. for the use of such out-of-town balances. We are unable to see why their policy towards Treasury deposits would be different.

For a broad view of the proposed investigation of the State Department of Banking, we commend our readers to the statesmen now indulging in large discourse in Albany. The question at issue, it appears, is not whether Superintendent F. D. Kilburn is managing his office efficiently and honestly, not whether the discovery and correction of possible abuses may safeguard the property of both stockholders and depositors in State banks, not whether the Department is, like the Insurance Department under Francis Hendricks, honeycombed with political corruption. These, it seems, are minor matters, beneath the attention of our exalted legislators. The thing which Senators and Assemblymen want to know is whether an investigation will damage the Republican party. Many of our astute lawmakers seem to fear that, if the lid is once lifted, the revelations of the activity of Republican leaders will be as shocking as those which Mr. Hughes laid bare. Hence the loud cries that Kilburn should resign and thus quiet the clamor for more light. "He should," says one, "have the good sense to retire"; for an investigation of his conduct "may lead to party disaster and financial disaster." Another far-sighted gentleman remarks: "No man who has been honored by his party for so long as Mr. Kilburn has been, should bring about such a dreadful situation." In behalf of some millions of people who are not politicians, but are mere citizens and taxpayers, we beg to observe that Kilburn and Hendricks are nothing but public servants; and the public has a right to demand from then an accounting for their stewardship. If in the course of this accounting some tricky friends of the State administration come to grief, and some thieving bank officers are caught, upright men will have every reason to rejoice.

Justice Joseph M. Deuel declares he will not resign from the Court of Special Sessions. That is, he prefers to be removed under charges. Certainly, he can be under no illusion as to public opinion regarding his connection with *Town Topics*. No one can be found to dissent from the implication of the verdict of the jury, that his conduct has been disgraceful. We presume, then, that the facts brought out in his suit against Norman Hapgood for libel will be presented for action by the Appellate Division. Whatever the decision of that body may be in regard to his violation of the charter by engaging in business, a further point remains for the consideration of District Attorney Jerome: whether Col. William d'Alton Mann and Justice Deuel have not been guilty either of blackmail or extortion. As to their moral delinquency there is no doubt; but moral guilt is not always legal guilt. Yet if Thomas P. Wickes, on the strength of the Jarvis letters, was convicted of blackmail, the evidence against Mann and Deuel would seem to the lay mind overwhelming. Probably there is also other testimony which was not offered in the trial of Mr. Hapgood. Naturally, the District Attorney ought not to proceed against a man unless he is convinced that the case is well grounded. But no verdict is sure until the jury has reported; and a prosecuting officer would accomplish nothing if he waited till every one who was accused pleaded guilty.

What ails the Ohio Legislature when it passes a resolution to investigate Boss

Cox of Cincinnati? It must know in advance, and on the highest authority, that there is nothing but purity and nobility to investigate. In a speech in the House of Representatives on January 18, 1904, Congressman Nicholas Longworth said:

"Then Mr. George Cox is alluded to, a man who, unaided and simply through force of ability and character, built himself up from a poor working boy to be one of Cincinnati's most eminent citizens, a man of whom there is nobody who does not say that his word is as good as his bond. If it is a curse to have citizens like this; if it is a curse to have clean, able, and upright men to administer the affairs of the city, then Cincinnati is indeed cursed."

It is true that Secretary Taft has denounced Cox as a first-class political rogue, but then, Mr. Taft was never sent to Congress by Cox. And is it not something like *lèse-majesté* to refuse to take Congressman Longworth's word for it, and submit the "eminent citizen" of Cincinnati to rude questions about his stealings?

The Cooper Union meeting of protest against suffrage conditions in the South has not received the attention it deserves. It was not a gathering of colored people only; nor was it an isolated and sporadic expression of dissent. The colored people will not sit still and submit to injustice. As they rise in the social scale, their demands for equality as American citizens will surely become more and more insistent. Moreover, as the organization of the Constitutional League which arranged the Cooper Union meeting shows, there are plenty of white people who will stand by them in their battle for their right to participate in the Government. Just at present, the reactionaries of the South and North are having things their own way, as witness the bill introduced in the Virginia Legislature to compel every street-car line in that State to provide "Jim Crow" cars, and the steadfast refusal of the Northern labor unions to permit the negro to learn a trade anywhere, as Mr. Washington has pointed out, but in a penitentiary. But with every year the rise of the negro in material prosperity, and his steady contribution to the wealth and prosperity of the country, will make it more and more preposterous to deny him some of the rights of citizenship because of his color.

In a recent address before the Boston Commercial Club, Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard College, who has been making a very careful study of the South, urged that section to drop its insistence upon the negro problem as the dominant issue, and pay some attention to other matters. He pointed out that with one-third of the population of the country, the South furnishes only two-sixteenths of the manufactures, and that this proportion has not increased in the last ten years. The labor problem, the South insists, is at the bottom of the trouble. Yet it makes no systematic effort to uplift the large masses of poor whites and colored people within its boundaries so as to fit them for productive labor. The "poor whites," every whit as shiftless and lazy as the negroes, are ignored, and effort is constantly made to withdraw from the negroes those rewards in the way of citizenship and public esteem and prominence which have been, the world over, an incentive to the laboring classes to struggle upwards. Professor Hart did not, so far as reported, cite Mississippi as a special illustration of his argument. Only 1,500 negroes voted in that State out of a population of 900,000, in the Presidential election of 1904, while not a Republican vote was cast in the Congressional campaign of 1902. Yet the Vardaman gubernatorial campaign of 1903 dealt solely with the race question. With the negro out of politics; with a mixture of the races forbidden; with schooling of the negroes at so low an ebb as to satisfy the worst negro-hater, an efficient State police should solve every other race question, and leave the whites free to advance their State and talk of something else. But no; so long as a politician has his way, the race issue will be kept alive to the exclusion of every other.

Whether Mr. Balfour is to continue to lead the Unionist party is a subject of eager discussion in England. His opportunism has led the party to its most disastrous defeat in two generations, and there is a general desire for a militant chief. That chief Mr. Chamberlain, who still abounds in expressions of loyalty to Mr. Balfour, could probably name if he were not too modest. Yet the matter is not simple. Mr. Balfour, in most trying circumstances, showed remarkable tenacity concerning the Premiership; he may not readily consent to let go the party leadership. Moreover, to make room for Chamberlain would by no means solve the difficulties that beset the Unionists. Mr. Chamberlain is old and in but indifferent health; no party can hope to follow his personal leadership for long. To accept him as a temporary leader would have no sense, except on the theory that his political policies would outlive him and evoke new champions. To this hope the recent election gives no countenance. Whatever may or may not have been the cause of the Unionist catastrophe, it is certain that Imperial tariffs singularly failed in the intention of reinvigorating a party gone stale. And if the country has given no comfort to Mr. Chamberlain's ideas, the protectionists have not produced a propagandist of anything like his force or of any promise as his successor. Accordingly, to change leaders in favor of Chamberlain would provide only for the immediate lean years of Opposition, and it should not be rashly concluded that the Unionists will incontinently turn to Mr. Chamberlain because Mr. Balfour is the most damaged Unionist of all.

Theoretically desirable the separation of Church and State has always been in France. The inequity of the actual law lies in the fact that the Church is, on the whole, more regulated than before. The whole form of parish organization has been changed. Churches become public property, and are leased only at discretion to the newly formed *associations cultuelles*. It is the steps preliminary to this virtual confiscation which have provoked the present disturbances. Furthermore, the endowments to be held by parishes are greatly restricted, and the State constitutes itself judge not only of the loyalty of an association, but of its orthodoxy. Through the abolition of the Concordat, the State sacrifices the right of nominating bishops. It is said that it will endeavor to maintain this prerogative in the absence of a treaty with the Vatican. In fine, the Church is treated as a suspect, whose conduct must be inquired into and regulated with a minuteness hitherto reserved for the unfortunates of the streets. One may deplore the fact that the Catholics of France do not obey the Biblical injunction to turn the other cheek; one can hardly wonder that their bewilderment and indignation occasionally find vent in violence.

Though the League of Leagues has formally condemned the plan for an Imperial Duma, its members are registering for the approaching elections. This, one may fairly hope, means that the revolutionary programme of this powerful order is temporarily in abeyance, and that, while disapproving the election of a merely advisory council, the Leaguers will actually wait to see what recommendations the Duma makes and how far these are adopted by the Czar. For the moment, he has the upper hand. It is of the highest importance not only that the Duma should meet, but that it should be representative, and should arrive at a definite scheme of reform. The danger is that it may fall into the hands of the reactionaries and leave the war of classes just where it is today. Even the revolutionaries need not doubt the power of irresponsible assemblies which are in earnest. The first Zemstvo Congress will not readily be forgotten, though it merely passed a set of resolutions. On all grounds it is to be hoped that the Imperial plan may have a fair trial. From a return to anarchy nothing could be gained, while a responsible parliament made out of whole cloth is hardly conceivable. All sober-minded Russians, then, should hesitate to discredit the Duma.

PARTISANSHIP AND TREATIES.

The pain of Republicans at the sight of the Democratic Senators deciding to make a party question of a treaty is a trifle too ostentatious. Their grief is nominally because of a vicious principle—the injection of the partisan spirit into a question of foreign relations. Treaties ought to be beyond that; they touch the great interest of a continuous policy in foreign affairs, irrespective of party; there is the solemn oath of Senators, etc. But the real woe of the shocked Republicans is that the caucus action of Democratic Senators may defeat their own plans; and at all events their pretence of being shocked is hollow, for they have repeatedly done themselves what they now reproach the Democrats with doing. To their indignant question, When did you ever see us make a party question of a treaty? the true answer is, We never saw you do anything else.

We agree, for our part, that party constraint ought not to be resorted to in order to force Senators to vote against their personal convictions. Nor would we limit this to treaties. The Administration is willing, even desirous, that its San Domingo treaty should be ratified by the aid of Democratic votes; but it starts back in horror at the thought of revising the tariff by the aid of Democratic votes. On general principles, and with an eye solely to the public good, it might well be argued that every Congressman ought to follow his inner persuasion, and not the party whip; but this doctrine falls with a strange sound from Republican lips, even when it is limited to the matter of treaties. If there is to be a great reform, let Messieurs the Republican assassins of treaties commence.

In 1888, they defeated the Bayard-Chamberlain treaty by, as the *Tribune* gloried at the time, "a strict party vote." Every Democratic Senator voted for that treaty; every Republican Senator against it. And there was no concealment about the reasons. It was an Administration treaty in a Presidential year; Mr. Cleveland had been renominated, and the common understanding was, as the *Tribune* reported the English view of it, that "the Republican Opposition could not allow the Administration to get the credit of a great stroke of statesmanship on the eve of the American elections." In the list of Republican Senators of that day who struck hands gleefully to kill a treaty solely because it was negotiated by a Democratic President, are the names of several gentlemen who are to-day so deeply dejected at the baleful exhibition of partisanship by the Democrats.

It is well known, also, that Republican treaties have been forced through the Senate by the severest party pressure. Senator Hoar testified that only by such means was the ratification of the treaty with Spain finally secured. The Panama treaty of Mr. Roosevelt was in like manner made a party measure. Senator Hanna counted noses and reached for votes in its behalf with all the assiduity and skill and unscrupulousness which characterized his management as party chairman. We have heard of a Republican Senator who, when reproached for voting for that treaty, which was intended to legitimize a theft, frankly explained that he was acting under orders from Hanna. Is it, then, merely because the Democrats are acting upon honest convictions that the Republicans are so angry with them?

Ah, but the caucus! The Republicans have never fallen so low as to caucus on a treaty. But that is a dispute about a mere word. It is like Steele's repudiation of the claim of infallibility for the English Church; it was not infallible, it was simply always right. The Republicans in the Senate may not caucus, but they get the practical result just as if they did. This little pretence of theirs to superior virtue was pricked by Senator Teller in open Senate, a couple of years ago. He had been deep in Republican counsels before going over to the Democrats, and therefore spoke the thing he knew when replying to the taunt that the Democrats were more bound by caucus action than the Republican Senators. Mr. Teller dropped into suggestive reminiscences of the time when he was "on the other side," and neatly showed how the iron rule of the "steering committee," with the autocratic powers of Aldrich and Hanna and Allison, backed by the White House, resulted in a tyranny fully as absolute as that of the caucus. A part of what he said was:

> "Mr. President, the Senator from Wisconsin says they have no caucus. It is barely possible they have a leader on the other side who is so persuasive in his methods that he manages to secure the united body in a way that I will venture to say those who have had a long service in this body never saw the equal of before. In the last two years, or nearly so, there has been upon every question of any consequence, and innumerable questions of no consequence, a united Republican Senate, as we saw it the other day, with one single dissenting voice. Does any one in this country believe that every Senator who voted for that bill on the other side of the Chamber, save the one from California, voted for it willingly, cheerfully, and because of his conscience? Mr. President, we know very well the influence of party upon a vote of that kind."

The plain truth is that this afterthought protest of the Republicans is born of hypocrisy. They condemn in another what they have allowed in themselves.

A strictly non-partisan vote upon the San Domingo treaty the Republican managers would never think of invoking or allowing. They know that it would beat the treaty. It is perfectly understood that several of the ablest Republican Senators are thoroughly dissatisfied with the President's Dominican policy. Left to themselves, they would never think of voting for the treaty. They would not do so last year, much to Mr. Roosevelt's mortification, and some of them, at least, are unwilling to do so this year, even after the hedging and qualifications and explanations which he has made in the effort to placate them. As it is, if the treaty is got through at all, it will be solely to oblige the President and in consequence of party dictation. Yet the dictators are bewailing the abhorrent partisanship of the other fellows!

ELIMINATING ARMY OFFICERS.

Secretary Taft's bill to stimulate the flow of promotions in the army by an annual elimination of some of the least desirable officers in each grade, is the most important of his eleven reform measures transmitted to Congress last week. It is not intended that the number of men to be eliminated shall be fixed outright; the General Staff, which drafted the measure, merely says, for instance, that if the promotions of captains of infantry shall not in a single year reach a given percentage of the whole by reason of the ordinary casualties or retirements of the service, then a board shall be convened to retire the number of majors necessary to advance the required number of captains of infantry to their majorities. In its wording the bill is so technical and involved as to be almost beyond the understanding of a layman, but the principle behind it is clear. The army faces a great stagnation in promotions, owing to the number of young generals in high places and the increase of the army in 1901 by hundreds of young officers very much of an age. In what way shall this stagnation be averted?

President Roosevelt's plan to relieve it was to promote out of order annually a number of worthy officers by a process of selection. In that way, he thought, the brightest officers would be advanced rapidly enough to reach high rank at a period of life when they would still be vigorous and energetic. Although he has urged this plan in two messages, army opinion has almost unanimously rejected it, as is now proved by the substitution of the elimination process in the measure under consideration. Unfortunately for his cause, Mr. Roosevelt himself has been "selecting" officers for advancement to high rank out of order—notably Gens. Wood and Mills—and the result has been intense heart-burnings and dissatisfaction. The army is convinced that this power of advancing officers out of turn can, because of politics, never be intrusted to a Secretary of War, or to a President who has rate-bills and other legislation to advance; they are equally certain that politics and social influence could not be excluded if, as Mr. Roosevelt proposed, the se-

lection were to be made by a board of general officers. Such a board might be overridden by a President precisely as Mr. Roosevelt disregarded the recommendations of the West Point Academic Board and of the General Staff when he foisted upon the Academy a personal friend of the Cuban campaign, Capt. R. L. Howze, as commandant of cadets, in disregard of the wishes of the faculty. Finally, the opponents of selection point out that even if a board could be trusted to promote good men out of order, the resultant jealousies and discouragement of those overslaughed would be injurious to the service. Here, again, Mr. Roosevelt has furnished them with proofs of their contention.

Elimination, therefore, is now suggested in place of selection. On its face, the former is preferable; officers who have opposed the President's plan are enthusiastic over the new one. Undoubtedly, it would cause a normal flow of promotions. Moreover, it would weed out officers afflicted with dry-rot or whose personal failings or habits rendered their early retirement advisable; and by elimination must be understood retirement on a salary commensurate with the length of the service rendered, and not discharge or dismissal. So far so good. Unfortunately, the machinery of elimination must needs be the same as in the case of selection—a board of generals sworn to eliminate in accord with the best interests of the service. To this the first objections will be heard; an elimination board would seem to be open to the same dangerous influences as a selection board. Could it retire—to cite a concrete example—Capt. Pershing, son-in-law of Senator Warren, the mighty chairman of the Military Affairs Committee, if it found Capt. Pershing's retirement desirable? Would it disregard the claims of a son of a chief of staff when the members of the board were looking to his favor for that happy future in the army all officers desire? It is suggestive here to note that when a connection of the President was recently fined in a police court for drunkenness, he was not punished by the military authorities, as were two other similar offenders, and that when he was subsequently branded by an Ohio court as corespondent in a nasty army divorce case, he was allowed to escape merited dismissal by resigning.

At first, of course, elimination would be easy. There is a lot of deadwood, particularly among the hundreds of young officers put into the army in 1901. The misconduct of some of them gave the army an exceptionally bad court-martial record in 1905. Others, whose habits are exemplary, are temperamentally unfitted for the service or are without sufficient education. But if, after a few years of toning up, the elimination board were suddenly called upon to retire 6 of the 45 cavalry majors, it might easily find the choice not only extremely difficult, but in any event certain to terminate ruthlessly the careers of six vigorous, professionally capable men, any one of whom might have in him the latent ability of a Grant or a Sherman. How thoroughly hidden Grant's abilities were when he resigned as a captain in 1854, is a matter of record. And has the Government the right to create a class of able-bodied pensioners capable of giving valuable service?

From several points of view, therefore, the bill is objectionable, although the best of its kind so far produced. The condition of the army in 1898 shows that, even if there is stagnation in promotion, it may be kept essentially sound and have plenty of good men to call on in emergencies. And as Secretary Taft pointed out in his last report, there are several ways in which promotion can be stimulated without a prescribed elimination of given numbers. He asked then for legislation removing any officer who failed in any of the garrison or service schools, and added:

> "In my judgment, one possible and practical solution of the congestion and slowness of promotion that we are certain to have in the Regular Army, is in greater severity in the elimination of those who show themselves *at any stage* in their career unfit to bear the responsibility and enjoy the privileges of wearing the official uniform of the United States Army. This penalty, as applied to lieutenants, it seems to me, should be dismissal; as applied to field officers, it might be made retirement."

That this elimination process might be irrespective of the flow of promotion, is by no means an argument against it.

THE BALANCE SHEET OF CONSCIENCE.

That the last year has been a remarkable one in respect to the growth of "conscience funds" in national, State, and city treasuries, has been reported recently from a variety of sources. Only a few days ago the Philadelphia treasury received the largest donation of this kind in its history; the Treasury Department at Washington had some months before entered next to the largest item in the history of its conscience-book, while the familiar small attempts at restitution have been more than usually frequent. If to the sums thus paid into public treasuries be added those turned back by officers of fiduciary corporations, it is pretty certain that conscience never commanded so high a money value as at present.

The general interest which exists in regard to this curious feature of public finance has been explained on the ground that every human being either has conscience money properly due him, or else ought to pay it himself. At all events, there has been a good deal of speculation as to the causes of the access of *ex-post-facto* honesty. Some say it is due to new standards of militant honesty in public life, and cite the fact that, of the additions made to the Federal conscience fund during the last ten years, more than two-thirds have been recorded since 1901. Others, more cynically, point out that the fluctuations in these returns correspond almost exactly to the succession of good and bad years in business. People listen to inward monitions, according to this view, only when they can easily afford to, and the conscience fund is a more trustworthy barometer of prosperity than the iron trade itself. The effect of religious revivals is also said to be discernible in the older records, though no one puts this forward in explanation of the present activity.

All this could be decided if there were only clues to the motives operating in the individual acts of reparation, but in the majority of cases there are none. The man who has falsified his assessments, smuggled goods through the custom-house, overcharged on an expense account when in public employ, is more than likely merely to put the money in an envelope, write "conscience money" on a slip, and send it to the Treasury. So the majority of items are not merely anonymous, but blind. Those who are brought to repentance through religious feeling are naturally most likely to furnish details, and therefore probably would figure more conspicuously in a compilation of the letters of transmittal than in the entries of the fund itself. The two largest items at Washington, however, were evidently sent in by persons whose soul-searching was due to a religious impulse. In 1896 Consul-General Collins of London sent $14,225.15 which he had received from the Rev. Prebendary Barff, vicar of St. Giles's Church, in a suburb of London. The vicar himself would say only that one of his parishioners had handed him the money with the request that it be sent to the United States Government. This, the largest contribution up to the present time, still remains as mysterious as it was at first. The $12,000 contribution last year, which was in new $50, $100, and $1,000 bills, was accounted for merely by a note which said: "Years ago I defrauded the Government of money, but have returned it all, and now am paying fourfold, in accordance with the teaching of Scripture. The way of the transgressor is hard, and no one but God knows how I have suffered the consequences, and I would seek to do a bountiful restoration. May God pardon, while the United States Government is benefited." The signature "A Sinner" is a favorite one, though "A Penitent" and "A Lost Soul" are common enough to bear out the idea that religion is a frequent motive. A good many sums are forwarded by Roman Catholic priests.

The morbid sensitiveness of some consciences, as revealed in these letters, is

only less extraordinary than the periods for which their pangs have been endured. Stamps are constantly being sent, for instance, to pay arrears of postage which presumably had already been collected from recipients of mail matter years ago. "I enclose a one-cent stamp," wrote a woman, "for having sent a letter with only a one-cent stamp on it, not knowing it was wrong." "Enclosed find nine cents," said a man, "which I wish to refund, as I used cancelled stamps when it cost three cents to send a letter." Two-cent postage was established a generation ago. The people who send these postage stamps never stop to think that the easiest way of making the Government a small present is to buy a stamp of the appropriate denomination and tear it up.

From these the progress is gradual to the actual "freak" donations. "On bill forty-five years old, right party cannot be found," and "For fruit stolen when a boy," are typical of this class. Anything so businesslike as the conduct of the man who drove over from Canada, sold his horse, harness, and buggy, and years later sent, in succession, duty on all three, is rare. Apparently, the still small voice was not silenced by paying duty on the horse alone, so the tormented soul experimented to see if the buggy would not do, and at last, in despair, paid for the harness as well.

Since the first entry, made during Madison's Administration, the conscience fund at Washington—legally only an item of "miscellaneous receipts"—has received between $300,000 and $400,000. This, at present standards, would be enough to run the entire Government establishment for just about four hours; but how it compares with the amount of which the Government has been defrauded in the same time, had better remain unknown for the sake of national self-satisfaction.

THE TRACTION MERGER.

The amazing balance-sheet of the Metropolitan Securities Company published last week, apparently in the interests of the traction merger, must intensify the opposition to that combination on the part of public and shareholder. The expert accountants confessed their inability to arrive at a clear understanding of the actual situation. To analyze the exact status of the "holding company," the "operating company," and the real street-railway company was too much for them, as it has long been beyond the powers of the private investor to obtain any clear idea of this highly complicated financial arrangement. The most important gain from this report is the admission that the Securities company has been paying out large sums to make good the deficits of its subsidiary companies, and that the time when it will earn the guaranteed 7 per cent. dividend on the Metropolitan Street Railway stock is still far distant. As the accountants remark: "The Metropolitan Securities Company will be required to pay out a very large sum of money to make good deficits before it begins to earn a profit on its investment." In addition, there is the grave risk of "additional subway competition, from increased taxation, or from any other source."

Truly, if this is all that the friends of the consolidation can say for it; if this absurdly mixed and almost unintelligible balance-sheet represents the best efforts of those who would present the matter in its most favorable light, the public may well ask what would be left of the proposition after a search-investigation by a Hughes. It is not necessary to agree with an honest contemporary's view that "no other corporation in New York represents such many-sided iniquity," in order to see that in this instance high finance has revealed itself both stupid and shortsighted as well as double-dealing. The one hope for the public approval of such a consolidation lay in an absolutely clear and candid representation of the true situation of the various companies. If its managers had frankly confessed past errors of judgment, had laid bare their real predicament, and had then advocated a merger on the basis of the actual capitalization of the Interurban and the Metropolitan because of the great savings resulting therefrom, the public would at least have accorded them a respectful hearing and admitted the existence of some sound business reasons for the merger. When, however, the Belmont and Ryan interests, far from suggesting a reorganization on a sound basis, ask the stockholders to take a leap into absolute darkness and insist upon the further watering of an already badly bloated enterprise, their proposal becomes both an offence and a menace. It merits the universal chorus of condemnation with which it has been received.

Bad as is the plan from the point of view of the stockholders, it is, if anything, worse when examined from that of the public. There never was a clearer case of the failure of our great financiers to take warning from the signs of the times. Only by the skin of its teeth was the city saved from a Mayor committed to municipal ownership and management; as it is, there are many who sincerely believe that Mr. Hearst was actually elected. If there was ever a time when the street-railway magnates should have devoted themselves to giving the city a sound and safe management of its transportation lines and to the creation of new roads on the fairest possible terms, it was this year. They should have imitated the Pennsylvania Railroad and taken the public into their confidence. Instead, they have chosen a plan which has strengthened the municipal management propaganda. People to whom this policy is as distasteful as it is to ourselves are openly saying that, as between a stock-jobbing monopoly and street cars run from the City Hall, they prefer the latter. They would not feel so had not Mr. Belmont and his associates deliberately shaken public confidence in themselves and their undertakings. No American financier is strong enough or big enough to urge such a stock-watering proposition without losing prestige and standing. When in addition it appears that the whole transit future of New York is to be in the hands of men so indifferent to the public sentiment and interest, it is perfectly natural that there should be demands for legislative investigations, for laws forbidding the combination. If it is also the demagogue's opportunity, the Interurban and Metropolitan officials have only themselves to blame.

When the future is considered, there is every ground for uneasiness. Is there to be no competition for the enormously valuable franchises which must be awarded within the next four years? None is in sight now, and under existing laws the city cannot become a borrower to the extent necessary to build, much less to operate, the additional lines so urgently needed. Apparently, therefore, the city is bound and delivered to the monopoly about to be created. But if Mr. Belmont and Mr. Ryan think so, and see therein their warrant for getting the surface railroads out of a very bad financial hole by again capitalizing the future of their enterprises, they make a very sad mistake. The people will, sooner or later, assert their rights, even if they have to do it in ways which now seem repugnant. Some of them, who are stockholders in the Metropolitan and Interurban, may begin at once by refusing their assent to an indefensible and iniquitous combination.

ENGLAND'S PERIL.

LONDON, January 25, 1906.

The danger which impends over England is not Home Rule, though the Parliamentary independence of Ireland would in my judgment introduce dualism into the very centre of the Empire. It is not any risk of foreign attack, though England, like all powerful States, has foes enough. It is not the increase of taxation, which, according to many observers, advances with more rapid steps than the wealth of the country. It is not the advent of democracy, which, like a youngster just come of age, is determined to manage its own affairs without much reference to the teaching of experience. The danger which threatens England is the pauperization of the English poor.

The poor-law has always been the weak point of our social system; it has, indeed, from time to time facilitated the maintenance, if not of national harmony, yet of internal peace. Yet it has been a disease sapping the energy and independence

which are the true foundation of a country's well-being. All the wisest of reformers have felt that this is so. Men as different from one another as Bentham, Chalmers, and O'Connell, men who knew different parts of the United Kingdom, and looked at its inhabitants from very different or opposite points of view, saw that the poor-law threatened the country with evil. The great reform of 1834 was by its authors intended to be much more than a palliative. The diminution and the gradual prohibition of outdoor relief would be, it was thought, the first step towards the total abolition of poor-relief. This expectation has been disappointed. In 1834 it seemed likely enough that pauperism—that is, the existence of a large class depending for its support not on the labor of its members, but on relief, alias charity, doled out by the State—might within thirty or forty years come to an end. There is now no observer, whatever his own political or social faith, who expects that within the next fifty years workhouses and poor rates will be unknown. A man must indeed be an optimist who even expects that the growth of pauperism will, for the present at any rate, be as strictly restrained as it was during the thirty years which followed the reform of 1834. The checks upon the growth of pauperism have all and each of them been weaknened, and are likely either to be done away with or to lose their efficacy.

Consider the nature of these restraints, and the way in which their efficacy has been undermined. They were in part external—that is, they were legal arrangements deliberately framed to discourage the lavish granting of poor-relief, and to ensure that the condition of the pauper should always compare unfavorably with the condition of the independent laborer who lived, however hardly, on his own earnings. They were in part internal—in other words, they were opinions or beliefs which, being widely accepted, gave force to the action of the external checks. Of these checks three should be specially noted. The one was the control or direction of the poor-law by a central body which, under whatever name, aimed at curtailing the grant of outdoor relief; the second was the presence on every Board of Guardians of ex-officio members, who, from their position, were more likely to lighten the rates in the interest of the ratepayer than to favor the lavish grant of relief in the supposed interest of the poor. The last was the rule that a pauper could not exercise electoral rights; and that the man who received relief, or expected to receive relief, was not to have the right to determine what relief should be given, and the form in which it should be bestowed. Each one of these checks has been, if not actually removed, certainly rendered more or less ineffective.

Now that the English Government has become democratic, the Local Government Board, the action whereof greatly influences the principles on which poor-relief is distributed, wishes, like every other department of the Government, to gain popularity for the Executive with the electors. It no longer struggles to ensure the rigid enforcement of the principles of 1834. It now and again stimulates the liberality of Guardians, and encourages the idea that any respectable man who is out of work has the right to be relieved in the way least painful to himself. The Poor Law Guardians now may consist of the very class, or at best of men only just above the very class, which may any day require poor-relief, and inclines to think that pauperism is purely a calamity which ought to be relieved in the way least painful to the sufferer. Recent changes in the law itself have gone far to encourage, if not absolutely to necessitate, the granting of outdoor relief to persons who have still resources of their own. The receipt of poor-relief is still incompatible with the exercise of electoral rights, but this salutary rule has been broken in upon by ominous exceptions, and recent provisions for the relief of the unemployed have been so framed as to dissociate the receipt of money, which is in reality poor-relief, from the political disabilities which are still entailed upon a man who is technically a pauper. So much for the external checks. Their increasing weakness is itself a sure sign of the disappearance of the internal check—that is, the condition of opinion which retarded the growth of pauperism and to which alone the external checks owed their efficiency. Pauperism is ceasing to be a disgrace to the pauper; it is held to be the disgrace of the country which allows any man willing to work to be poor.

The causes of this state of public opinion are various, but they are none of them transitory. The Socialism represented by the election of Labor candidates is too natural a phenomenon in an old and wealthy country which has come under the rule of a democracy, to require explanation. The wonder is, not that the English electorate should pursue Socialistic ideals, but that the individualism derived from an older and aristocratic form of government should still exercise important influence. What is really noticeable is, that classes who cannot be numbered with the poor should no longer present a strenuous resistance to proposals which at bottom savor of Communism. The existence of this inertness is certain. Clergymen of the Church of England have hitherto been supposed to be by character and training the supporters of Conservatism. As regards Socialism, at any rate, many of them lean towards innovations which are at bottom more revolutionary than were the principles of the Jacobins, who, however despotic in their actions, were in theory enthusiasts for individual liberty and really respected the rights of property. Hardly two months have passed since the unemployed marched on a Sunday into St. Paul's Cathedral singing the "Marseillaise." They did not come to insult or brave the clergy; they expected to hear a favorite preacher, and, if they did not hear the man of their choice, the preacher for the day was not unsympathetic, and received the occasional applause of his audience. There is something curious in the thought that a sermon congenial to Socialism was delivered in the cathedral where little more than sixty years ago might have been heard a dignified address from Sydney Smith. The wisest, as well as the wittiest, of the canons of St. Paul's was a more effective reformer than any clergyman of to-day, but he would assuredly have delivered to a crowd clamoring for work—that is, for wages at the expense of the State—advice to rely rather on individual energy and self-help than upon any aid doled out to them from the public treasury. Politicians are a very different set of men from the clergy, but the two classes each derive their influence in modern England from sympathy with the wishes of the people. Hence politicians no less than preachers adopt as far as they can the popular ideas of their day. Such action in the case of persons anxious to obtain or to keep seats in Parliament occasionally raises a suspicion of insincerity, and a cynic may note with amusement that zeal for the attainment of objects desired by wage-earners rises almost daily with the increase in the number of Labor representatives who have obtained admission to the House of Commons.

But cynicism here, as in other cases, does not exactly hit the truth. In the excessive sympathy felt or avowed for the sufferings of the poor, there is much less of dishonesty than of self-delusion. The causes which favor sympathetic Socialism are complex. The high value which in the nineteenth century is set upon physical comfort, makes all of us look upon poverty as in itself a greater evil than it seemed even to the most humane of our grandfathers. Englishmen, again, have formed a really juster estimate of the moral harm done to the mass of the people through the lack not only of the comforts, but even of the enjoyments of life. The very conviction, too, on which the poor-law rests, that it is the duty of the State to ensure all its members against starvation, very naturally engenders the conviction among a highly civilized society that it is the duty of the State to see that every citizen, not guilty of crime nor of gross neglect of duty, shall be secured a tolerably comfortable existence. In all these sentiments you have at any rate the conditions necessary for the dominance, even among the wealthy, of Socialistic ideas.

Add to all this the advance of democracy, and then another feeling comes into play, to which thinkers who have concerned themselves with politics have never paid sufficient attention. A sovereign always finds flatterers, and his adulators come to believe seriously in the divinity of their idol. The deification of a Roman Emperor was merely the most striking example of an almost instinctive feeling which exists everywhere and at all times. This feeling is the natural aversion to separate power from goodness. Men know that an autocrat is powerful, they bring themselves to believe that he is wise and good. Wherever the people are sovereign, there with the mass of mankind will grow up the belief that the voice of the people is in some true sense the voice of God. If the English people, or rather the majority of the English electors, come to believe that every man has a right to be supplied with work, and work at fair wages, by the State, a mass of Englishmen, rich as well as poor, will rapidly adopt the faith that the wish of the electors is as wise as it is strong. In 1848 all England, which then meant the £10 householders, and the far wealthier class by which the £10 householders were guided, held the national workshops of France in derision. In 1906 all England, which means the whole body of householders and the class of rich men who know that political power can be retained only by pleas-

ing the whole body of householders, leans towards the very principles which brought the national workshops of France into existence. Moreover, the English poor have been for centuries accustomed to rely, in times when work is scarce and wages low, on parochial relief, and the English poor-law is itself a Socialistic institution. Can any one deny that the disastrous extension of poor-relief is in the highest degree probable, and that over England impends the danger of the pauperization of the poor?

AN OBSERVER.

THE SEPARATION OF CHURCH AND STATE IN FRANCE.

PARIS, December, 1905.

One can but be struck, in conversing with intelligent Frenchmen on the law which is soon to go into effect, with the sadness and even gloom of their views. It is not that they regard the separation of the Church from the State as in itself an evil; on the contrary, the most enlightened of the sincerely religious would rejoice if the clergy were freed from dependence on the Government. Nor is this at all a recent development, for, as long ago as 1830, Lacordaire denounced with fiery eloquence the *budget des cultes*. Between a priest paid by Government and one supported by the contributions of the faithful, he said, there is the same difference as between a mayor named by the State and one chosen by his fellow-citizens. Starvation is better than slavery; it is a pitiful religion that can live only by subventions. Montalembert declared: "We are paid by our enemies, by those who look on us as hypocrites or imbeciles." Even more explicit was Lamennais, who maintained that separation alone could put an end to relations as injurious to the State as to the Church. There is of course an element among the clergy desirous of maintaining the present status, which they find to their advantage; and there are many conservative people, such as one may still find in our own country, who cannot reconcile themselves to a government that ignores God. It is natural for such people to shrink from any disturbance of the established order; but it is not their vague timidities that are impressive.

To understand the melancholy apprehensions to which I refer, it is necessary to consider some of the events of the past. Before the Revolution the clergy was sufficiently dependent on the King; but the King was a good son of the Church. The Revolution, however, made a clean sweep of everything; there existed neither Church nor clergy. The title to the buildings of the Church, with the exception of those that had passed into private hands, became vested in the national and local governments, where it has ever since remained. For political reasons, Bonaparte reëstablished the Church; but it is to be observed that the Concordat speaks of the Catholic religion as that of the great majority of French citizens, not as the religion of the State. In fact, the advantage of situation lay with Pius VII.; but he was timorous, and Bonaparte bullied him into submission. Bonaparte was to nominate the bishops, the Pope merely to confirm them; and the bishops named the curés, subject to the approval of the Government. The consideration for this concession by the Pope was the payment of the clergy, the grant of the free use of the ecclesiastical buildings, and the practical monopoly of the lucrative business of burials. After his custom, Bonaparte altered the Concordat without the consent and in spite of the protest of the Pope, by the Organic Articles, which reduced the Church almost to the condition of a department of the Government. For a century this condition has substantially prevailed, although some of the claims of the Pope were allowed by the Bourbon kings and under the Second Empire, while the subvention of the clergy was considerably increased.

For twenty-five years, however, the tendency has been in the opposite direction. The religious orders were, of course, first attacked. Their teaching was forbidden, their revenues were reduced, and their property has now been practically confiscated. A few of the orders of women devoted to charitable work are tolerated, and, in special cases, teaching is still allowed; but, on the whole, it may be said that the congregations have been suppressed. The turn of the secular clergy soon came. Such exemption from taxation as they had enjoyed was practically terminated, and now the stipulations of the Concordat have been formally repudiated. The older clergy are promised life-pensions, not to exceed 1,500 francs, the rest are pensioned for from four to eight years. The Government proposed to rent the churches for religious purposes for a short term; but the Legislature decided to allow their free use, for the present, while limiting the term during which the other buildings may be used to five years. As to the other possessions of the Church, they pass into the hands of the Government, which is to transfer them, or what is left of them after the process of liquidation is completed, to certain new organizations, called Associations Cultuelles, We are familiar, in New England, with the religious society, as distinguished from the body of church members, and during the Unitarian controversy serious legal complications arose concerning the ownership of church property, the society often being Unitarian while the church remained orthodox. There have been secular organizations in France, called Fabriques, which concerned themselves with the management of the church property. These are abolished, and the new associations are to take their place. The law is so loosely drawn as to make complications inevitable; and as there may be many associations claiming the same property, it is not likely that the churches will hereafter have any considerable endowment. To make sure of this, the amount of endowment which they may accumulate is limited, where their revenue exceeds 5,000 francs, to three times that amount. The financial management of these bodies is subjected to the control of the Government, and whatever possessions they may acquire are to be taxed. Buildings and funds devoted to charitable as distinguished from purely religious purposes are transferred to charitable institutions managed by the Government. With the exception of the grant of the use of the churches, it may be said that henceforth the Government will do nothing for the support of religion.

Were it merely a matter of being deprived of revenue, it would be a cheap price to pay for freedom from the corrupting influence of Governmental patronage. The suffering will be severe—it is already acute—but it will be salutary. There is little hope, however, that the Government will cease to regulate the affairs of the Church. The law bristles with difficulties; it leaves for future decision all the most difficult problems. The administration of the law is in the hands of functionaries who hate not only the clergy but the very name of religion. The dispersion by force of 260 religious communities was a proceeding so barbarous that many magistrates resigned rather than participate in it, and it seems probable that all the wealth of these bodies—absurdly overestimated at a million of francs—will be wasted or stolen. The Fabriques were long ago forbidden to receive gifts for the schools of the Church, the priests have been expelled from the management of hospitals and charitable institutions, and in a hundred ways it has been made clear that the separation of the Church does not mean that its persecution is to cease. The attitude of the present Government was foreshadowed in Paul Bert's 'Manuel d'instruction morale et civique': "Dieu est un être qui ne se comprend pas, la religion un préjugé et une superstition que les prêtres exploitent à leur profit, l'athéisme un droit de l'homme, la foi dans le surnaturel incompatible avec le progrès de l'esprit humain."

Is it probable that a Government composed of men very many of whom, if not most, would subscribe to Paul Bert's creed, will allow the hated clergy to conduct the affairs of the Church without further interference? It is not to be expected. Men who cling to the old faith shake their heads sadly, and say, "In France, we do not know what liberty, what freedom of conscience, means." Even a person who might in his heart not altogether disagree with Paul Bert, cannot help sympathizing with these good people. They condemn the iniquities of the clergy, their cruelties, their corruption, their obsequiousness. Even the papal pretensions are commonly ridiculed by the faithful; but they may well feel sore and anxious when they know that they are at the mercy of a set of debased politicians who would gladly extirpate from the nation their most sacred convictions. So far as miracles go, it is only the first step that costs. The good Catholic takes more steps than his Protestant brother, but both of them accept the supernatural. There seems no reason to suppose that the religious instinct is to die out in man; do not the votaries of Christian Science count their millions? Persecution in the name of progress is nothing but a renewal of the infamous policy of the clergy in the dark ages. No good Catholics need expect political preferment, hardly even office, from the present Government; and that means a good deal in France.

At the best, the future of the Church is extremely uncertain; no one can yet tell whether the appointment of the clergy will not fall entirely into the hands of the Pope. If it does, it will be unprecedented if the Government does not interfere; if it does not, Frenchmen must develop a capacity for self-government that they have shown no sign of possessing. Yet it is possible that, out of the turmoil of persecution, of ugly passions and bitter enmities, there may arise a purer religion than any that France has yet known; purer in its clergy, purer in its laity, and eventual-

ly purer in its faith. The elements exist; you may hear homilies to-day that go straight to the heart, delivered by priests who are pure in heart to listeners who are sincerely devout, and at the same time full of intelligence. On the other hand, it is conceivable that the mass of the people may become completely irreligious, the lump being too large for the leaven. No one can foretell the event; but in France whatever happens is at least sure to be interesting. MACG.

THE GOLOVKINS.

PARIS, January 17, 1906.

It will be no easy task to write in future ages the history of Russia. Recent events do not give us a true understanding of the past, as they are themselves difficult to understand. Russia is still as she has been since she was born to history, in a sort of inorganic state; she is agitated by instincts which we are incapable of rightly appreciating; by forces which are not guided by intelligence; by vague aspirations which borrow at times the language of Eastern civilizations, but which hardly know their own aim. In the chaotic state of Russia, history cannot follow the lead of any definite policy; it has for its guide no constitutional laws; its sole resource is to fasten on distinct personalities that appear as lights shining in the darkness.

As a contribution to historical Russian literature, I may cite a volume just edited by Count Fedor Golovkin, under the subtitle of "Le Cour et le Règne de Paul I.: Portraits, Souvenirs et Anecdotes.' M. Bonnet, who writes the Introduction to this volume, tells us that he once saw in the old house at Monnaz, in Switzerland, several portraits representing members of the illustrious family of the Counts Golovkin—the Chancellor of Peter the Great, Count Fedor, Russian Ambassador to Naples, etc. The Chancellor was one of the ancestors of the proprietor of the château of Monnaz, and very valuable relics of the past, as well as the archives of the Counts Golovkin, found asylum in this quiet Swiss residence. They reposed there, unknown to the great public, for nearly a century and a half. Some extracts from these papers were published in 1900 by Lucien Perey in the 'Figures du Temps Passé'; and M. Bonnet gives us the memoirs of Count Fedor Golovkin, preceded by a summary history of his family.

The first Golovkin who appears in the modern history of Russia is Gabriel, a contemporary of Peter I., who became his Chancellor, after having first been a mere chamberlain. He was the first to receive in Russia the foreign title of Count. He often played a part in the orgies of the Tsar, a subject on which we find curious and not very edifying details in the inedited papers of Count Fedor Golovkin. There seems to have been a "council of the best drinkers," of which all the intimate friends of Peter I. were members:

"The rule of these orgies was a promenade round the table of Silenus, and none of the great ones was found more able to play the part than my great-grandfather. . . These were very rude fashions, but they were not Russian, and caused great scandal in the nation. The Reformer, finding the national drunkenness too vulgar, had it replaced by an exaggeration of old German customs, which his frequenting the booths and drinking-shops had revealed to him, and he regarded such saturnalia as a beginning of civilization."

There is not much to say about the Chancellor's children. The eldest led an obscure life at court. Michael, the younger son, was exiled after the *coup d'état* of the Empress Elizabeth. He stayed in Siberia with his wife a long time, and died there in profound poverty. His body was brought back to Moscow by his wife after Catharine II.'s accession to the throne.

"The Empress gave her four thousand peasants and a pension of four thousand rubles. She was hardly established in her father's house when she lost her eyesight. 'I asked her once,' writes Fedor in his memoirs, 'by what accident?' 'By what accident? Why! I had wept for twenty-three years.'"

She died at the age of a hundred years, remembering to the end in the greatest details the period of Peter the Great. She had conversed with Louis XIV. and Madame de Maintenon in the gardens of Versailles; she had lived in Berlin, in Vienna, on the frontiers of Kamtchatka, in the greatest affluence and the greatest penury.

The second son of the Chancellor of Peter I. was named Alexander; he made diplomacy his career, left Russia and never returned to it, notwithstanding the entreaties and offers of the Empress Catharine. His son Alexander was educated in Holland; he became possessor of the Swiss château at Monnaz, but spent the greater part of his time in a country house near Lausanne—still to be seen as it was inhabited for some time by Voltaire.

"Those were the *beaux jours* of Lausanne. Foreigners came from all sides, such as Gibbon, Voltaire, Servan, Razumovski, Prince Louis of Würtemberg. . . . Gibbon wrote the 'History of the Decline and Fall,' Voltaire organized a theatre, Razumovski was busy with natural history, Prince Louis of Würtemberg founded the Moral Society of Lausanne, an association whose members pledged themselves to mutual enlightenment by conversation and correspondence."

Golovkin lived there; he had married the daughter of Professor Lorenz von Mosheim. Frederick the Great tempted him to come to Berlin, and made him Director of Playhouses. He retained this post only two years and retired to Paris. He was a great admirer of Rousseau, and wrote an anonymous pamphlet, 'My Ideas on the Education of Women, or a Plan of Education for my Daughter.' He died in Paris in 1781. He had for many years kept up a correspondence with Paul I., then a Grand Duke, on philosophical and moral rather than on literary or political subjects. Of this there is unfortunately no trace left. His son George returned to Russia, as he could find no career for himself in France.

Count Fedor, author of the memoirs now published, was born in Holland, and was sent in 1778 to Berlin to be educated. "As the Dowager Countess of Kameke, my father's eldest sister," he says, "kept then the best house in the capital, I had occasion to study at the same time the sciences and the world and a little court—for the Princes of the blood often did her the honor to visit her." He describes in his memoirs the society of the court. Of Frederick the Great he says:

"He hardly leaves the sanctuary of Potsdam except for military manœuvres in various parts of his states. . . . Few travellers obtain the distinction of arriving through a sea of sand at the sanctuary, where genius occupies itself in creating resources where it seems there are none. These rare interviews are granted to celebrity rather than to worth, and partake of curiosity more than of esteem. . . . The great King, either from a superabundant superiority or an irascible pride, often willingly reduces to powder acts and thoughts for which one felt sure at least of a little indulgence. He shows somewhat more leniency to statesmen, but military and especially literary men rarely leave his cabinet without a scratch. In the midst of the pompous monuments of bad taste by which he has surrounded his retreat, the King lives as economically as his family, his generals, and his ministers."

The court of the great Catharine, where Golovkin was made a chamberlain, was more magnificent. He received his nomination as an answer to a request which he had made of her in French verse. His functions were agreeable. He traversed the Imperial palace as if it were his own. "Every four days, each person of the court received two bottles of all the known wines, and one of every sort of liqueur, which made, if I remember rightly, sixty bottles." There was really a single duty, which consisted in amusing the sovereign. Fedor was highly successful in this respect; he told her stories, read to her when she was half asleep in her bed, made for her charming vistas in the Park of Tsarskoe-Selo. The Empress confided to him the Embassy to Naples, but he mixed too much in the affairs of the kingdom, and wrote satirical verses on the Queen which made it impossible for him to remain there. He fell into disgrace, returned by short stages to Russia, stopping on his way in Venice with the Prince of Nassau-Siegen, and on his arrival was imprisoned in the fortress of Pernau. He was liberated at the death of Catharine, and the Emperor Paul I. made him master of ceremonies. He did not gain the good graces of his wild and capricious master, and in 1800 he was ordered to retire to his estates. He tells us, in a letter addressed to a friend, that he employed the year of his new exile in teaching the children of the village to read, and in writing a universal history.

His exile ceased on the succession to the throne of Alexander I.; from that moment he lived the life of a cosmopolitan. He spent the first years of the century at Dresden, where he became very intimate with Metternich. We find him in 1804 at Berlin, where he was patronized by the beautiful Queen Louise. After the peace of Tilsit, he established himself in Paris.

"I had here," he says, "great successes in society, which in France is decisive of so many things, since by my manners, my language, and even my defects I was eminently French, and my political nullity removed all constraint from the kindness with which people treated me. Placed at once in the midst of the best society, I seemed like a plant of the soil, and a plant cultivated in the fine days of the old society."

I shall not follow him to Switzerland, to Florence. Wherever he went, he took pleasure in writing, having a number of correspondents. He was a very agreeable *causeur;* at times he tried his hand on political questions, and wrote, among other pamphlets, 'Considerations on the Moral Constitution of France.' His memoirs are the most important part of his work, and in them the most interesting chapters are the recollections of the court and the reign of Paul I. They deserved to be published, and M. Bonnet's Introduction is a very valuable

chapter of history. Count Fedor appears in it as a type of a class of Russians who felt the influence of French ideas and of Occidental civilization, and who formed an exceptional élite, deprived of all political power, the ornaments, not the real inspirers and supporters, of autocracy.

Correspondence.

KEATS AND HIS INTERPRETERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has just been called to Dr. Garnett's interesting letter to the *Nation* of December 21, on Keats's "beautiful line":

"Clasp'd like a missal where swart Paynims pray."

May I, even at this late hour, offer some remarks on the subject? I must confess that, to my mind, this beautiful line ought not to be called beautiful, because it fails in its object, even granting that it means anything at all.

The object of a comparison is, we are taught, to make matters more striking and clear. When Shakspere tells us that Hamlet's revenge will be swift as "the thoughts of love," we all know what is meant; the comparison is as clear as it is beautiful. If we had been told that Hamlet would move as swiftly as a pterodactyl, the comparison would not have been beautiful, because obscure; few people know what a pterodactyl is; fewer have fixed ideas as to its slowness or rapidity, which have not been recently tested.

Keats's line, in his otherwise splendid stanza xxvii., is, I blush to say, "pterodactyl" to me. The poet's intention is to make us understand the state of Madeline, "in her soft and chilly nest," when, at last,

"——the poppied warmth of sleep oppress'd
Her soothed limbs."

He describes her in different ways, and, among others, as being, as we said,

"Clasp'd like a missal where swart Paynims pray."

For the comparison to be clear, or indeed to mean anything, it should be notorious that missals are to be found clasped in Paynim land. But they are not, and never were. Clasped or no, Paynims keep no such books, and no one has ever believed that they did. So that the means chosen to make us understand in what particular way Madeline was "clasped," far from giving us any light, leaves us in greater darkness than before: witness the conflicting interpretations of the wisest and cleverest critics.

Let us even assume that the words have the sense, and that the poet had the intention, alleged by Dr. Garnett: the line will not be better, nor the comparison more appropriate. The occasion is Madeline's sleep, which is to last, at most, until morn, and which in fact lasts much less. How can she be properly "compared," to use Dr. Garnett's own words, "to a shut missal, . . . with the heightening circumstance that not only is the missal shut, but it is shut in Heathenesse, where it will never be opened"? If so, the comparison should have been reserved for the time when Madeline's eyes would "never be opened" again—the time, not of her sleep, but of her death.

It was a fault only too common among the lyricists of the nineteenth century to string together beautiful words, suggesting, at most, a meaning, rather than having any. More than one line of this sort is to be found in Musset, a fault to be condoned, not praised.

Recalling the trouble given to literary connoisseurs, in past times as now, by Keats's line, Dr. Garnett mentions the sad case of Philarète Chasles, who, wanting to translate the passage, went absolutely astray, replaced one word by another, and, not knowing what to do with the epithet "swart," quietly suppressed it. To do so, observes Dr. Garnett, is to meet the difficulty "in true French fashion." From the pen of such a scholar such a generalization may surprise. What Chasles did deserves all blame and is quite wrong, but has nothing especially French. In giving a new edition of an old text (Matthew Paris's 'Chronica Majora'), H. R. Luard wrote thus of a predecessor: "He has not the slightest scruple in altering what he does not understand, or changing words or expressions that he does not like." The predecessor Luard alludes to was not a Frenchman; he was Archbishop Parker.

JUSSERAND.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 31, 1906.

OUR SLOVENLY SPEECH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, in this week's issue, who writes on current oral English touches a responsive chord. We have lately heard much of the Gaelic movement, and there is enthusiasm in the effort to revivify the beautful Irish speech, for long time in languishment. But surely here in America there is present need of an apostle of English—an American Hyde—who will lead a crusade in behalf of the revival of our mother tongue. Mr. Henry James sounded the tocsin in his address last summer at Bryn Mawr. He is competent to lead, but has forsaken us and fled with hands to ear.

As he points out, the sad thing is, indeed, the absence in us of the consciousness of sin. People whose grammar is of the schools, whose complacency is supreme, whose means assure them the conventional elegancies of life, are tone-deaf to the unhappy sounds they emit as human speech. One hears people of scholastic culture in Northwestern college towns, for example, discourse learnedly of Athenian philosophy while they burr their r's in the most hopelessly Theban way; and then these same people are heard to observe that, whatever the dialectic peculiarities of New England or the South may be, there is nothing distinctively peculiar in their own speech! Alas, their speech bewrayeth them. Here and there, indeed, throughout the land we may hear a voice of "Englishe undefyled," but it is the voice of one crying in the wilderness. Respectfully,

HENRY LEVERETT CHASE.

ST. LOUIS, January 27, 1906.

A PLEA FOR INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the changes in the English language for which American newspapers are responsible is the decrease in the use of indirect discourse in the reporting of conversations and public addresses. The prevailing appetite of editors for interviews in the form of dialogue or monologue compels the reporter to dress up in quotation-marks sentences and paragraphs which may represent well or ill the ideas of the person quoted, but which, being based on the reporter's memory or at best his longhand notes, cannot possibly be what they pretend to be, namely, the exact language of the speaker. I do not complain of those newspapers whose frankly avowed object is to deck out all their news items in the smartest language possible, without regard to either original facts or original words; if they wish to clothe the alleged ideas of college professors, prize-fighters, and shoplifters in the uniform elegances of reportorial English, their readers, being sometimes diverted thereby and rarely deceived, have no grievance that I feel called upon to present. On the other hand, many newspapers that are governed by the motive of giving the public accurate reports have come so far under the influence of these sprightly purveyors of fictitious news as to put pressure on their reporters to serve up no news that is not spiced with interviews, and no interviews that are not garnished with the symbols of direct discourse The result is that one rarely finds in an American newspaper a quotation of any length in indirect discourse, and one is led to doubt whether one reporter in ten could execute a paragraph of it without doing violence to its proper moods and tenses.

The average person seeking to reproduce from memory the statements of another succeeds best if he devotes himself to mastering the ideas rather than the mere words of his informant. An interviewer who patches together such words and phrases as he can remember in order to make a connected statement in direct quotation, is not so likely to reproduce faithfully the thought of his informant as he would be if he did the best he could with his own words in indirect discourse. Moreover, the person interviewed is usually as averse to masquerading in language not exactly his own as he is to wearing another person's clothes. Given the exact words of a speaker, the choice between direct and indirect discourse may well be made in favor of the livelier form; but when the only possible thing is to repeat the sense or general purport of a statement, or when it is obviously necessary to summarize a long passage in a few sentences, indirect discourse, which clearly limits the responsibility of the original speaker, is surely the only honest method of quotation. A careful observance of this principle would give our newspapers much freer access to the confidence of public men, many of whom, exasperated as much by the English put into their mouths by false quotation-marks as by the misrepresentation of their ideas, utterly refuse to "talk for publication," although their opinions may be reasonably desired by the public.

It is not necessary that our reporters should copy the English newspapers to the extent of laboriously turning long verbatim reports into indirect discourse for purposes of publication; but they would do well to exercise their pens in that fashion now and then if they would not lose the use of

an indispensable implement of expression.

I am, sir, etc., J. D. GREENE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 31, 1906.

THE EGYPTIAN RESEARCH ACCOUNT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your valuable review of Capart's 'Primitive Art in Egypt' (p. 104, Feb. 1) alludes to the "Research Account of the Egypt Exploration Fund"; and as there is much misapprehension concerning the Research Account, and I have many inquiries to answer about it, let me state that the "Egyptian Research Account" society has no connection with the Fund society. It is practically an entirely new society, and its organization, of recent date, has Sir John Lubbock for president, and over forty persons eminent in scholarship, official and civic position, or the like, for its committee. Professor Petrie, no longer connected with the Fund, is field director, and the continuance of his researches will now depend entirely upon the contributions to the "Research Account," as the circular states. The honorary secretary in London writes to me: "Professor Petrie's work has been so well supported in the past by his American friends that I feel quite sure we can look forward to a continuance of their favor; for I am certain that your frank appreciation of the grand work that he has done in Egypt is shared by very many of your countrymen."

I have already sent over many subscriptions, and I beg to add that I will gladly forward all subscriptions of not less than five dollars each (which entitles to the illustrated volume of the season) to this splendid cause in the hands of a master famous for his economy and skill. I have subscribed $25; and I pay every cost, so that *all* may go intact to Petrie's direct work *in situ* and the publication of the results.

(Rev.) WILLIAM COPLEY WINSLOW.

525 BEACON STREET, BOSTON,
February 3, 1906.

THE HONOR SYSTEM IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. W. L. Stevens, writing on "The Honor System in American Colleges" in the February number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, refers to the early date of the establishment of that system at the South Carolina College. Permit me to give, through your columns, a few pieces of evidence in proof of his statements.

The honor system was here a growth. The first president, Jonathan Maxcy, a native of Massachusetts, had the board of trustees, at their meeting on the 19th of December, 1804, adopt as the basis of discipline this section (article vii. of the by-laws published at Columbia, S. C., 1805): "The rewards and punishments of this institution shall be all addressed to the sense of duty, and the principles of honor and shame." At the death of Dr. Maxcy in 1820 Prof. Robert Henry delivered an address, published in 1822, in which he said that Dr. Maxcy "appealed to the honor of his pupils, and required a faithful compliance with conditions which they themselves had voluntarily undertaken to perform."

In 1823 a most serious offence committed in the college chapel was the occasion of an investigation, the method of procedure of which shows that the honor system had by this time developed almost to the degree existing at the present. All students were required to answer whether they had committed, or had been accessory to, the offence in regard to which the faculty was conducting the investigation. The minutes of the faculty for April 10, 1823, have this comment: "Answers [*denials*] were given by the following students, who, of course, were considered as exonerated and allowed to retain their standing." By 1836 a regular method of procedure had been established. A student was not expected to incriminate any one else by his evidence. If he denied that he had anything to do with the offence of which he had been charged on reasonable presumptive evidence, he was regarded as *prima facie* not guilty; if his denial was afterwards found to be not true, he was expelled for lying.

Between 1807 and 1848 there were at least two editions of the by-laws of the College, but no copy is accessible, so that I have determined the dates 1823 and 1836 from the MS. minutes of the faculty, which are preserved in the College Library.

Very truly yours, EDWIN L. GREEN.

SOUTH CAROLINA COLLEGE, COLUMBIA,
January 26, 1906.

Notes.

Further spring announcements by the Macmillan Company are a 'Memoir of Archbishop Temple,' in two volumes; 'Persia, Past and Present,' by Prof. A. V. Williams Jackson, with numerous illustrations; and 'Kaempfer's History of Japan in 1693,' translated in three volumes by J. G. Scheuchzer.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly issue 'From a College Window,' a collection of serial papers from the *Cornhill Magazine*, with six essays not before published, by Arthur C. Benson, author of 'The Upton Letters.'

The Burrows Publishing Company, Cleveland, announce the extension of Avery's 'History of the United States' from twelve to fifteen volumes. Original subscribers will have the three last gratis; subscribers to the fifteen may similarly find themselves presented with a sixteenth (*i. e.*, the index volume, unless that be the fifteenth).

Mr. E. F. Henderson's 'Short History of Germany,' which on its appearance four years ago we judged to be the best in English for that part of it (the main) treating of the period between the beginning of the Reformation and the establishment of the German Empire, has been brought out in a single volume by Macmillan.

Messrs. Longman's school edition of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury' will certainly find favor. Mr. Herbert Bates has freely handled the compiler's notes, and added his own. The general reader may disregard both in pursuit of the poems alone. There is an index of first lines, and a conspectus of the contributory poets.

The parent 'Who's Who' for 1906 (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) boasts its 58th year of issue and of usefulness. Its newest wrinkles are an enumeration (not naming) of sons and daughters, and indication of motor and telephone numbers and telegraphic addresses. Now that American, German, and Italian copies of 'Who's Who' are springing into existence, the advisabilility of cleaving to British "somebodies" alone is worth considering, in view of the growing bulk of the work.

A stately 'Deutsches Zeitgenossenlexikon: Biographisches Handbuch deutscher Männer und Frauen der Gegenwart' (Leipzig: Schulze & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) follows close upon the heels of the smaller and more nimble 'Wer ist's? Unsere Zeitgenossen.' Eight hundred pages in the German letter now compete with one thousand and upwards in Roman type; and if the latter seems an advantage for 'Wer ist's?' it is offset by a minimum of abbreviations in the Lexikon. Further comparison shows a wider range in 'Wer ist's?'—the Lexikon's choice of eminent contemporaries being rather strictly confined to the German Empire, though exceptions have been made in the case of certain Austrians and Swiss. Page one in the two works has ten notices for 'Wer ist's?' against four for the Lexikon, and only two are in common. The information contained in these is substantially identical. It appears, therefore, that a shelf supplied with both these dictionaries of contemporaries will be richer than with either alone; but we fear the cheapness and portability of 'Wer ist's?' may seriously affect the publishers' purpose to make an annual of the Lexikon. Few of its notices exceed half a column, and the Emperor Wilhelm gets no more space than Sudermann; both less than Paul Heyse, thanks to his literary productivity.

'Napoleon's Love Story' (Dutton) is a novel by a Polish author, Waclaw Gasiorowski, translated by Count de Soissons. It breathes history at every pore, for even in the translator's preface we are thrilled by the information that in 1863 [*sic*] twenty-five thousand Polish horsemen defeated 300,000 Turks under the walls of Vienna! The author is looked on by his countrymen as the champion of the school of writers who follow Sienkiewicz, and his book may therefore appeal to some of the readers of 'Quo Vadis.'

Mr. Ernest Radford remarks, in the prefatory text of the volume of the Newnes Art Library devoted to Rossetti (Frederick Warne & Co.): "Whilst the quality of the original must necessarily be lost in the reproduction, the design is at any rate there, by means of which we are brought almost as close to the artist on his intellectual side as we should have been by the original, and, with illustrations so arranged as to take us through the stages of his career, are not altogether without guides." This is a fair statement of the usefulness of such books of reproductions if they only were "so arranged as to take us through the stages of a career," but for some reason the publishers persist in ignoring this or any other visible principle of arrangement, and to follow Mr. Radford's chronological account of Rossetti's work you must go skipping through the plates hunting for the one you want, and lucky when you find it.

M. Arsène Alexandre takes the tone of personal reminiscence in the introduction to the volume on 'Puvis de Chavannes' in the same series; and though he has little

of importance to tell us, that little is first-hand information, not mere compilation. By a curious blunder the detail plates of the "Ludus pro Patria" credit that decoration to Rouen, though the small ensemble plate gives the correct ascription to Amiens.

It was, perhaps, hardly to be expected that Mrs. Ady (Julia Cartwright) should make of her 'Raphael' in the Popular Library of Art (London: Duckworth; New York: Dutton) such an original piece of analysis or so illuminating a biography as one or two other little books in this useful series. Pretty much everything has already been said about Raphael, and all that a writer can hope to do is to give a rational and well-balanced résumé of accepted criticism and acknowledged fact. This Mrs. Ady has done acceptably, and the volume is a worthy successor to its forerunners.

In 'The Modern Trust Company' (Macmillan), F. B. Kirkbride and J. E. Sterrett offer us the first detailed account of the organization and operation of trust companies. As such, the book supplies a genuine want, and should receive a hospitable reception. The authors have made a careful study of the distinctly technical side of their subject, and have produced a book similar in its general features to the best works upon what is usually called "practical banking." But, to the larger economic problems caused by the rapid development of trust companies, the scantiest attention is given. The authors do well to show the desirability of having adequate cash reserves maintained by companies engaged in an ordinary banking business, but they should have devoted more than three pages to this important and timely subject. They do well, also, to point out the importance of frequent public statements of the condition of these institutions, yet merely touch upon the topic, which ought to have received extended treatment. In future editions, it is to be hoped that more attention will be given to these larger questions of public policy. The care and judgment with which the rest of their work is done, justify the belief that our authors are competent to deal with the broader aspects of their subject. As their book now stands, however, it fails to give us all that we have a right to expect from a comprehensive treatise upon trust companies.

Charles A. Conant's 'Principles of Money and Banking' (Harper & Bros.) is a comprehensive treatise, parts of which have already appeared in economic and financial periodicals. It is not written for the purpose of demolishing the "quantity theory," extirpating the bimetallist, or advocating an "asset currency," but is devoted to irenic exposition rather than polemical discussions. Withal it is written clearly and interestingly, and should prove a useful work of reference at many points. Viewed as a systematic treatise, however, the critic's verdict cannot be wholly favorable. Mr. Conant has read widely the English and French literature on his subject, but has made no use of the German. He has not always discriminated between what was novel to him and what would be new to a well-informed reader. His pages are encumbered with superfluous quotations upon unimportant topics, which he could have dismissed equally well with a few words of his own. His historical chapters are sometimes painfully inadequate, and his treatment of theoretical subjects not always satisfactory. He is at his best in the discussion of various practical topics with which he has had wide and varied experience; elsewhere, many of his chapters do not rise above the level of the commonplace. With conspicuous merits and serious defects, the book will be held in varying estimation by different readers and critics.

Gannett, Garrison, & Houston's 'Commercial Geography' represents still another attempt to meet the demand for a text-book on trade. It registers an advance over some of its predecessors in that it lays distinct stress upon the physical and social conditions of commerce; in other words, it reduces more nearly to their relative importance the statistical materials which formerly well-nigh made up what posed as commercial geography. But this process is carried out in the present volume, as it seems to us, in a degree still insufficient. Considerably over half of the material is statistical, and is set off by itself instead of being interspersed in the more general and philosophical part, either directly or by cross-reference, by way of immediate illustration of principles there set forth. Statistical materials always afford difficulties to the student, and especially to the schoolboy; and it is only by the most skilful use of the nucleus-principle that any life can be put into them. Pedagogically, then, this book is still defective; and as for the scientific discussion of the conditions of commerce, this seems incomplete and insufficiently systematic, and in many cases too condensed. The treatment varies between passages of complex implication and others of a more suitable simplicity. It is to be feared that the teacher himself, unless specially trained along these lines, will have trouble in extracting from this book the new point of view.

A foreign work upon the same subject (Eckert's 'Grundriss der Handelsgeographie,' Leipzig, 1905) comes nearer to a scientific treatment of the subject than any other we have seen. Practically, all the essential principles of the influence of environment are rehearsed in the first volume, together with apposite examples. All the more purely local and statistical matter is referred to a second volume. If the book were more attractively set up, with larger and less crowded type, the impression of dull *Gelehrsamkeit* which it gives would be to a great extent removed. In the hands of a skilful translator permitted to omit, paraphrase, and manipulate, Eckert's work could be made into a text-book considerably superior to any we now have in English. As it stands, it is a valuable reference volume for any one who teaches the subject.

The fourth volume of the 'Jahrbuch der deutschen Bibliotheken' has just appeared, containing the usual lists of libraries and librarians in the German Empire, statistical tables, and new statutes and regulations. Among the latter we find the new Royal Ordinance regulating the appointments to the higher library service in Bavaria. The chief library in that country is the Hof- und Staatsbibliothek in Munich, and the second half of the apprenticeship which all would-be librarians must serve must be gone through there, while in case of the first half the candidates may choose between that library, the university libraries, and a couple of other specified institutions. In addition to the apprentice work, the candidates must attend lectures in the history of printing and the book trade, in palæography, library administration, and bibliography. Since the publication of the previous volume, two libraries have joined the international library loan system, namely, the Public Library of Geneva, Switzerland, and the library of Columbia University in New York, the latter being the first American institution to join.

The first annual volume of the 'Annotationes,' issued by the Concilium Bibliographicum in Zurich, has just been completed. It contains, besides the report for 1904 and sundry notes in regard to the card indexes of the Concilium, reprints or abstracts of a number of "Articles dealing with the Concilium Bibliographicum and its Work," in continuation of the bibliography of such articles during the years 1893 to 1904, also found in this volume. The latter is partly reprinted from the Bibliography of Coöperative Cataloguing and the Printing of Catalogue Cards presented as a thesis to the School of Library Science of the University of Illinois by Messrs. T. Jahr and A. J. Strohm, and printed in 1903 by the Library of Congress. The most important announcement of the Concilium itself is that in regard to the resumption of its card bibliography of physiology, accompanied by an excellent study of the proper scope of a bibliography, the completeness to be attained, the arrangement of the material, etc.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for January contains as its first article Gen. A. W. Greely's address on geographical exploration, delivered at the Carnegie Institute in Pittsburgh. This is followed by an entertaining account of the Florida Keys and their products by John Gifford. A railroad to Key West is in process of construction, binding the different Keys together like a string of pearls. The writer, who has a plantation on Elliott's Key, from which he picked in one day cocoanuts, bananas, limes, pineapples, papaws, sapodillas, sugar apples, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, eggplants, and peppers, prophesies that they will soon be the site of many winter villas and gardens. The greater part of the remainder of the number is devoted to a report of the speeches delivered at the annual dinner of the National Geographic Society, but fitted for the columns of a newspaper rather than for what purports to be a scientific journal. The new department of geographical squibs is also to be regretted as a further lowering of dignity of this periodical. Many of the illustrations, interesting in themselves, have no reference to anything in the text, but seem to be inserted to increase the bulk of the number.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 11, has for its article of most general interest an account, by Alb. Grubauer, of an expedition into the interior of the Malay Peninsula made for the purpose of studying the few remaining aborigines. After much difficulty he was able to find one of their villages. He describes the inhabitants as scarcely middle-sized, but well formed and excessively shy, evidently resembling strongly, in this as well as in their habits of life, the pygmies of the Central African forest. The other leading contents are a

summary of our present knowledge of the Antarctic Ocean, and a description of the hurricane which last June raged in the Marshall Islands, both accompanied by maps. There is further a report of the proceedings of the third international Glacier Conference, held in the Engadine in September, 1905; Prof. H. F. Reid of Johns Hopkins being the presiding officer. In No. 12 Theodor Strauss gives an account of a recent journey in the province of Luristan, western Persia, which was both difficult and dangerous from the utter lack of an organized government and the consequent lawlessness of the people. "Robbery and plundering is the order of the day here," a Persian prince said to him. A lengthy summary of Penck and Brückner's work on the Alps in the Ice Age, and an interesting table of the different nationalities or peoples in the Russian Empire in 1897, deserve notice. The leading race is of course the Slav; then comes the Turco-Tartar, while third in rank are the Jews, who number a little over five millions.

The annual list of new and important works added to the Boston Public Library is much larger than that of previous years. The greatest increase has been in works on the useful and industrial arts, and this shows both the present trend of mental activity and the aid which a public library can give towards developing the productive powers of an intelligent community. There has been an increase, too, in works on the fine arts, education, and science, with a falling off in works on general literature. A new and most useful departure is an author-index containing some 7,500 names, and if there was also a subject-index there would be little left to be desired.

Major von Brug, a recognized authority in the department of aerial navigation, has presented his library on this subject, exceptionally rich in historical and descriptive works, to the Deutsches Museum of Munich. German journals pronounce this the best collection of books, charts, maps, etc., on the subject in the Empire, if not in Europe.

We have already spoken of the municipal purchase of the house in Odense where Hans Christian Andersen was born April 2, 1805, for the purpose of transforming it into an Andersen House, in which may be preserved objects associated with Denmark's best-known writer. By the help of early drawings, both the exterior and the interior will be restored to their original appearance, and the Danish public is now called upon to contribute material for its furnishing. Valuable objects have already been presented by the Collin family, Andersen's most intimate friends, the composer Edvard Grieg and others, and the local committee has purchased a set of furniture used by Andersen for twenty years and the 109 original drawings for the 'Wonder Tales' by Wilhelm Pedersen. It is safe to say that no similar undertaking, with the exception of the Shakspere birthplace, will appeal to a larger number of persons throughout the world; and if every one who has had his childhood days brightened by the works of this Danish genius would contribute a penny, the committee of Odense citizens would have a large amount at their disposal.

The Cape-to-Cairo Railway has been constructed to the Kafue River, 260 miles beyond the Victoria Falls. At the present rate of progress, a mile a day, the Broken Hill zinc and lead mines will be reached in June. Then there will be uninterrupted communication by rail with Cape Town, 2,015 miles distant. The next point aimed at is a rich copper area on the Congo State border. The railway, according to Sir Charles Metcalfe, who has just returned from a preliminary survey of the country between the railhead and the Free State, is a great peacemaker. The whole of the region, he reports, is tranquil and secure, presenting a great contrast to the condition of affairs a few years ago. The natives are now free from the raids from which they suffered, and enjoy security of property.

The highly respectable position which the Equal Suffrage movement has now attained to is evidenced by the fact that at the annual convention which begins its sessions to-day in Baltimore (February 7-13), meetings will be presided over by President Remsen, Dr. Welch, and Mayor Timanus, and addresses will be made, among others, by Governor Warfield and Secretary Bonaparte. Miss Anthony will celebrate in Washington on February 14 her eighty-sixth birthday.

—In the February *Atlantic*, William Everett discusses the United States Senate with his usual vigor, chiefly in respect of its usurpation of power rightly belonging to the Executive. Such discussions are comparatively useless, however, so long as Presidents continue willing to barter Constitutional prerogatives for the furtherance of favored measures through Congress. Taking the history of the country as a whole, the Presidency is hardly less culpable than the Senate in disturbing the proper balance of power. Dr. Everett has no faith in any scheme to improve the Senate by Constitutional amendment providing for popular election. The Constitution, he thinks, should remain practically unalterable. Have we not discovered, however, that there are other and easier ways of alteration than amendment? Andrew D. White returns to his studies in the "Warfare of Humanity with Unreason," presenting in this issue the first part of a paper on Turgot, "a great thinker, writer, administrator, philanthropist, statesman, and, above all, a great character and a great man," though a failure by ordinary standards of judgment, since he was driven speedily from his culminating position and lived "only long enough to see every leading measure to which he had devoted his life deliberately and malignantly undone." On the purely literary side, William C. Hazlitt's presentation of new "Eliana" is the most attractive feature, though those of us who used to enjoy 'Dream Life' and the 'Reveries of a Bachelor' in simpler days may thank Mrs. Annie Russell Marble for a chance to take a half-hour from "doing things" for a study of the charm of "Ik Marvel."

—Dr. Nevinson's closing paper on the "African Slave-Trade" in *Harper's* scarcely attains the sensational character suggested in the advance notice of a month ago. He has proved clearly enough what people who have cared to look into the matter already knew—that the slave-trade exists to-day, with all the hideous characteristics which it has had in the past, and must ever have. Whether we shall find the way out without the rise of a new band of agitators, as single-minded, as resolute, and at the start as obnoxious to the feelings of the majority, as were the American Abolitionists of seventy years ago, is somewhat doubtful. Abbey's illustrations of "Julius Cæsar" are accompanied by Harold Hodge's critical comment, parts of which recall some of Swinburne's comments in previous numbers of the same series. To be told that Calvary alone can surpass in awe the murder of Julius Cæsar can hardly strengthen one's faith in the competence of the critic. One disposed to scent imitation easily might recall here the similar outburst of F. Marion Crawford that Brutus, in murdering Cæsar, "blackened the name of friendship with a stain that will outlast time, and by a deed second only in infamy to that of Judas Iscariot." Such criticism elucidates the critics rather than the dramas of Shakspere or the facts of Roman history. The Easy Chair is at its best in discussing Mr. Holt's recent paper on the "Commercialization of Literature." It is only the publication of literature that is commercialized. The author, even when tempted from one publisher to another by higher royalties, of course maintains his artistic ideal, and so his literature is as free of the money taint as ever, "just as the heart of a lady released from its allegiance by the divorce court is as essentially true as ever, and may be so transferred to a new object of devotion."

—The *Century* has chosen to make the memory of Keats its chief mid-winter feature. A paper on the "Portraits of Keats," by William Sharp, is accompanied by a dozen illustrations, half of which are from the various portraits by Joseph Severn. Mr. Sharp seriously questions the genuineness of many miniatures of Keats generally attributed to Severn, giving instances of bold attempts to dispose of forgeries under his name. Mr. Gilder tells of a visit to Severn, in his apartment at the Fountain of Trevi, in 1879, where he first saw the life-mask of Keats's face, a copy of which he brought to America. Another copy he gave to Philip Bourke Marston, and through these two copies, used for illustration in the editions of Keats by Buxton Forman and John Gilmer Speed, the mask has become widely known on both sides of the water. A striking illustration of the delicate touch of Helen Keller was furnished by this mask. Upon passing her fingers over the face, in Mr. Gilder's presence, she immediately said, "He smiles." Now, the smile, which undoubtedly exists, is so slight that many would not recognize it at all from the reproductions on paper, and Mr. Gilder states that it can be perceived by the eye in the mask itself only when the light is rightly adjusted. President Spencer's plea for the railroads in the January number, as against a Federal rate-making commission, is counterbalanced by a paper on the other side from Charles A. Prouty, of the Interstate Commerce Commission. It is easy to point out the sins of railroads, and this he does, with evidence which must be convincing were there anybody still to convince. What one misses, here as everywhere else, from the President's utterances down, is any valid proof that the methods under discussion will afford a workable remedy.

—The editors of *Scribner's* have chosen to give the mind of their readers a rest from

strenuous themes, with the exception of the few who care enough for "abroad" to be stirred to a strenuous mood by Mr. Millard's paper on the "New China," a paper which will doubtless gain a few readers from its writer's established reputation for "other-sidedness" in Eastern affairs. Francis Wilson opens the number with a reminiscent paper on "Joseph Jefferson at Work and Play," acompanied by an interesting group of photographic illustrations, in two of which ex-President Cleveland appears, naturally with fishing-rod in hand. Ernest Thompson Seton writes of the moose and his antlers, with a score or more of illustrations from his own and other collections. George Moore contributes reminiscences of the Impressionist painters, and the Field of Art gives a brief, though very favorable, account of the "Gallery of National Portraiture" assembled by the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts last November.

—William O'Brien's 'Recollections' (Macmillan) are given to us in an attractively printed volume of over five hundred pages. They are brought down no later than to 1882 and his return as member for Mallow. The portraits of Mr. Parnell, Mr. Butt, Archbishop Croke, and himself are excellent. The dedication, to "The Mother of My Wife," does credit to his heart. Mr. O'Brien wields a facile pen. Old Fenian days in Ireland are graphically and on the whole truthfully portrayed. The struggles of an Irish lad from indigence to eminence are affectingly told. His proposal of marriage at sixteen to a pretty actress is idyllic; and dramatic was their meeting twenty years afterwards in the House of Commons, of which he was then a prominent member, she having been twice married in the interval. It would not be easy in literature to find a more pathetic incident than his vigil beside the remains of one brother, who had died of consumption, whilst in adjoining rooms a brother and a sister were in their last hours from the same fell disease. The book will be read with interest by all who have lived through those days and who are interested in Irish affairs. Mr. O'Brien is over-generous in his estimate of the characters of many of those with whom he has worked, and appears to have broken with others with whom through most of his career he was most closely connected. As material for history, the volume must be used with caution. The author is often carried away in his statements of fact by what he would wish to believe had been, rather than by what really was; and his recollection of events does not always accord with that of others who were as much behind the scenes and have had as good opportunity of judging as to the truth.

—Hjalmar Cassel, a Swedish engineer who visited this country during the St. Louis Exposition, has published his impressions in a slender volume entitled 'American Business Methods' (Stockholm: Bonnier). The central chapter in the book is the one in which he puts the question: "Is the superiority of American industry based on better machinery?" This, he thinks, is not the case, though he finds American tools and machines superior to those made in Europe; but American machines are sold all over Europe, and are used to as good advantage there as here, at times to better. "Nobody who inspected the Exposition with impartial eyes could there find evidence supporting the opinion that American industry is qualitatively superior to that of the Old World, and that it uses mechanical appliances which are foreign to us. I am inclined to think that many European engineers were to a certain extent disappointed in what they saw of American productions. They had expected to find here, as well as in American factories, clear reasons why the United States has become such a powerful factor in the world's markets. But what they saw was in general not new, and the new was not instructive. They returned home enriched with a few details, but with the riddle unsolved." The reason for the superiority lies, in the author's opinion, in the better organization of offices and factories, the methodical supervision of every detail, the constant watchfulness that no single branch of a business fall behind, and last, but not least, the minute division of labor. Mr. Cassel had his eyes open and his wits about him as he wandered through streets and factories, and he discusses with insight both industrial and social conditions, though his glasses are too rose-colored.

PAUL'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

A History of Modern England. By Herbert Paul. In Five Volumes. Vols. III. and IV. The Macmillan Company. 1905.

These additional volumes of Mr. Paul's history of the latter half of the nineteenth century show the same qualities, the same style, the same manner, as did the earlier. Mr. Paul has too marked an individuality to vary much from himself. Here he is again bright, rapid, epigrammatic, free from all vagueness or hesitation, delivering positive and definite views, telling his story in short sentences whose meaning no one can mistake. He is not a partisan in the sense of endeavoring to suppress the case for the side to which he does not belong while setting out the whole of his own. But he has strong opinions, and allows them to appear. No one will think the worse of him for that, especially as he shows himself capable of recognizing from time to time the merits of individual opponents and the faults of his own party leaders.

His treatment is perhaps rather too chronological. When we want to know exactly what happened and the order of time in which each thing happened, we go to the *Annual Register*, or to some such summary of events as one finds in the *Political Science Quarterly*. From a history written thirty or forty years after the events one expects a rather different way of treating those events. They may then be grouped according to their natural connection, each group being handled separately, so as to explain those among the causes and those among the consequences of some important event which did not appear palpably on the surface just before or just after it occurred. This advantage of writing about events sufficiently far away from them for them to have fallen into their true perspective is not quite sufficiently turned to account. Mr. Paul does, indeed, see which are the bigger things he has to deal with; but he does not always isolate them for the purpose of showing their magnitude, and so help us look at them all round as being the capital phenomena to be comprehended and estimated.

An instance may serve to illustrate what we mean. Volume III. begins with the death of Lord Palmerston in 1865. His departure marked the closing of one era and the opening of another. Lord Russell became Prime Minister. Mr. Gladstone became leader of the House of Commons. They brought in a bill for the extension of the Parliamentary franchise, and the democratization of Great Britain began. They were defeated in committee on the bill, and forthwith resigned, but the stone had been set rolling, and it has continued to go on rolling ever since. In 1867 Mr. Disraeli passed a Reform Act which lowered the suffrage in boroughs further than Mr. Gladstone's bill of 1866 had proposed to do. After some years, during which the discussion of the subject was frequently interrupted by exciting crises in foreign and colonial affairs, another Reform act was passed in 1884 which lowered the Parliamentary suffrage in counties, followed next year by a Redistribution act which swept away many small constituencies and the few pocket boroughs that had survived. Thus in eighteen years from the close of the Whig-Liberal period which began in 1832 and ended in 1867, Great Britain had been turned into a country thoroughly democratic so far as her political constitution was concerned, save and except the retention of an hereditary House of Peers. This is one of the most remarkable revolutions that any modern country has seen, although its magnitude was concealed partly by the gradual and peaceful nature of the process, partly by the preservation of all the ancient forms and usages of the Constitution, partly by the fact that the working classes, who since 1885 have been completely masters of the situation, did not for some time realize their new power, and made comparatively little use of it to demand legislation in their own interest.

Now the questions which the student of history puts to himself upon the point are these: What brought about this revolution? Why was it effected so quietly and peacefully? Why did the Reform acts pass with the concurrence of both the great historical British parties? In 1832 the Tory party fought (to use a popular expression) like devils against the Reform bill of that time, which transferred political power from the landowners and men of wealth generally to the middle classes. But in 1867 and 1884 neither the rich nor the middle classes resisted the transference of power from themselves to the laboring class. If they had been terrified by menaces and the prospect of revolt on the part of the laboring class, one could understand this easy acquiescence. But that class, as a whole, showed little passion, and not even much impatience, for an extension of the franchise. These are problems which strike one who, with American history or French history in his mind, comes to the study of modern England; and, so far as we know, no writer on modern England has yet set himself to explain them. Let us hope that, in the concluding volume of his present work, Mr. Paul will devote adequate space to their investigation.

Another singular feature of English politics during the last fifty years comes out

strikingly from such narratives as we have in Mr. Paul's book, and in that by Sir Spencer Walpole ('The History of Twenty-five Years'), which was noticed not long ago in these columns. It is the change in the attitude of public sentiment toward war on the one hand, and toward liberty on the other. It might have been expected—and contemporary observers did in fact expect—that the advent to power first of the middle classes and then of the working classes would increase the love of peace, and the disposition to concentrate attention upon domestic legislation calculated to benefit the classes forming the majority of the electorate. Mr. Cobden, for instance, and Mr. Bright, and Mr. Gladstone himself, all believed that as the danger of wars between nations would, if not extinguished, be at least immensely reduced by the general adoption of free trade, so the liking for war among the English would be reduced by the extension of the franchise to the class whence private soldiers are drawn, and by a diminution in the power of an aristocracy which had enjoyed war and found occupation in it. This has not, so far at least, proved to be the result. The Crimean war, which every one now admits to have been needless and foolish, was popular with the then dominant English middle class. There was an outburst of war feeling against Russia, equally foolish, in 1877, when the working class in the towns had been enfranchised, and another still more recent war, which nearly all foreign observers deem to have been quite as needless, and much more unfortunate than the Crimean war, was unquestionably popular, though, it would appear, rather less so among the workingmen than among the richer sort of people. How comes it that the wise men who knew their fellow-countrymen as Mr. Cobden and Mr. Bright did, have turned out to be in this matter so mistaken?

Then, again, every one supposed that a democracy would, by the very law of its being, sympathize with freedom and those who were struggling for freedom all over the world. Having just won their political rights, they wish others to do the same. But in point of fact there has been less of such sympathy displayed in England since 1885, when England became a democratic country, than there was in the days described by Mr. Paul and Sir Spencer Walpole, when Lord Palmerston figured as a popular hero because he upheld the cause of the Italian patriotic party. There have evidently been causes at work modifying the old sentiments and creating new sentiments which were undreamt of in 1840-70. The growth of what is called "Imperialism," not only in England but also in America, is a phenomenon lying deeper down than the political struggles of the moment, and it needs more analysis than it has yet received.

Mr. Paul, though he cites few foreign authorities on matters of international politics, not even Prince Bismarck's 'Reminiscences,' or General Sir Charles Wilson's account of his effort to save Gordon at Khartum, describes England's part in world affairs with spirit. He is, however, most fresh and telling when he deals with the parliamentary side of politics, as in his sketch of the debates on the Eastern Question crisis, which several times became acute in 1876, 1877, and 1878. Having himself sat in the House of Commons, he understands its ways, and relishes the incidents which enliven representative assemblies. He often happily hits off the characteristics of eminent men, though he gives no finished studies of character, such as the example of Livy and Tacitus used to prescribe to historians of the last generation. Yet Lord Palmerston, Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Bright, and Mr. Gladstone, to say nothing of persons of the rank next below, such as Sir G. C. Lewis, Mr. Forster, Sir Stafford Northcote, Lord Selborne, Lord Granville, are more than sufficiently interesting to deserve a careful analysis of their gifts and of the causes which won popularity for them. Nothing, indeed, is more curious, or better illustrates the complex character of the English people, than the fact that four men so extremely unlike one another as the four first named should have all at one time or another during their long careers acquired so much hold over large sections of their fellow-countrymen.

Mr. Paul enjoys passing literary judgments no less than he does depicting dramatic political situations, but many of these judgments will not command universal assent. To speak of Mr. Lecky as having "written philosophical works of much interest and power" seems to attribute to him what he did not possess, and rather to ignore what were his special and distinctive merits. To call Professor Clifford "the first metaphysician of his age" is a bold and sweeping statement, which metaphysicians generally will by no means accept; nor does the view that Professor Seeley, no doubt a most powerful writer and lecturer, was "equally gifted as a writer and a thinker," stand on any better foundation. Few philosophers, we suspect, and even fewer Greek scholars, will agree to the glowing eulogy bestowed on the translations from Plato of Professor Jowett, who has other and better titles to fame.

As respects accuracy in matters of fact, very few mistakes have attracted our notice, and these of small moment. The statement in the account of the Hyde Park troubles of 1866 that "the railings were torn down in several places and the Park was invaded by the rougher portion of the mob" (p. 53 of vol. i.), is at variance with the best contemporary accounts, which show that the crowd was not a mob, and the first fall of the railings half an accident, due to the fact that, being weak, they gave under the crowd's pressure. So (p. 59) it is hardly right to say that "neither Kelly nor Bovill would have been appointed on purely professional grounds." In describing the murder of Sergeant Brett (vol. i., p. 110) it ought to have been stated that Brett was killed by a shot fired at the keyhole of the police van in order to break the lock. Mr. Disraeli's influence with and over Queen Victoria is antedated when it is given as beginning in 1867 (vol. i., p. 127). It began after 1874, when he was Prime Minister for the second time. In dwelling on the advantages British shipping has derived from the Suez Canal, Mr. Paul has omitted to mention that its opening has seriously injured English ports as centres of distribution for Europe.

Space fails us to cite more than three of the happy turns of phrase which abound in the book. Commenting on Lord Chancellor Westbury's fall, Mr. Paul observes: "Either prudence or moral sense seems to be required for lasting success, even in so imperfect a society as this." Of Mr. Ayrton he says: "He was made Judge Advocate-General, who in those days was neither a general, nor an advocate, nor a judge"; and of Mr. Bright, who talked in a breezy, irresponsible way: "He seldom remembered that he was in office except when he resigned."

MR. RUSSELL STURGIS'S LATEST BOOK.

A Study of the Artist's Way of Working in the Various Handicrafts and Arts of Design. By Russell Sturgis, A.M., Ph.D. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1905.

Some twenty years ago an imperial commissioner was sent from Japan to inquire into the Western methods of teaching and practising art in every direction, as well as the forming and management of museums; and naturally, too, the things that are put into museums—paintings, and sculpture, architecture, etc., etc. The Commissioner had never seen the West nor its arts, and on his way to Europe he remained a short time in the United States. He was puzzled for answers to his many questions, on all possible points, including naturally the literature relating to art. He was advised, and rightly, to go to Mr. Russell Sturgis, whose information was encyclopædic, and who would direct him also to find, when he could not be answered at once. The present book of Mr. Sturgis recalls this all-sufficient anecdote. It is a form of notebook, but also of encyclopædia, and one more offshoot of a habit of life constantly curious in everything connected with art. Over forty years ago, Mr. Sturgis was already a collector, and especially a collector of Japanese art, which was only beginning to be recognized throughout the Western world. Many of the examples and explanations and definitions of his book are the records of a collector who remembers, or who actually has in his hands or before him, the object that serves as a lesson or an explanation.

The people of the time of our earlier interest in art, some fifty years ago, were held in certain currents, and were influenced or moved along them by the intellectual tendencies just preceding. The "unending" Mr. Herbert Spencer encouraged us to believe that we were learning everything, and that, as Mr. John Fiske used to say, we held the world now by the tail, and could swing it if necessary. The world itself helped us by becoming more and more known each day. The encyclopædia, the sum of universal knowledge, was opened to us at length. We were still affected by the storm and stress of the energies of such minds as Mr. Carlyle and Mr. Ruskin, from which even now it is difficult to escape. In this very book we come across the wordings of those English influences—impossible statements, but accepted at that time as good rhetoric, and representing morally and intellectually that little point of the nineteenth century when everything was being settled. Hence, in this book, otherwise so practical, the Ruskinian forms of "unfailing care," "absolutely good," "absolute requirements," and so forth. One notes this with a feeling of the enormous distance between our phraseology of that past moment and the requirements of to-day, when relative truth is more frequently considered. But there was then in all that pertain-

ed to art a wave of enthusiasm which helped to carry one on. The necessary adjuncts—care and admiration for the Pre-Raphaelite school, especially as understood over here—marked some years of this interest in art, and here again in Mr. Sturgis's volume is at least one example of our American Pre-Raphaelites. But Mr. Sturgis at a very early day recognized the value of such contradictory work as that of Homer Martin and Winslow Homer, nor has he ever varied in his appreciation of these two important characters in American art. Always, whatever his views and studies may have been, Mr. Sturgis's walls have received works of drawing or painting which he has not been obliged to change. It is therefore with much right to speak as an expert that Mr. Sturgis has made this very large hand-book of certain parts of his experience. Moreover (as he says in his preface) his experience, that of an architect engaged in decorative work, has given him a lifetime of familiarity with fine arts in nearly all their forms, and in most cases a knowledge also of the processes employed—a familiarity gained in watching the work going on, if not in practising it.

The various methods through which the artist works, he has tried to connect, so that, for example, certain methods of painting are explained to a great extent by his description of the methods of sculpture, and both, too, again, by his consideration of design as evidenced in architecture, which is, of course, the fundamental basis of work in sculpture and painting, and, in fact, in every manner of the hands expressing such intention. Mr. Sturgis has been careful to keep before us the relation of what we may respectively call "practical" and "expressive" in these arts—for example, the actual use of paint, or what he denominates "flat" painting, as connected with the representative painting of more important art.

Of course, Mr. Sturgis can give but the merest glance at these matters. Any detail would become so enormous that a whole library would be necessary to explain more fully. For instance, even in "plain" painting, as we call it, the mere variety of preparation of the whites used in domestic architecture, in the eighteenth century, would fill a vast space. And, indeed, there used to be a book as large as Mr. Sturgis's volumes describing nothing but these tones of white and gray used in polite buildings of the eighteenth century. As Mr. Sturgis points out, to-day we do not go into such refinement, and the tone of the wall is near enough if there be no legal redress against it. It is difficult to have an architect, or even a painter, believe that there is a great difference between one tone and another of the same color, in decoration. One can fancy what architects of the eighteenth century would feel if they for an instant could see the whites and grays used in our modern millionaires' residences. Their wigs or their powdered hair would rise in astonishment at the commercial treatment of these delicacies of common art. This mere mention shows how almost impossible it is to gather together descriptions of methods in any one art, especially in the almost infinite art of painting, within the limits of an ordinary book. Nor are the explanations of artists, as given to the inquirer, always of much use. One frequently finds that an excellent practitioner of, let us say, painting knows nothing of the ninety-nine-hundredths remaining of the practice of painting. This is so frequent that one can be sure that such a case must have happened yesterday or the day before; that is to say, that some painter of considerable quality shall not know how the men of the eighteenth century, or the seventeenth, or sixteenth, or fifteenth, or fourteenth, or thirteenth, painted, nor how the great men painted—neither their preparations, nor their methods, nor their habits. All of which is perfectly natural, and, we think, is well referred to by Mr. Sturgis. But then, as those methods, in the minimum of present records, fill whole volumes, it will be seen how impossible it is to begin to describe them in sequence in the course of the few pages of an ordinary book. Their principles might be laid down, but Mr. Sturgis has not undertaken to do it, they being, perhaps, behind the facts rather than on top of them. Thus, the entire modern inquiry concerning painting, from the neighborhood of 1850, is not referred to by Mr. Sturgis, and perhaps wisely, as introducing a scientific and fundamental view which, as we have said, would rather underlie the inquiry than be evident in it. Of course, we all know that the inquiries into light and color have been one of the special points of the last sixty years, and that almost all painting has felt the result, and that a great deal of painting has been based upon it.

Mr. Sturgis, then, by putting aside these very fundamental points, gains the advantage of merely describing certain outside facts in the practice of the art, and these he again narrows by describing only two methods, which he follows out in a description of two paintings. These he takes apart in very abundant detail, to show the actual mechanism of two different methods, exemplifying, let us say, water-color work and painting in oil, and then he gives no more examples. Of course he cannot give even a few important manners of work without increasing the size of his book to something enormous. Painting, using for its method of addressing us the whole of the world that can be seen or imagined, is practically infinite. Innumerable are the variations which the future may introduce, as innumerable are the objects which the eye may notice, and these again are varied infinitely by every consideration of light and air and position, apart from the more hidden intentions of sacrificing or exaggerating to keep to the path chosen. With the artist who knows, no landscape painted is as true or as full of meaning as the landscapes which still remain to be represented. What has been done is satisfactory, because it is a part of this enormous country of choice. However wonderful the works of each one of the great masters, they are each deficient in something that another gives, and it is we who make the reality of what we see in them.

Mr. Sturgis has thought fit to place at the end of his volumes, rather than at the beginning, principles or notions regarding the artistic side of architecture. But he has begun his notices, his divisions, with one of the most valuable of all statements, and one which comes in very well at this very beginning, where he purposely analyzes some work of South Sea Islanders, who by most persons are considered as "primitive." He states that in his book "decorative art" will not be separated from other Fine Arts. Therein he has taken a position which is the proper one at the present moment when we are rather painfully escaping from the classifications of the last century. Nothing in the French Government management of Art seemed more ridiculous and impossible to the Japanese commissioner of whom we spoke a moment ago, than the existence of a special department for decoration, or painting with a decorative intent. This seemed to him (as it would to all remaining in the great path of the ancient ways) a curious error, bad in its effect, destructive of the reflex influences of the workman, certain to encourage the meaner sort, and thereby to keep the more important artists from an intimate relation with decoration, such as they have always had in the great past. But the French idea, which threatens us, perhaps, at this moment in our teaching, is not peculiar to France, and has had a remarkable influence on all the art of the nineteenth century. As already noted, the art of painting has had new directions forced upon it through the studies of nature made by scientists, and through a natural confusion of the intentions of painting, the realities seen being treated as the object of the painter, and not his means—that is to say, roughly, through the prevalence of a form of realism. Perhaps, in opposition, the so-called "ideal" of the school has its origin in the division we consider. That is why the result of the separation of the decorative and representative sides has been a number of foolish recipes in representative painting for what is called composition, *i. e.*, arrangement. This principle of all art has been represented by a few common-school formulæ, while, of course, the variations must be as numerous as the possible combinations of geometry. Mr. Sturgis will remember how a distinguished foreign decorator, lecturing to the Architectural League, assured them that Japanese decoration or painting was pure haphazard—unlike his own three or four recipes. But a fairly large proportion of British criticism has to be looked upon as the subject of pure amusement, such as Mr. Whistler delighted in.

To return to our explanation: The decorative side of art, which is nearer to fundamental principles and beginnings, was therefore forcibly separated from that side of painting which represented stories, or, again, which aimed at copying the aspect of nature. More and more the artist—meaning thereby the real artist—was separated from the artisan. Instead of lifting the artist, this degraded him, as happens to all parvenus, and he sought to make his pictures by recalling stories or subjects or intentions, instead of carrying them out by their physical qualities of art. The result has been the increase of the commercial influence in art. In England the fact has stamped an impress of snobbishness upon almost all British art, and all the more in the corners and places which were believed to have escaped it. The exclusiveness of the refinement of some years back had its blossom in the forms of art with which we might associate certain names—for instance, that of Morris. All the genius of Rossetti could barely emerge from it. Burne-Jones complained

that his own stained glass became commercial, but he could not see why, being immersed in the same waters. And if his art was impressed by it, what could we expect from others? Burne-Jones had painted outside of his glass, and was a master apart from this. The inferiority of work in this form of decoration, as in most others, is the inferior capacity and experience of the decorators outside of what they do. Since the separation spoken of, no great artist has devoted time to these arts except in the superficial way just explained. The result is necessarily middle-class art, the art of the house-decorator, the ecclesiastical art furnisher. When the decorator can challenge the artist in any other line, he has a right to lead, not before. Mr. Sturgis refers many times to such points—there being no objection to the commercial, or a certain part of it; it is only the misplacement that confuses. The work of art, of course, cannot be duplicated, or done in batches, and this definition helps. We have heard that the Oriental judges have criteria for dividing works of art into the real (original) and the imitation—as our ladies have for lace. We can remember how our Imperial commissioner, on his first sight of European paintings, so divided them with incredible rapidity. We remember how he said at once, on looking at what seemed to us merely very good work, "Oh, this man is one of a set."

Lessons in this direction Mr. Sturgis intends to give all through his book. If they be not all evident, it is to be attributed to the main difficulty of our educational work—that of addressing a multitude so as to include the "lower forms." In the teaching of the Fine Arts this has become the great obstruction. In the art of writing we still hold to high or fine examples. Thus, even if good of their kind, no school or college would use advertisements as models of literature. Our authors' models are almost always of the highest class. And, as the Master said, "Make your acquaintances of your superiors; if that be not possible, then consort with equals, but never with inferiors—because we are the result of what we touch."

TWO GREAT GAZETTEERS.

Lippincott's New Gazetteer: A Complete Pronouncing Gazetteer or Geographical Dictionary of the World, etc., etc. Edited by Angelo Heilprin and Louis Heilprin. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. [1905], 1906. 8vo, pp. x., 2,053.

Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon: Neunte vollständig umgearbeitete, sehr vermehrte und verbesserte Auflage, unter der Redaktion von Johannes Penzler. Erster Band, A-K. Leipzig: Otto Wigand; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1905. 8vo, pp. 1,248.

A spirit of benevolence as well as sense of incompetence may fitly possess the reviewer of a new edition of a world-gazetteer. Lippincott's has long held a more than respectable position in its class, but the revision of 1880 was but patched up in 1893, and the difficult task of a fresh revision had finally to be faced. The Messrs. Heilprin were almost the foreordained directors of it. Sons of a cyclopædic scholar, the late Michael Heilprin, strong especially in historical and geographical knowledge, and reared amid the making of cyclopædias, in which they shared their parent's labors, these brothers have impressed their mark in both fields: the one, an extensive traveller and explorer from Alaska and Greenland to Mexico and the West Indies, a geologist, a naturalist who has written authoritatively on the subject of the distribution of animal life on the globe; the other, author of a paragon of an 'Historical Reference Book,' in which geography, history, and biography are reliably interwoven. Their collaboration insured for their own direct contributions the highest degree of accuracy, proportion and consistency. For what they let stand of the original work, they could hardly escape being secondarily responsible for some portion of errors or omissions.

The adherence to one volume is presumably to be charged to the publishers. Why, it may be asked, should not Lippincott's conform not only to the fashion of most cyclopædias and the major dictionaries, but of other gazetteers, like its German contemporary above cited? The reply may be that the single-volume condition really assisted the editors in the exercise of a severe self-restraint. The new edition is actually compressed, in spite of all additions, into 2,053 pages as against the 2,478 of the issue of 1880. The preface offers a capital summary of the changes effected, in the editorial aim to avoid "artificial standards" and the "weight of dead matter"—such as the obsolete tables of trade statistics excised from the notice of New York city, which has been reduced from three and a half pages to two and three-quarters. The article on Boston, rewritten *con amore*, has shrunken one-fifth; that on Philadelphia, one-third. Such gains permit the expansion of "Japan" by doubling, and of "Russia" by nearly one-half; and where the bulk remains the same, as in the case of the United States, room is made for such handy tables as the "Landmarks" in our history, with special reference to territorial development, and the chronology of the admission of States. Two minor examples of the trained judgment in reëditing may be cited, viz., Northampton, Mass., and the account of Chicago's great fire; nothing essential has been discarded, but the blue pencil has been at work. Sometimes, no doubt, the pencil works too automatically, as when the adjective is stricken out of the "*former* residence of Washington Irving" (under Irvington), as if he might be his own Rip Van Winkle.

The wonder is that in so huge a work the text throughout should be corrected or enlarged so close upon the date of publication, of which an easy test is the signing of the Treaty of Portsmouth, September 5, 1905—an event punctiliously commemorated under Japan, Portsmouth, and Russia. In petty matters, apart from the census returns, this was impossible. How know (or care!) that West Bethlehem, Pa., ceased to be a borough in 1904? But, under Bethlehem, Pa., the institutions of that historic town deserved more specific mention, particularly the girls' school, of changed name but long and honorable record; and why, by the way, the superfluous "*Christian* sect of the Moravians"? Under Cambridge, Mass., one might have expected to find mentioned among the more prominent buildings at least the Harvard Union and the Stadium, if not the Nelson Robinson, jr., [Architecture] Hall and the Phillips Brooks House. So, under Newark, N. J., the Prudential's building, one of the most successful, imposing, and ornamental structures among all the sky-scrapers of the New York metropolitan district, shines by its absence, and by the mention of a rival company's much inferior domicile. For such details a remedy could be found only by a very large sub-editorial organization, through which every American article might be submitted to local experts, just as 'Who's Who,' in renewing itself, sends out to every person recorded the previous statement for revision or addition.

Foreign topics are, of course, considered on a different scale, though Italian towns especially, down to the smallest, appear in numbers. Here the picturesque and historic element has appealed to cultured editors. They claim, and justly, that historical notices in a gazetteer must refer "largely" to changes of boundary, "vicissitudes of foreign domination," additions and subtractions by conquest, and the like. Largely, but not exclusively, unless a gazetteer is to be a mere commercial dictionary, occupied solely with numbers, whether of tons and dollars, or of living inhabitants. A touch of the past enlivens statistics of the present; and happily the historian has been allowed, within limits of reason, to mitigate the geographer's details. Many places once of note have here as elsewhere been lost to memory, at least under their old names; but it is gratifying to find the long and tangled lines of the counts of Mansfeld and Stolberg recalled, though in fewest words, in connection with the villages once the centres of their rule. The notice of Wismar ends: "It was in the possession of Sweden from 1648 to 1803." Space might have been spared to add that it was then mortgaged to the Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin as security for a million crowns borrowed by Gustavus IV. The interest accumulated till the debt was past paying, and in September, 1903, it was discharged by transference of the town. The historical section of the article "France" has been entirely rewritten, with an avoidance of bias or moralizing, and any one who compares it with the corresponding column in the edition of 1880 will receive a lesson in the art of lexicography.

Some divergences in past and present editing may be remarked. The practice, more or less thorough, of subjoining the name of the inhabitants of a given place or country, *e. g.*, Aragonese, Viennese, Florentine, Marseillais, Palermitan, Neapolitan, Madrilenian, etc., has been dropped. This we rather regret, though the space saved would have been more significant if the old practice had been thorough. More than twice as many initial Tch's occur in the alphabetic sequence as formerly, but Chinese names, like Chi-fu, are not tampered with; and, though we have Kamtchatka, the form Manchuria remains. This transliteration is reserved for Russian, Turkish and other West Asiatic names. The French diphthong *ou* is discarded in Abukir, Rumania, Rumelia, Seul, etc., and the *oo* of the earlier edition in Baku, Timbuktu (alternative Timbuctoo), etc. Dawson City, Johannesburg, Kimberley, Klondike, Oklahoma (one and a half columns), are brand-new titles. The Philippines are as good as new. For Ma-

nila, by the way, the alternative spelling Manilla is no longer recorded, though it represents the English pronunciation as "manee-la" does not. New, too, is Australia (the Commonwealth), with its brief outline of the Constitution of the Federation; and this observation on its antipodal neighbor (p. 1303): "In no other country of the world has state socialism and the participation of government in matters affecting labor and capital advanced with such strides as in New Zealand."

The new Ritter makes its appearance not a quarter century but a decade after its last edition, still under the direction of Johannes Penzler, and giving every evidence of an organized "institution." Its form and typography are preserved, but the 1,064 pages of this moiety in the eighth edition have become 1,248 in the ninth, notwithstanding a rigid elimination of matter deemed irrelevant to the main objects—to subserve industry and commerce in particular. Hence history cuts no figure whatever, and Japan, for all her recent military and political strenuosity, has no more space granted her than ten years ago, and her agriculture, fisheries, manufactures, and constitution in peace overshadow, for Ritter, her armaments afloat and ashore. Barely do we get two lines at the end predicting great changes in many respects as a result of peace with Russia; of the war itself otherwise not a word.

The inclusiveness of this Lexikon is naturally greatest for domestic use, and every place in Germany of 100 inhabitants and upwards is recorded. The scale then lowers to 150 for Austria and Switzerland, 200 to 500 for outstanding Europe, 500 to 1,000 for the remainder of the globe; but post-offices, telegraph and railroad stations, baths, and factories are liberally embraced irrespective of population. For example, the post hamlet Darkey Flats in Queensland, Australia, obtains bald mention (though Darkey Springs, Tenn., admissible by the same title, was too new or too invisible to be seized for the present edition). On the statistical side, the editor claims official information comparable in directness to that for which the 'Almanach de Gotha' annually makes its bow.

In point of fulness we have compared the American and the German dictionaries by counting a tract taken at random—Bushey-Buttel, just two pages of the latter, a little more of the former, with the resultant figures, excluding cross-references, of 112 places for Lippincott—reckoning in, however, the rubric *Bushmen*, not admissible to Ritter—and 310 for Ritter. Of these, making allowance for rough counting, the number of American names is the same in both volumes. Equally at random, as manifesting difference of methods, we subjoin two minor articles:

(Lippincott) "*Cholet* [pronunciation indicated, a cardinal feature of this work], a town of France, in Maine-et-Loire, on the Maine, 37 miles S. W. of Angers. It is the centre of a great textile manufacturing district. It figured in the wars of the Vendée. Pop. in 1901, 17,150."

This is fairly readable. Here is

(Ritter) "*Cholet*, 1) Arr. in Frankr., Dep. Maine-et-Loire . . . . 3) Hptst. [capital] ebd., 19,352 E. (Population), P. T. [Post, Telegraph]. EdL [R. R. station] La Possonnière — Niort, Ch. — Clisson, Saumur—Ch. u, Nantes—Ch. [sundry lines]. Battist-, Leinen-, Calicots- u. Flanellweberei [textiles enumerated]."

This juxtaposition, with what has gone before, teaches that any one who can afford it must secure *both* these admirable works.

A Memoir of James Jackson, M.D. With Sketches of his Father and Mother, and Some Account of his Ancestry. By James Jackson Putnam, M.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905. Pp. xii., 456.

The author of this work, a grandson of its subject, is heir not only of his blood, but of his professional acquirements and devotion. His work is a labor of love, and as such it must be viewed. Not that it need fear any criticism from outsiders, but only those can truly appreciate it who were to some degree within the charmed circle of Dr. Jackson's presence.

The first half of the book traces the line of the family from the earliest emigrants from England, sons of Christopher Jackson, and treats of various members of it, more especially Jonathan Jackson, an ardent and enterprising patriot of the Revolution, active in the Continental Congress and in the Federal party early in the nineteenth century. It tells the fortunes of his four sons, Dr. James Jackson's brothers, two of whom were shipmasters, one (Charles) prominent on the Supreme Bench of Massachusetts, and one (Patrick Tracy) a pioneer in the textile manufactures of Massachusetts. The father and all his sons made the strongest impression on their community for their intense activity of mind, their sterling probity, and their social charm. For many years they were associated with Newburyport, and later identified with Boston. The group of congenial families with which they were connected—Cabots, Lowells, Higginsons, and others—furnished much of the very lifeblood of Boston in the first half of the century just closed: *κ'οὔπω σφιν ἐξίτηλον αἷμα δαιμόνων*. This memorial is very valuable.

The second part is the memoir of Dr. James Jackson. This admirable man was born in 1777. He graduated from Harvard College in 1796; studied medicine with the venerable Dr. Holyoke; went to London in 1799 to "walk the hospitals," returning in 1800, when he immediately began practice. He was soon appointed professor in Harvard College; was instrumental in the successive foundation of various medical societies; was very active in the introduction of vaccination, and one of the founders of the Boston Medical School and the Massachusetts General Hospital, remaining in active practice for almost his entire life, not finally retiring till shortly before his death, which occurred in 1867. This is not what would be called an eventful or exceptional life; it is marked by no striking discoveries, nor, after the earliest years of practice, by professional controversies. Yet Dr. Jackson was a marked man, who made a profound impression upon his contemporaries, old and young, and the traditions of his temper, his character, and his wisdom will never die among Boston physicians. This he effected by a rare combination of qualities, preëminent among which was what one of his most intimate friends calls the "union of caution with boldness." He was never rash, and he was never timid. Having in his youth exerted himself with more than youthful energy to bring American medicine in line with the best science of the day, having shown by precept and example how much might be done to correct the excesses and errors of earlier practitioners, he was naturally conservative as he grew older. Yet his conservatism had no bigotry in it; it was simply the conviction of a vigorous mind that the old art had not yet been exhausted. His science and his experience were alike under the control of the most remarkable common sense—not that form of it which sometimes enables a comparatively untaught or inexperienced practitioner to atone for his deficiencies, but a controlling, imperial common sense, which saw into the very heart of the case, both for diagnosis and treatment, bringing to bear every circumstance with a penetration like Sherlock Holmes's. In the life of Prescott the historian it is recorded how Dr. Jackson, then a young physician, detected the signs of rheumatism where older physicians saw nothing of the kind, and the suspicion was in the end fully verified. A striking light is thrown on his philosophy of medicine by the comparison made between Andral and Louis in a letter to his son:

"I do not doubt that the former is the greater man—the latter would seem to be a statician or statistician. Though statistics are very valuable, yet we always find that a man who placed (*sic*) great reliance on them, in any branch of science, physical, moral, or political, is apt to make the mistake of thinking that two and two always make four—which they do not. That is, he applies mathematical reasoning to subjects which do not admit it."

It is hardly possible to overestimate the wisdom of this sentence.

No quality made its way more irresistibly into the very souls of all Dr. Jackson's associates than the attraction of his manner. It was not the fascination of a courtier, nor the artless charm of a child; it was an outgrowth of the deeply-rooted self-respect of a Christian, which obeys to the letter the precept, "Honor all men." How truly Dr. Jackson completed the commandment and loved the brotherhood, the letters in this volume abundantly show. It was above all in the sick room that his empire over man and nature—for this phrase, exaggerated as it seems, is none too strong—was most manifest. In copying Dr. Putnam's words, the writer of this review is only giving his own immediate personal reminiscences:

"In the sick room he became supreme, and certain it is that few physicians have ever brought to their task a keener instinct for the important points of the case, a finer sensitiveness for the needs of the patient, a more complete devotion to the art of enlisting sympathy, authority, and unconquerable hopefulness, of utilizing the sound of the voice and the expression of the face in the service of therapeutics. In the presence of his searching love of truth, his firmness, simplicity, earnestness, and directness, prevarication and petulance were disarmed, and the best instincts of nurse and patient alike were made to do willing duty."

There were physicians of Dr. Jackson's time whom the very thought of having in the house almost kept one well, from terror; the thought that he was to be sent for, almost made it a pleasure to be sick.

The last part of Dr. Putnam's memoir is chiefly given to correspondence with inti-

mate friends. These letters, though very precious to those within the inner circle, do not always make the successive steps in Dr. Jackson's later life as clear as might be desired to those outside. But one sad event comes forth in gloomy, yet the richest colors. Dr. Jackson's hopes were centred in his oldest son and namesake, who, after a brilliant career as a medical student in Paris, returned to take up the practice of his father's profession, but was carried off, in the year 1833, when less than twenty-four years old. The blow would have been crushing to a temper less firm than the father's; but the loss was not his alone. There is the most authoritative testimony, lasting down to the immediate present, that the death of this young man removed one who promised to be, both by his attainments and influence, the pioneer of a new era for American medicine. Dr. Jackson's circumstances obliged him to keep in active practice longer than his constitution and age seemed to sanction; he finally retired not many years before his death, which occurred on August 17, 1867.

Dr. Putnam's memoir is prepared with great good taste and modesty. The placing of a general estimate of its subject's character before instead of after the story of his life, is an interesting and perhaps a wise innovation. There is very little to provoke criticism. One singularly constructed sentence occurs on page 227, as to the acceptance of Jenner's discovery; and the compositor has gone astray in several proper names. Sewell for Sewall (p. 105), Stevenson for Stephenson (p. 146), *George* McNeil Whistler (p. 148), Abbot for Abbott (p. 161), Corea for Correa (pp. 253-4), Haywood for Hayward (p. 290), Eliot (Cabot) for Elliot (p. 398), and Chauncey for Chauncy (p. 398; elsewhere correct), are noticeable. Prof. John Gorham appears as John W. (p. 285) and John C. (p. 425). But such things are trifles. The book is a worthy memorial of one for whom the present writer may be allowed to borrow Ben Jonson's words: "I did love the man, and do honor his memory on this side idolatry."

With the Empress Dowager. By Katharine A. Carl. The Century Co. 1905.

Miss Carl must settle with her own conscience, even as she attempts in her introduction to vindicate to the public, the apparent violation of hospitality and confidence reposed in a guest who obtained access to the privacy of the Chinese Empress. Apart from this question in ethics, with which the purely literary reviewer has in strictness nothing to do, her book is a document of high value. It gives much detailed information of the sort which may satisfy the lover of gossip relating to forbidden interiors and to more or less shrouded personalities, but it does more: it offers not a little to the student of Korean and Japanese origins, and of those countries to which China was not only the Middle, but the model, kingdom; her court being "the glass of fashion and the mould of form."

To a scholar like the late Dean Stanley, the Pope as the representative of antique Christian customs was "a perfect museum of ecclesiastical curiosities." So also the occupant of China's throne explains in her or his dress many things odd and strange in the costume, only recently discarded, of the Mikado of Japan and the King of Korea. Incidentally, one may understand the native dislike of and even irritation at the use of the term "Mikado," instead of that generic term which is given to the Kaiser and Czar. Those who, remembering the Emperor of Dai Nippon in the days of his flowing robes and black cap with heaven-pointing gold "feather," recall his brightly colored clogs, or shoes, which raised him four or five inches above the earth, will read with interest Miss Carl's account of "six-inch-high stilt-like soles" which lift empress and princesses above ordinary mortals. To this day, whether visiting a horse race at Yokohama or riding through the streets of Tokio, the imperial Japanese inheritor of Chinese notions will not be looked upon from above by any mortal. The top seats of the grand stand must be vacated, and the second and third-story windows closed. Other items and details in Miss Carl's book show whence the chief rulers of the pupil nations around the Middle Kingdom derived their copy-book. The strata of costume and coiffure still surviving in the "related" or vassal states are indications, both chronological and otherwise, of early and extensive borrowings from the great model.

Miss Carl, however, is wise. Her book is all the more valuable because she does not transfer to her pages opinions or information borrowed from the writings of Sinologues, but gives her own impressions all the way through. The Empress Dowager is usually represented as an ogress to and by foreigners, and her reputed capacity for devouring Englishmen and other Europeans excels even the desire and ability of that blood-smelling gentleman of nursery lore who used to chant "Fee fo fum." Miss Carl's estimate of the character and womanhood of the chief lady of China is wholly different. Making all critical discount of the American's praise and appreciation, one can see here a genuine woman, who, besides being filled with a patriot's anxiety for her country and people, has shown uncommon ability. Having the old common-sense of the race, she was by her ministers declared a safer guide than the young palace-hermit who sat on the throne. She was called from her retirement when the Emperor became the tool of "reformers" who had other ideas in view than the good of China. Miss Carl's word-pictures of the Emperor and the princesses, besides being very interesting, throw much light upon the routine of life in the Forbidden City. While picturing on her pages the things delightful, she does not hesitate to show the uncanny aspects of Chinese life, even at court.

To the artist, the Empress was "the very embodiment of the Eternal Feminine. She was at once a child and a woman with strong virile qualities." After business with the statesmen, in the audience hall, transacting weighty affairs of state for three hours, she took a childish interest in the simplest pleasures, in flowers, dresses, and jewels. The festivities of the Court, the walks in the garden, the delights on the water, the palace customs, the summer and the winter days are pleasantly described. Yet the artist says little about the technique of her art, and why she painted so flat the picture which we saw at the St. Louis Exposition. Was it to please the lady who preferred the Chinese style? We outsiders cannot tell how much Miss Carl flattered the rather handsome and youngish-looking lady of well-nigh three-score years and ten, whose general dress and mode of wearing her hair, as well as face and features, are not violently different from those of European ladies. One must except always the (conventionalized) Chinese characters and the long nails of an adult lifetime's growth, to which we fear the taste of the Occident will never be reconciled.

Incidentally, the volume, which cannot boast of any special literary attractions, is a tremendous testimony to the power of peace-loving China to absorb into her social system such rude barbaric conquerors as rushed out of Mongolia and Mantchuria, and to make of these "horsey" militarists not only improvable races, but ultimately people that are hardly distinguishable from Chinese—a noble record. The book is worthy of what it has not, an index.

English Furniture. By Frederick S. Robinson. (The Connoisseur's Library.) London: Methuen & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905. Pp. xl, 364. 160 illustrations.

This is one more of that very curious and interesting library of decorative art which is taking shape, and of which we have reviewed in these columns the volume on Ivories and that on Porcelain, by Alfred Maskell and Edward Dillon respectively. They are well-made books, and the charm of their "hand-made" paper, uncropped edges, and binding which allows of throwing open the volume, and which, on the whole, is comely, is a great help to the study of a subject that has everything to do with tasteful treatment and a generally attractive result. It is noticeable, however, that in the new volume, and apparently with the purpose of making the thick mass of text more perfect in its stitching, more flexible in the back, more easy to flip over with the thumb to find your place, the plates have been brought together at the close of the volume. The consequence is that, as we read, we are constantly referred to something we need to study, as to "another Lancashire chair, number 248 (Plate lviii.), with extremely similar top rail"; and that, with this, we are sent hunting through eighty leaves, each bearing a "plate" on either side numbered in rather small italic letters at the bottom. Then, as some of the plates are upright and others are oblong, the reader has to slew the book about from left to right and from right to left, that he may find and read those Roman numerals. Our reader may imagine the embarrassment and annoyance of all this, if he is really trying to follow the author in his careful exposition. The book would bear a higher price per copy if the plates all faced the same way, or if they were numbered at the top and in a uniform part of the page, or again if they were interspersed in the text as in the other volumes which we have examined belonging to this series.

Now as to the substance of the book, it is announced in the preface as expressly intended for the collector, and the very sensible remark is made that "a false idea of English furniture would be formed if a majority of the objects reproduced were such as are seldom or never found for

sale." On the other hand, the author has not hesitated to go to the Victoria and Albert Museum (viz., the South Kensington Museum, as Americans still know it best). Reproductions of Chippendale, Sheraton, and Heppelwhite books of examples have not been given, and that also is well. And indeed the pictures, all gelatine prints or such photo-process plates as may be approximately described by that name, are extremely attractive. One is gratified by finding so many unfamiliar types—cabinets, tall-boys, and settees, which represent the work of designers less often represented in our collections. A collection of 160 plates, containing at least twice that number of pieces of furniture, is worth anybody's while.

Of the twenty-five chapters, only one, seventeen pages long, is devoted to the whole mediæval period, except that chapter iii. deals with the "Early Oak Chests." It seems strange, but probably there is, of "furniture" properly so called, almost none in England of the period of Gothic architecture, or of the period which preceded that. Church furniture of the fixed and permanent sort, pulpits, and altar-screens, there is of course, and a very few examples of it are given; but it is evident that this is not the subject of the book we are considering. From the sixteenth century on, the theme is easy to pursue, for there is material for every decade of those four centuries. The list of illustrations which follows the contents is thirty pages long, and is a really valuable table of reference, giving, as it does, the dimensions of many of the pieces, and always the names of their owners, or the name of the church or museum in which each is preserved.

So much premised, it may be stated as a general truth that the book is written throughout with a strong personal character impressed upon it, as being the work of one who has collected or at least studied and gathered material on his own account. The reader gets to like the way in which uncertainty is expressed, for it argues knowledge when the limitations of that knowledge are sagaciously pointed out. As a correlative of this, the suppositions which are given as being suppositions and nothing else, are full of intelligence, and indeed the investigator who has not the power of conjecture at the right time will fail to arrive at interesting results. Have we not all read Tyndall on the use of the imagination in science? And is not the imagination, scientifically directed, of extreme importance in historical research? The only limitation which is required is instructed common sense. And so, as here is a large volume made up of minute items of discovery and of critical remark, it will be necessary to leave the reader with the assurance that he can hardly have a more sensible book on old furniture.

Military Studies. By Frederic Louis Huidekoper. Kansas City: Hudson Kimberly Co.

The author is on the whole justified in reprinting these studies, which appeared originally in military reviews. He would have been better advised, however, had he not included the one on Grouchy's operations in the Waterloo campaign, for its conclusions are at complete variance with present opinion, and he makes no reference to the best recent studies in France, England, and Germany, those of Houssaye, Kelly, Von Lettow Vorbeck and Pflugk-Harttung. It is entirely out of date to discuss Grouchy's disobedience of orders when it is well ascertained that, on the morning of Waterloo, Napoleon wrote approving his march on Wavre, and that only at 1:30 P. M., when the Prussian columns were already in sight, a dispatch was sent urging him to move by his left flank; that dispatch did not reach him until about 5:30. Grouchy's generalship was certainly far from brilliant; that of Napoleon was not, however, impeccable.

In his other studies, chiefly of the operations of Napoleon, Von Moltke, and Frederick, Mr. Huidekoper appears to better advantage. He is evidently a keen student of this extremely difficult branch of historical work, and deserves encouragement. There are, however, occasional inaccuracies; thus, in the essay in which he deals with Mars-la-Tour, Vionville, and Jena, the following corrections of detail are necessary: at page 56 for Verdun read Werden; at page 59 it is said that from the Würzburg-Nuremberg line Napoleon could have marched against the Prussians via Mainz and Wesel; assuredly, but he could also at that rate have marched through Antwerp and Hamburg; at page 64 the French word *avis*, in an order of Berthier, is translated *advice;* it should be *information*—a very important difference in a military order.

On larger questions, especially of strategy, the author often fails to carry conviction; but, after all, strategy is always a process of disagreements, from the initial one of the opposing generals to the never final one of contending historians. Yet a clear consensus of opinion is against Mr. Huidekoper in such dicta as the following: "No one has yet succeeded in refuting the maxim that the fundamental principles of strategy always have been and always will be immutable"; or again, when he declares: "The immutable principles which must be observed are (1) to keep one's forces united, (2) not to be vulnerable on any point. . . ." It is just this attitude towards strategy that the greatest masters—theorists like Clausewitz and Henderson, practicians like Lee and Jackson—have rejected. If rules were immutable, war would not be a game of chance; if strategy did not depend on a fluctuating factor, which is the mind and courage of an opponent, Lee could not have shown strategy at the Second Manassas and Chancellorsville, but only fortunate ineptitude. "Strategical principles," says Henderson, "are neither to be rigidly applied nor overscrupulously respected; they are to be obeyed rather in the spirit than in the letter." Further work from Mr. Huidekoper in the same field may be looked forward to with interest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Avery, Elroy McKendree. A History of the United States and its People. Vol. 2. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Bartlett, Albert Le Roy, and Howard Lee McBain. The Elements of English Grammar. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Carter, Jesse Benedict. The Religion of Numa. Macmillan Co. $1.
Devine, Edward T. Efficiency and Relief. Macmillan Co. 75 cents.
Etchings of Charles Méryon. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
Fitzsimmons, Orlando K. Metamorphose. Buffalo: Progress Publishing Association. $2.
Graham, Winifred. The Vision at the Savoy. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Henderson, Ernest F. A Short History of Germany. Macmillan Co. $2.50 net.
Jowett, J. H. The Epistles of St. Peter. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Laking, Guy Francis. The Furniture of Windsor Castle. Dutton. $35 net.
Laycock, Craven, and Robert L. Scales. Argumentation and Debate. Macmillan Co. 60 cents.
Maclean, Frank. Henry Moore. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Merzbacher, Gottfried. The Central Tian-Shan Mountains. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Nodier, Charles. Jean Sbogar. Henry Frowde.
Orr, James. The Problem of the Old Testament. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Palgrave's Golden Treasury. Edited by Herbert Bates. Longmans. 40 cents.
Redway, Jacques Wardlaw. The Making of the American Nation. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.
Reinach, Salomon. Cults, Mythes et Religions. Vol. 2. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Religion of Christ in the Twentieth Century, The. Putnams. $1.50.
Rickett, Leonard A. Poems of Love and Nature. Longmans. $1.25 net.
Santayana, George. The Life of Reason. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Schultze, Arthur. Advanced Algebra. Macmillan Co. $1.25.
Shakspere's Twelfth Night. Edited by John B. Henneman. Longmans. 40 cents.
Spenser, Edmund. The Faerie Queene. Caxton Thin Paper Series. 2 vols. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
Spenser's Faerie Queene. Edited by John Erskine. Longmans. 40 cents.
Tapp, Sidney C. The Struggle. A. Wessels Co.
Tarnowski, Stanislas. Chopin: As Revealed by Extracts from his Diary. Imported by Scribners. $1 net.
Taylor, I. A. The Life of Queen Henrietta Maria. 2 vols. Dutton. $7.50 net.
Tennyson's In Memoriam. Annotated by the Author. Macmillan. $1.
Thread of Gold, The. Dutton. $3 net.
Titian, The Later Works of. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Underhill, Evelyn. The Miracles of Our Lady Saint Mary. Dutton. $2 net.
Warman, Cy. The Last Spike. Scribners. $1.25.
Watson, John. The Inspiration of Our Faith. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25 net.
Whipple, Leander Edmund. Mental Healing. The Metaphysical Publishing Co. $1.50.
Whitney, W. D., and C. R. Lanman. Atharva-Veda Sanhita. (Harvard Oriental Series, vols. vii., viii.) Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University.
Who's Who in America, 1906-1907. Chicago: A. N. Marquis & Co. $3.50.
Who's Who, 1906. Macmillan Co.
Wilson-Barrett, Alfred. The Silver Pin. Akron, O.: The Saalfield Publishing Co. $1.50.
Yglesias, H. R. Figure Skating. Dutton. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 15, 1906.

The Week.

The word "levity" which Senator Dolliver applied on Friday to the attitude of the other members of the Interstate Commerce Committee toward rate legislation, is an odd characterization for a group of men who average fifty-eight years of age, and have served an average of nine years apiece in the most dignified body in the world. The particular Senator to whom the reproach was uttered, Mr. Aldrich, outranks all the rest of the committee, and has served more than four times as long as his Western critic. But be that as it may, the incident at least shows the potency of this legislation in stirring up ill-feeling. The committee discussion probably foreshadows on a small scale what will happen later on the floor of the Senate. When we have such a chance for a prophecy according to the simple rule of three, there is an irresistible temptation to make it. The committee intended to report a bill ten days after the session began. That would have been December 14. The date now set for the report—nobody knows what the bill will be—is February 16. Thus it took seven and seven-tenths times as long as any one expected for the committee to settle the bill. We have heard some talk of a month's debate in open Senate. If that represents the present expectations, then a vote may actually be looked for on or about the twenty-second day of September. Mr. Williams said that the House Democrats were willing to wait till Christmas, if necessary, for the Senate to do something. They may have to.

If the set speeches in the House on the railway bill were perfunctory, the running debates, and especially the offering of amendments, when the bill was put on its passage, had a good deal of interest. One has only to read the proceedings of February 7 to discover in what a purposed ambiguity the Hepburn bill was left. For example, as we remark elsewhere, there was the sharpest difference of opinion whether the bill covered the express companies or not. Representative Townsend maintained that it did; Mr. Hepburn was as positive that it did not. In order to remove all uncertainty, Representative Underwood moved an amendment explicitly putting express companies under the control of the Interstate Commerce Commission. On the division, the vote was exactly divided—129 ayes to 129 noes. Then came the vote by tellers, and the amendment was beaten, 119 to 146. In the interval there must have been some effective work by the friends of the companies. But all other attempts to clarify the bill were likewise fruitless. The right of judicial review and the power over differential rates were both left in the fogbank where Hepburn placed them. As for the amendment forbidding the railroads to give free passes, it was beaten 111 to 147. That is pretty good evidence of the extent to which the House is eaten up with zeal for railroad reform.

In the debate on Wednesday week, Senator Bailey made short work of Senator Patterson's professions of undying hostility to caucus rule. Senator Patterson, cried Bailey, "owes his seat in this house to a caucus." Moreover, Patterson, before his election, had pledged himself to enter the Democratic caucus, and had declared to his constituents that nothing could be done by a man who stayed out of caucus. Finally, in Democratic caucus two years ago, Patterson had voted for the resolution making a two-thirds vote binding—a resolution which he now regards as cruel, coercive, and undemocratic. When confronted with these facts, the Senator from Colorado was forced to admit them: "I cannot gainsay the record, but it seems that ample preparations have been made to overwhelm me by reason of the stand I have taken." The preparations which overwhelmed Senator Patterson have probably also overwhelmed the San Domingo treaty. The votes of at least four Democrats are needed to confirm it. The bitterness of the late discussion is likely to solidify the Democratic opposition, so that not more than one or two Democrats at most will go with the Republicans. In the event of failure of the treaty, the next step will be an attempt to carry out the purpose of the President by a joint resolution, which requires a mere majority in each house. As to the legality of this method, some of the ablest lawyers among the Republican Senators express grave doubts.

At the very moment when Administration Senators are protesting that the San Domingo treaty will not be used as a precedent, it is used as a precedent. Hayti is in trouble about her foreign debt, and recourse is at once had by the creditors, not to Port-au-Prince, but to Washington. Uncle Sam, in his new rôle of liquidator of all the bad debts in this hemisphere, is called upon to arrange the affair. This was inevitable. As soon as we begin to act as receiver and guardian for one bankrupt republic, the disordered finances of all the others will infallibly be brought to us. We know of no single argument advanced for our intervention in San Domingo which does not apply, or could not be made to apply, to all other republics in arrear and in difficulty between us and Cape Horn. And the greater part of their debts, like those of San Domingo, is practically of the nature of gambling debts. Speculators have simply taken chances as in a lottery, and now we are to guarantee the lottery. President Roosevelt, who a little time ago was speaking complacently in his message about his "police power" over all disorderly republics, and was reported by his friends as determined to straighten out the whole lot of them, now gives it to be understood that San Domingo will be the very last imprudence of the kind. But logic is logic, and a precedent is a precedent, even in a government by non-sequiturs. Hayti's creditors may be troublesome callers at the State Department, just at this juncture, but we may be sure that, if the President's Dominican policy is adopted, they are but the first of a long tine.

In view of Mr. Wallace's clear statement before the Senate committee, how exaggerated appears Secretary Taft's celestial rage of last July! Mr. Wallace declares that he threw up his Isthmian job because he found himself hampered by a person without official standing, though apparently with plenary authority in Isthmian matters. For declining to serve under these conditions, Mr. Wallace was roundly reprimanded as a recreant, and held up to the youth of the land as a horrible example of sordid commercialism. The case is instructive because it shows the passion with which convictions are held at Washington, and because it betrays a marked tendency to regard criticism or dissent of any kind as treason. Now this point of view, whatever its justification may be, is eminently un-American. The right to grumble is one of the unwritten rights of the Constitution. Our Government has always taken the ground that the freest expression of discontent is salutary, and that not the speech or the state of mind of our citizens is to be regulated, but simply their actions. But the Roosevelt Administration has changed all that. It takes a passionate interest in the thoughts of men; it would apparently enforce the French doctrine that a citizen must not be merely well-doing, but well-thinking. On no other hypothesis can we account for the fact that the withdrawal of a Government engineer should be accompanied by a lengthy

reprimand that constitutes a veritable curiosity among state papers; that a journalist should be appointed to guide public opinion aright on canal matters; that the attempt should be made to centralize the distribution of news from the Government departments; that the catching of an obscure reporter in receipt of a petty bribe should occasion a Presidential utterance on "poisoning the public mind." All these instances show that we are leaving far behind old-fashioned, go-as-you-please, American notions of liberty of speech and opinion, and are in a fair way to create a new Federal misdemeanor which, according to circumstances, may be called *lèse*-Theodore, or *lèse*-Panama.

We hear from time to time that American rule in the Philippines is not gaining popularity, but rather losing the little that it had in the beginning. In an article in the *Independent*, the wife of Congressman Parsons tells one of the reasons why. Mrs. Parsons was one of the Congressional party that visited the islands with Secretary Taft last summer. If all the members of the party have brought back as large a stock of political philosophy as this lady acquired, the result cannot fail to be helpful. There is certainly more of light and leading in her brief communication than we have seen in any other deliverance from those daring voyagers. Mrs. Parsons finds it to be a fact that the Americans in the islands do not associate with the natives, not even with the intellectual classes, but hold themselves aloof from and above the Filipinos. They consider the latter their inferiors, and make them so understand. This aloofness is due not to lack of refinement, of education, or of wealth, but to color. It is a reproduction or reappearance of the race prejudice which exists so largely in the United States. Mrs. Parsons calls it "race snobbishness," but this is an infelicity. Thackeray, our greatest authority on snobs, never mentioned one who was particular about complexions. The race prejudice which exists against black men here, and against brown men in Manila, is not classified in the Book of Snobs at all. It is much more pervasive, ineradicable, and hard to deal with. It is not amenable to ridicule, and it goeth not out by fasting and prayer. But all this does not detract from Mrs. Parsons's article, which goes to the very root of our unpopularity among the Filipinos. We have a contempt for them on account of their color, regardless of their mental or moral attainments, and they resent it. Now, since they cannot possibly change their color, however much they may improve their minds and characters, it follows that we shall always hold them in contempt, and that they will always hate us, unless, in the process of the suns, we lay aside race prejudice. Will any modern Imperialist tell us about what time we may expect this "reform within the party"?

Lord North is reported to have said at the outbreak of the American Revolution that he did not know whether his generals would frighten the Americans, but that they certainly frightened him when he came to consider their qualifications. Something of the same feeling must come over any one who studies the list of our regular army major-generals as they stand after several years of what the *Sun* rightly calls "promotion by selection as a result of favoritism and pull." They are Arthur MacArthur, Henry C. Corbin, James F. Wade, Leonard Wood, John F. Weston, Adolphus W. Greely, and Frederick D. Grant. Of these Gen. MacArthur is undoubtedly an able soldier, who seems, however, to have lost his ambition for hard work; his promotion to the lieutenant-generalcy on the retirement from that position of Gens. Bates and Corbin is certain. Gen. Wade, who is anxious to retire at once, is the only one of the seven major-generals who passed through every grade of the line and commanded a regular regiment. Of the others, MacArthur, Corbin, Wood, and Greely left regimental duty as captains, and Weston as a first lieutenant. MacArthur and Corbin served in the adjutant-general's department; Greely as signal officer, and Wood as a medical officer. Grant's total regimental service aggregates not over eight months. This includes a brief period with the Fourth Cavalry in 1872 and six weeks as colonel of the Fourteenth New York Volunteers in 1898. The rest of his regular army service comprises eight years on the staff of Gen. Sheridan prior to his resignation in 1881, and the time he has spent as brigadier-general since his appointment in 1901.

In other words, as the list of major-generals stands, there is only one officer, MacArthur, who could really command the confidence of troops by reason of actual experience and demonstrated ability. Weston is an excellent officer, with the respect of his comrades, but no man, however able, who has spent thirty years in the Subsistence Department as a commissary officer, can be looked upon as competent to manœuvre at once large bodies of troops. Gen. Wade's experience has been merely routine. Brig.-Gen. J. Franklin Bell, who is to be chief of staff in the fall, will probably fill the vacancy to be created by the retirement of Gen. Bates on April 14, and is regarded as an exceptionally brilliant officer, who won his rapid advance by unusually good work in the Philippines, where he served as staff officer and colonel of a volunteer regiment. But even Gen. Bell lacks experience in handling troops. The recent army manœuvres showed very clearly his limitations as well as those of Generals Barry and Bliss, who were also promoted from low rank in the line. As an old colonel recently expressed it, after they had given an order, they were at a loss if circumstances changed. They had not the experience to enable them to handle their men promptly and rearrange their plans at a moment's notice. In the list of brigadier-generals there is not much encouragement. Indeed, if nothing else should incline Mr. Roosevelt to keep the peace, a contemplation of his line generals ought to. Of the entire twenty-three, two, Funston and Grant, were made generals outright; seven came from staff departments, four were jumped from captaincies, and only ten rose through all the regimental grades from lieutenant to colonel. And of the latter class no less than eight will retire for age before the end of 1907.

President Roosevelt dined with his "campaign committee" on Friday evening—Chairman Cortelyou, Treasurer Bliss, and the others. The report is that "congratulations" were exchanged. We must think, however, that condolences were rather the order of the day, with planning how to make restitution of the money wrongfully taken by the committee from insurance companies. We had next day the opinion of the Attorney-General of the State of New York that all the funds paid over by the insurance presidents to Mr. Roosevelt's treasurer were illegal contributions, and are clearly recoverable. President Roosevelt, it will be remembered, has not yet said a word in public reprobation of the course of his committee in soliciting and accepting, to aid in his election, money that rightfully belonged to widows and orphans; but his long silence must mean that he has been waiting simply in order to complete arrangements for the Republican committee to pay back all the sums which it was a shame to have taken at all. Consequently, we look for an early announcement from the White House that it will not be necessary for Attorney-General Mayer to sue for the return of the insurance campaign contributions, since the President has quietly made up the amount among his rich Republican friends, and will see that it is repaid to the policyholders from whom it was originally stolen.

Andrew Hamilton, lobbyist, received $1,347,382.41 from the New York Life Insurance Company. This is the fresh sensation with which the Fowler investigating committee shocks us. How much Hamilon received from other companies we do not yet know. The Fowler committee was able to get at material to which the legislative committee seems not to have had access—accounts of various branch offices, especially that at

Paris. From Paris alone Hamilton drew about $144,000 on the cabled orders of President John A. McCall. In fact, Hamilton tapped the treasury at every possible outlet—for "legal services," for various disbursements, for the "home-office annex," for tax payments, for work with legislatures. Whenever money was to be spent, Hamilton took toll. What he did with all this money was a mystery. A few thousands were passed on to President McCall; but the why and wherefore of those transactions is another dark secret. Certain notes, made by Hamilton and endorsed by either President McCall or his brother, Justice Edward E. McCall, were finally paid from the funds of the company; but the Fowler committee is unable to discover any plausible reason. This juggling of accounts casts the gravest suspicion upon President McCall's integrity. The plundered policyholders, who can find neither head nor tail to this hocus-pocus, inevitably ask whether any of the money handed over so freely, and without accounting, to McCall's "boyhood friend" by McCall's order, ever trickled back into the pockets of McCall or his kin.

Revised plans for the so-called "National Theatre" in this city put that project in a more favorable light than did the first accounts. These, it now appears, were both ill-advised and misleading. They contained features which were socially ridiculous and artistically fallacious. Most of them, we understand, have been cut away. The theatre which it is proposed to open may not even be termed "National"; it will not be the ludicrously snobbish thing that was rumored—no mere preserve of millionaires and hunting-ground of social aspirants; it will not be "endowed," at least not in the sense of being exempt from the need of following business principles in its management; and it will aim to show that the best plays and the best acting will pay. Incidentally, it will, it is hoped, do something, by the exhibition of a higher standard, to educate popular taste away from the depressing forms of recreation which too many of our theatres offer with popular toleration, if not approval. With all these ends now avowed by the projectors of the new theatre, every believer in the educative function of the drama must sympathize.

The action of the Harvard faculty in recommending the abolition during 1906 of intercollegiate football as now played, and until such time as a proper game is substituted for it, should seal the fate of this sport in many other quarters. At Cambridge the Faculty, Overseers, and President Eliot now being opposed to its continuance, it remains for the Corporation also to fall into line—so many governing bodies has our oldest university. That the Athletic Committee will stand out against this decision of the powers is not likely, particularly as the prohibition relates only to intercollegiate contests. It is, moreover, not probable that the kind of game the Harvard Faculty wants can be evolved within a year unless Rugby football is adopted outright. Certainly, such modifications as have been suggested by the new Rules Committee are not sufficiently radical, and from present appearances even those colleges which stick to the game are apparently going to disagree over regulations. The possibility of one kind of football in the East and another in the West is clearly in sight.

The agreement between Harvard, Yale, and Princeton to exclude freshmen and graduate students from all 'varsity teams, is another step in the right direction, since it will put an end to some of the recruiting done in the preparatory schools and in other colleges. Yet efforts will be continued to lure schoolboys to this or that institution, to be trained for a season on second or scrub elevens before joining the 'varsity teams in their sophomore year. And this change will not, of course, end the bad features of the athletic obsession. The evils of gate money, of notoriety, of the public-entertainment idea, the hysterical enthusiasm which leads to many afternoons wasted on bleachers and to the ridiculous organized cheering and singing, are still to be grappled with, to say nothing of the worse than prize-ring spirit and method on the field which President Eliot has characterized so properly.

The Algeciras conference is still working at the problem of policing Morocco. It is a task that France is preëminently well-fitted to undertake. Yet to concede this exclusive right to France would be to withdraw pretty much all the political pretensions of Germany in the premises. There is talk of a compromise—a native police officered by some small neutral Power. But this solution would be worthless unless some strong Power stood behind the European officers. Germany will naturally use all the resources of diplomacy to see that this strong Power is not France. The weakness of Germany's opposition lies in the fact that she has no reasonable excuse for offering her own services, and probably no attractive alternative to French control. When the matter comes to a vote, there can be little doubt that the decision will be for France, with such stipulations as may save the pride of Germany. As for rumors that Germany will "veto" such a decision or withdraw from the conference, we are unwilling to credit anything of the sort. It is doubtful if a right of veto exists; it is certain that to move heaven and earth to get a conference and then decline to abide by its findings would leave the Wilhelmstrasse in a position both isolated and ridiculous. So far as Germany has tangible interests to conserve, the conference will give her satisfaction. On other matters she can well afford to accept gracefully from an international court conditions that she declined to consider on the authority of England and France alone.

No sooner had Chamberlain's schemes been defeated in the English election than they began to be repudiated in Canada. Mr. Fisher, the Canadian Minister of Agriculture, made a speech in Montreal recently, in which he roundly declared that his Government had no wish whatever to enter into a preferential trade agreement with England. Canadian farmers, he contended, did not ask any preference. They were able to hold their own on equal terms anywhere; and so long as the British market was free to them, they did not "ask the British people to burden themselves for the benefit of either Canadians or any other part of the Empire." On the whole, the Minister asserted, he was glad and Canada was glad, that the result of the general election in England was to make an end of the plan of preferential trade within the Empire. So this is what is left of that "offer" of Canada which Mr. Chamberlain affirmed it would be little short of treason for England to refuse.

Mr. Chamberlain has persuaded Mr. Balfour to call a meeting of the Unionist party. Presumably the purpose of such an assembly would be to unify the policy of his Majesty's Opposition, and, in all likelihood, the vote of such a caucus would be given for Chamberlainism in some measure. Mr. Chamberlain undoubtedly controls all that is still afloat of the Unionist flotsam. He hopes, through an impersonal party vote, to give Mr. Balfour that push towards protection which it would be ungracious to administer personally. The chances are that the leader of the Opposition will have to choose between conformity to the Chamberlain programme and self-effacement. Meanwhile, Mr. Chamberlain appears as a champion of Mr. Balfour's very novel doctrine that party disunion is on the whole a good thing. With a dwindling majority, Mr. Balfour was constantly cheerful about permissible differences of opinion; and now Mr. Chamberlain advocates a similar cleavage as the best way of heartening a pitiful minority. He accepts Mr. Balfour's leadership, but urges upon him some comforting assurance as to Imperial reciprocity, and finally declares his intention of handling the protectionist members as an independent Parliamentary group, though in general allied with the Unionist Opposition.

HOW NOT TO LEGISLATE.

On the eve of the passage of the Hepburn bill in the House, practically without opposition, Mr. Hepburn admitted that he did not know what it meant. Here is a bill 26 pages long, filled with minutely intricate provisions dealing with the administration of a property billions in value, and affecting all the people of the country. In the course of debate on the measure many sharp questions as to the intent and effect of the language used have been raised. Yet at the end the very author of the bill jauntily waved aside all mere details of "construction." As to the meaning of the words employed, Mr. Hepburn declared, it was "utterly futile" to think of getting "legislative unanimity on that point." "Not a member of the House," he asserted, "could write a twenty-word sentence that would not be capable of two constructions." Well, we should at least hope that any member of the House could state unmistakably that this is not the way to legislate. To stuff a bill with uncertainties and ambiguities and then to refuse even verbal amendments, and hold it up as the utmost reach of the wisdom of the House of Representatives, is a mere travesty of law-making. It makes the House assume towards the Hepburn bill very much the attitude of the old Scotch lady when asked if she knew what the Solemn League and Covenant really was. She replied: "I do not, but I'll mainteen 't." That may be magnificent theology, but it is horrible legislation.

One important matter left absolutely in a cloud by the Hepburn bill is the control of differential rates. This is a subject of vital interest. It involves the whole question of the long haul versus the short haul, and also that of discrimination against localities. In the latter particular, complaints have been long and loud in many parts of the West. It has been alleged, and with a great array of evidence, that railroad managers have selfishly used discriminating rates to build up one town, or develop one region, at the expense of another. A cure for this unfairness was explicitly sought by the Western advocates of railway legislation; but how is the case left by the Hepburn bill? Nobody knows. The point was closely argued on January 30 by Representative Littlefield in his questioning of Representative Townsend, one of the sponsors of the bill. Did it give the Commission power to abolish preferential rates? Mr. Townsend was sorry to say he thought not. He said: "The best authority I can obtain says not." "Others," he magnanimously added, "may understand that the bill confers such a power." Mr. Littlefield cited one member of the Commission who thought it did. He also argued that the power was conferred indirectly under section 3 of the existing interstate-commerce law, of which the Hepburn bill is formally amendatory. But there was no agreement. One member pointed out a glaring disagreement between one clause of the bill and a paragraph of the accompanying report; but trifles like that were not allowed to impede the march to enactment of a bill which its very begetters do not profess to understand.

Many other vexed questions are left undecided. The bill ostensibly includes "cars . . . irrespective of ownership or of any contract." and "all services in connection with the receipt, delivery, . . . and handling of property transported," yet it is denied by some, though stoutly maintained by others, that this brings express companies within the purview of the Commission. Perhaps the gravest doubt of all relates to the right of judicial review. The terms in which this is recited are vague, and their scope highly uncertain. Yet every attempt to make them more precise was voted down. Mr. Townsend made a pronouncement which may well be cited as typical of the confusion of ideas, as regards this aspect of the matter, which seems to reign in the House: "I bow always in proper submission to the decrees of the Supreme Court, and when it announces a decision [as it has done in affirming jurisdiction over "unreasonably low" as well as "confiscatory" railroad rates] I yield it obedience, until at least it has had time to study public opinion sufficiently to reverse itself."

Every one understands, however, why the slovenly bill is put through the House. It is to oblige the President, who wants the matter hurried before the Senate. Any old bill is good enough for the House. The real work of legislation is done in the Senate; so push the thing along and get it over with as soon as possible. If there are clauses drawn with studied ambiguity, trust "them above" to straighten out the tangles. And the House meekly acquiesces in its own stultification. Last year it whipped through the Esch-Townsend bill with only 17 dissenting votes, though, as Representative Sibley asserted the other day, not three members would now vote for such a measure. With similar feigned unanimity and enthusiasm, it passes the Hepburn bill in the confident expectation that it will emerge from the Senate in such shape that its own mother would not know it. Yet one occasionally hears a Representative whining about the Senate's usurpation of power, though perfectly well aware that if the House shirks the real work of framing laws, some Constitutional body must attend to it. All the powers which the House weakly lays down, it may be certain that the Senate will take up with alacrity and treat in its own fashion—and small blame to it.

A DEFENCE OF CONGRESS.

Representative Rodenberg of Illinois has anticipated the reply to those magazine and syndicate critics of Congress which Senator Lodge, or some other great "Expounder," had been expected to make. Into the "veritable vortex of vituperation" and "carnival of calumny" Mr. Rodenberg has rushed with a defence that lacks nothing of confidence. Is it true, he asks, that Congress has degenerated, that the standard of ability is lower now than in those vague "golden days"? No, he tells us. On the contrary, education is so extended that the questions confined to the consideration of statesmen of two generations ago are now discussed intelligently by "the most unpretentious citizen of the land." Mr. Rodenberg himself has found employees of the steel mills of his district "who possess the most expert and thorough knowledge of the perplexing intricacies of tariff schedules"; and it was an unassuming Illinois farmer who convinced the Representative from the Twenty-first Illinois District that the Panama route was preferable to the Nicaragua. Not Bunau-Varilla, nor the seventy jarring experts at Washington and Colon, had been able to do so much.

What is the measure of a statesman to-day who hopes to "win an enduring place in the esteem of his contemporaries"? Mr. Rodenberg answers: "He must, indeed, possess exceptional ability. . . . He is expected to display a genius that is marvellous, a versatility that is mystifying, and a resourcefulness that is more than masterful. . . . Names that stand out in bold relief on the pages of our political history as the bright intellectual stars of the past, would not rise above the level of mediocrity in this enlightened and educated age." Still, Blaine thought that the Thirty-seventh Congress contained some first-rate talent, and pointed to Fessenden, Sumner, Chandler, Wade, Trumbull, and John Sherman in the Senate, and to Galusha Grow, F. P. Blair, Thaddeus Stevens, Reuben E. Fenton, Schuyler Colfax, and a score of others in the House to illustrate his point. He also thought that the statesmen of 1861 had some serious problems to consider; but, as Mr. Rodenberg reminds us, "the world has advanced, and our ideals and standards of statesmanship have kept pace with this advancement." Sumner and Chase and Stevens might have been great statesmen if they had only been spurred on by constituencies of steel-workers who knew all the ins and outs of the Dingley tariff, or of farmers who were able to decide where engineers disagree.

But what about the personal and official integrity of the members of Congress? Are these really evil days we have fallen upon? The gentleman from Illinois thinks not. Here he is most

eloquent in denouncing the writers for the sensational magazines who picture the corruption of the Senate, the influence of corporations at Washington, with the myriad forms of graft. In these days, if a single member of Congress "prostitutes his high office for personal gain, immediately the sensational press of the country inveighs against the entire membership. The pulpit thunders. The pungent paragrapher proceeds to paragraph." It is another Illinois Representative, Mr. Mann of the Second District, who has just issued a statement in defence of the famous "mileage grab," when an extra session ran into a regular session of the Fifty-eighth Congress. One sentence of his bears out the member from the Twenty-first District in the assertion that the morals of Congress are improving. "If I had wanted to 'graft,' I could easily have taken many times the small amount of my mileage, then voted against the payment of mileage, and declared how pure I was and how corrupt others were." Furthermore, Mr. Mann did not vote to pay the mileage because he himself needed or desired the money; he sank his own feeling of repugnance to the plan in order to put others in funds. Thus does grabbing become altruistic.

If Senator Lodge follows Mr. Rodenberg to the end of his argument, he will have his work cut out for him. The Illinois Congressman says that not only has the intellectual standard of our national lawmaking body been raised and its official probity heightened, "but there has also been a corresponding improvement in the personal morals of the members, and in their conception of the true relationship existing between the Government as a whole and themselves." Does even a magazine writer believe that in the days of the Crédit-Mobilier a United States Senator would have been forced to give up his seat by a public opinion that disapproved of his renting, at a fair price, a building to the Government for post-office purposes? Mr. Rodenberg pauses for a reply, and when no one ventures to give one, triumphantly declares that "an incident of this kind at that time would not even have been dignified by an official investigation."

Doubtless Mr. Rodenberg is as well qualified as the next man to discuss the improvement in the moral tone of our national legislators. As a member of the Fifty-sixth Congress, in February, 1900, he voted to strike out the appropriation for the Civil Service Commission; in March, 1901, having failed of re-election, he was made a civil-service commissioner by President McKinley. The reason given was that all the St. Louis Fair commissionerships had been filled, and the President felt obliged to take care of one of Senator Cullom's protégés. At that time the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent reported that the only regret expressed by Mr. Rodenberg at the change of office was that the civil-service position paid only $3,500 a year, while a Fair commissionership netted $5,000. He held the post a year, then went back to Congress. Evidently, his five years of reflection have not been wasted. His present brief for his fellow-lawmakers at Washington is filled with a zealot's enthusiasm for right—in the abstract.

NEW FIELDS FOR FEDERAL POWER.

"Before many years," said in effect a conservative member of Congress the other day, "there will not be left a department of human life over which the national Government does not somehow exercise control." Great as have been the extensions of Federal functions within a comparatively few years past, there are enough others in contemplation to draw from their graves the statesmen who were arguing against internal improvements three-quarters of a century ago. In the President's last annual message there were no less than eight specific recommendations involving the exercise of new functions, or the assumption of new tasks, by the Federal Government. And if a list were compiled of the suggestions made along the same line by bills now before Congress or resolutions of public bodies—leaving out "freak" bills and constitutional amendments—it would probably be twice as long.

Railroad rate-making happens to be the most conspicuous proposal just at present. This is one of the things the National Government is asked to do because, unless it undertakes the task, it will not be performed at all. The States could not secure the same results even if they all coöperated to the full. The same may be said, of course, regarding the proposed regulation of express companies and national supervision of insurance. Other measures, widely differing in subject-matter, fall into the same general class, because they propose that the Government shall do something not done by anybody at present, or at least not done efficiently. Such, for instance, are the protection of Niagara Falls—in which the Federal power over boundaries may be invoked—the preservation of the Great Lake fisheries by international agreement, and Commissioner Sargent's much-discussed scheme for deflecting the stream of immigrants to those sections of the country where they are wanted.

Next may be classed the proposals which are urged on the ground that the Federal Government should step in merely to give the several States a chance to regulate their own affairs. These, for the most part, grow out of changed conditions. Centres of production and consumption have come to be so far apart, transportation so easy, and travelling so incessant, that local regulations, once amply sufficient, have proved, in many lines, to be little better than farcical. The Pure Food bill owes much of its backing to the fact that a State with good food laws is now at the mercy of one with bad laws or none, which can flood it with impure products; the prohibition communities never cease asking for Congressional action that will undo the "original package" decisions and help the State authorities to stop liquor in transit the moment it crosses the line. Other bills favored by the same interests wish a law that will make the records of the internal-revenue office more useful in the prosecution of illicit liquor sellers. The national quarantine law, which, as always after the threat of an epidemic, is being strongly urged this year, would similarly save the neighboring States from the consequences of the laxity of any one. And President Roosevelt's recommendation that the criminal process of each State be made to run throughout the entire country, bears somewhat the same relation to moral health.

Finally should be mentioned those instances in which national action is urged chiefly to secure uniformity of system in some department. The practical restriction of naturalization to the Federal courts, as recommended recently by a commission, is one example, and another the partly completed extension of national trade-mark legislation; while the national child-labor law, strongly pushed by a State labor commissioner recently, though without citation of the constitutional provision which would authorize it, is a type of many benevolent measures so advocated. Though several of these have been actively opposed and some kept from passage for many years, the argument, on abstract principles, of danger from the assumption of additional functions by the Federal Government is almost never heard. In fact, it is remarkable how much support such measures have in the old region of jealous States'-rights sentiment. The national quarantine is distinctively a Southern measure, the liquor shipment bills are most strongly advocated there; and as for pure food, two Southern States are the only ones which, by a provision of their State law, have made the food standards of the Secretary of Agriculture go into effect within their borders as fast as promulgated. So a number of Southern as well as Northern States have voluntarily turned over their quarantine stations to the Public Health and Marine Hospital service.

Efficiency has come to be the controlling argument in most of these cases. Our National Government has a way of getting things done—not economically, perhaps, but effectively—that the States

simply stand by and envy. The illicit liquor-seller, who defies the sheriff and the chief of police, would not dare to run for a week without paying his Federal tax. The Federal officer, in any line of work, is freer from hampering local influences and is apt to be backed up more firmly in doing his duty. The present advocacy of Federal control as a general panacea is really not so much an indication of changing Constitutional views, as a tribute to the relatively effective way in which power is applied from Washington.

TRUST COMPANIES AND BANKS.

There are many peculiar and unusual aspects of the controversy which came again to a head at last week's legislative hearing at Albany over compulsory cash reserves of trust companies. The New York Associated Banks, three years ago, peremptorily demanded that, if the trust companies wished to retain the right of exchanging checks through members of the clearing-house of banks, they must, at stipulated intervals, increase their ratio of cash reserves to deposit liabilities until it stood at 10 per cent. The trust companies answered that, while they might have considered such a proposition in an equal conference, they would accept no dictation from the banks; and most of them promptly withdrew from clearing-house connections, asserting that the banks were jealous of the competitive achievements of the trust companies, and were striving to clip their wings. To this the banks retorted that the assertion was true in so far as the trust companies did a banking business pure and simple without the restrictions imposed upon the banks. Such a condition, some of the spokesmen for the banks alleged, was distinctly unfair, not to mention possible dangers involved by such exemptions for the future of trust company finance. So this curious game of recrimination has gone on. Trust companies declared that their own deposits in bank, which were very large and on which the banks pay 2 per cent. interest, were a sufficient guarantee of safety without a cash reserve. Banks replied that they themselves kept only 25 per cent. cash against such deposits, and that, even supposing the trust company fund in bank to be 25 per cent. of the corresponding deposit liabilities, there would still be held, to protect those liabilities, not 25 per cent., but only a trifle over 6 per cent. Trust companies rejoined to this, Why not increase your own reserve, then? Banks retorted, We cannot afford to do it; the burden should fall on you. And so an interminable controversy—a prolonged argument in a circle, always ending where it began—has pursued its course.

We have felt from the first that the party whose interests, really paramount, have not been sufficiently considered, is the general public. Believing this, we have thought that the proper solution of the matter lay in legislative action regarding trust-company reserves. The whole discussion has been so clouded, hitherto, by the constant insisting on non-essentials that sight has been lost of the fact that, under the present law, trust companies in New York State need not keep a dollar of reserve, either in their own vaults or in their depository banks. If it so choose, one of these companies may invest every dollar of its depositors' money and all of its capital and surplus in securities or time loans.

The right to do this was conferred on the trust companies when their exclusive functions were conceived to be, in the language of the law, "to act as fiscal or transfer agent," "to act as trustee under any mortage or bond," "to act as guardian, receiver, or trustee," and "to take, accept, and execute any and all such trusts and powers" as might be conferred upon them. So long as the strict intent of the law of 1887 was carried out, it may readily be conceded that no cash reserve beyond a trifling "working balance" was required. Every one knows, however, that the trust companies as a whole have departed very far from this simple conception of their powers and duties. Unquestionably, there are companies which to-day hold as strictly to the function of administrator and trustee as they did a dozen years ago. But such institutions are now few in number. Many of our trust companies are in reality nothing but deposit banks, doing their business free from the restrictions imposed by the deposit banking law. Most of them do both kinds of business; but with these the part of the business made up of pure deposit banking has increased in a vastly greater ratio than the simple trust department. In January, 1898, the reports showed $185,099,694 "deposits in trust" against $198,229,029 "general deposits"; that is to say, the two kinds of business nearly balanced. In January, 1905, "deposits in trust" were $275,665,112, whereas "general deposits" had risen to $695,031,064. The form of report was somewhat changed last year; but analysis of the returns of November 9, 1905 (made when a call for reports was not expected, and when the showing was therefore more trustworthy), indicated something like $900,000,000 deposits precisely on the footing of deposits in the banks, $816,529,425 being, in fact, described as "deposits subject to check."

Against this $900,000,000, the companies then held 2⅜ per cent. in cash on hand, and 12¼ per cent. in cash on deposit in other institutions. Let it be observed that this ratio applies only to deposits not of the trustee or "time deposit" order. If all the deposit liabilities reported November 9 were to be included, the ratio of cash on hand would be slightly under 2 per cent., and of cash on deposit 9⅞ per cent. But, even as to this, it is important to observe, there is no compulsion; and, in fact, it is well known that the average ratio is raised by the strong position maintained by a few large and conservative companies. Very nearly half of the cash held by all the eighty-one trust companies in this State, as shown by the Banking Department's last report, was in the hands of six institutions.

The question, in our judgment, clearly is, not whether there shall be a reserve required from these institutions, but what that reserve shall be. The terms submitted at last week's hearing by Mr. Borne as satisfactory to the trust companies were 3 per cent. in cash, 6 per cent. in investments, and 6 per cent. in deposits in other institutions. This strikes us as both inadequate and unscientific—certainly so in the case of the numerous trust companies which do a simple deposit banking business. The proposed law, on the other hand—a 15 per cent. reserve for large city institutions and 10 per cent. in smaller localities, half in cash and half in deposits with other banks—appears to us extremely moderate, save, perhaps, in the single case of companies acting purely as trustees and conducting no simple deposit banking business. The plainest solution would be separation of what in reality are the two distinct branches of the trust company accounts, exemption of the one from reserve requirements, and imposition on the other of a reserve ratio at least as high as the pending bill requires, and preferably higher.

NOTES ON EDUCATION IN MEXICO.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
January, 1906.

Having just returned from a visit to the great Republic to the south of us, I venture to write down certain observations made under conditions which were in some respects exceptional. It is singular that we as a people are so ill-informed regarding Mexico—I speak as one who until now would have owned up to the charge—and that so great a nation has grown up at our doors without attracting more attention. It is true that the capitalists, promoters, mining-boomers, and people generally who have irons to heat in the fire, have discovered Mexico; but, apart from the interest recently stirred up in connection with pan-American politics and the Monroe Doctrine, and the meeting of the five-years-apart conferences of American Republics, little knowledge has been diffused abroad among us as to things intellectual, or in the large sense "moral," in the Republic. Indeed, the feeling creeps into one's mind as he sits down to write, that perhaps the duty of the hour now is to give further impulse not so much to the material forces at work to cement the States, as to those more conservative but intangible forces which make for common moral

effort among the nations of America. It is undoubtedly true in the educational field, at any rate, that we are lamentably ignorant of the institutions of Mexico; and it is no doubt also true that this ignorance has been the cause of the lack of effort to bring about any sort of reciprocity and co-operation between that State and our own.

I went down by arrangement with Señor Justo Sierra, the new Minister of Public Instruction and Fine Arts of Mexico, who extended to me a hospitality most generous and unstinted; and I spent some days in touch with the Department in the City of Mexico. The time was well chosen for observation generally, and more particularly for observation of the educational institutions, for with the New Year the academic year begins, and the formal opening functions, under the direct patronage of the Minister, then take place. The academic year runs continuously from January to November, with a short Easter recess; and what we call the "long vacation" comes not in summer, but in the fall, covering the two months November and December. This is as suitable an arrangement as any other, in a country in which the climate is equable—the temperature on the great tableland being about 60 to 70 degrees Fahrenheit all the year round. It must be remembered that Mexico is, apart from the narrow strip of sea-level on both coasts, a great plateau varying from six to ten thousand feet above the sea, and that one has while staying there the same climate that so many of us have been going to the Engadine to secure. The schools, then, may remain open all through the summer, and all through the year, in a latitude usually associated by us with torrid heat, malarial fever, and insects galore; for none of these things are present.

Another general educational fact that becomes more apparent the farther one indulges his curiosity, is the sharp distinction, in all matters of more than purely local interest, between the affairs of the several confederated States and those of the Federal District of Mexico. Politically, the distinction is the same as with us. Our District of Columbia corresponds to the Federal District of Mexico. But in the latter country the Federal District is, as it is not with us, in many respects the *essentia et substantia* of the Republic. In matters of civilization and culture, of education and art, of literature and what would be called broadly the "affairs" of the country, the Federal District is Mexico, and Mexico is the City of Mexico. In matters of public education, for example, the two interests are in most strongly marked contrast. The States, of which there are twenty-seven, differ as much in their laws as do ours, but, more than that, the States on the one side and the Nation on the other have essentially different problems on their hands. In Mexico City there is a large cultivated and graded population, showing all the forms of cosmopolitanism that one would expect in a city having its history. There are traditions of Spanish as well as of later Mexican origin that give literary and artistic flavor to the life of the metropolis. In the matter of architecture alone a single significant fact, pertinent to my present point, is this—that the higher institutions, the School of Music, the School of Fine Arts, the Preparatorium (the institution giving the highest "arts" course), and many other similar establishments are now housed in the fine old Spanish structures which exemplify the splendid art of the Spanish Renaissance. There is background and atmosphere to the life in Mexico City which not only is absent, but will perforce continue to be absent for years to come, in the great State areas of rural Mexico. In the States, the population is more largely Indian—the North American, pure and undilute, though indeed less "undilute," as appears from statistics, than is generally supposed. Yet the problem of education, outside the Federal District, is that of furnishing a good and free common-school education to the Indian boys and girls whose parents live in adobe huts and serve the great haciendado or ruler of the plantation. The owner of the hacienda has often the entire responsibility of providing schools in his territory.

The result is that, in the States, one finds primary education about all that is to be looked for—with important exceptions, of course. President Diaz himself, in a long and animated conversation it was my privilege to have with him, said that the great educational problem confronting his country was the training of the millions of Indian children. It is in the Federal District, therefore, and of necessity, that the impulses of the higher training first make themselves felt; and they are already of great strength and promise. The present Ministry of Public Instruction and Fine Arts dates only from last year, when the Department of Justice, formerly joined to it, was separated off, and the Minister of Public Instruction now in office, the Hon. Justo Sierra, was appointed to his present position. This step itself is recognized by the President as one of his important moves, and in this I think competent opinion would agree with him. Señor Sierra is a man of fine presence, large in every sense, genial and popular, and at the same time, being himself a teacher by training and by right of success, fitted to deal with the questions proper to the bureau. It is under his direction that the Government has recently issued the superb work, 'Mexico, Its Social Evolution,' in three large quarto illustrated volumes, with which certain of our libraries and public men have been favored. In this work, indeed, the treatise on Education, written by Señor Chavez (now Sub-Secretary), will be found of great interest.* Señor Sierra is also known as one of the legislators to whom the country owes the compulsory-education law of 1888.

Señor Sierra is seconded in his work by others who hardly yield to the chief in zeal and information. I may take pardonable professional pride in calling attention to the fact that the Sub-Secretary, Sr. E. A. Chavez, is by common consent the leading psychologist of Mexico. He was professor of psychology in the Preparatorium before his appointment to his present position; and he has done important service in rendering into Spanish certain of the classics of logic and ethics—notably the 'Logic' of Mill and the 'Ethics' of Spencer. It is of especial interest to us that his latest translation is of the 'Primer of Psychology' of our honored psychologist, Professor Titchener of Cornell—a book whose physical size is much enlarged in the process.* Señor Chavez, whose interests and competence are shared by an able staff—among them Sr. J. J. Tablada, one of the best-known contemporary poets of Spanish America—is a man of large views and positive measures. Under his direction—and with the sympathy and endorsement of Señor Sierra—we may expect the details both of reform and of new organization to be informed with good psychology and adjusted with practical judgment.

As to the institutions themselves, much has been already done. The normal-school problem was attacked a half-generation ago by a wise minister, Baranda, and by a man whose name remains in Mexico a great educational force, Enrique C. Rébsamen, son of a Swiss father. At the time of the latter's death, two years ago, the Normal Schools, one for each sex, were already great and influential. Many of the coming men in education in the metropolis confess that their interest and competence are due to the inspiration of this great teacher. His mantle seems, indeed, to have fallen on other shoulders. The primary and secondary (called in Mexico "superior primary") instruction of the District is in the hands of Señor M. F. Martinez, who is at present in the midst of a series of wide and generous projects. He is building nine schoolhouses, which, to judge from the two just completed, are to be models of what convenient, hygienic, and "fit" school-buildings should be. He is also interested in forwarding the manual-training movement, in which good beginnings have been made. His son is in charge of the manual courses in the Normal Schools, bringing to the task the results of two years spent in New York; and manual training has already been introduced in the country schools. A quite proper distinction is made—that is, proper in the present writer's opinion—between the modes of manual work appropriate to boys and girls respectively. I was shown the work of the village of Xochimilco, lying in a rural environment, where seven schools are conducted under Sr. Martinez' administration. It is a typical Indian village, in the midst of the tangle of canals that are called the Viga, near Mexico, and comprises the well-known chinampas, or floating gardens, where much of the garden produce is raised for the metropolis. The work of the girls in the schools of different grades was exhibited, and a collection presented to me to bring away. It is extremely good—drawn linen, silk embroidery, and other products of the needle that only a woman could properly describe, all of which would do credit to the skill of professional needlewomen and lace makers. The work exhibited in Mexico City from the boys' schools shows good beginnings, but is still in its infancy compared with the finished output of our own great manual-training schools. Sr. Martinez, it may be added, was formerly identified with the school system of the growing town of Monterey, which is becoming the centre of American influence in the Republic.†

The higher institutions seem to have been formed after models more of the

*The same may be said, indeed, of the other chapters of this important work, dealing with all the great aspects of the Mexico of to-day, and written by leading native authorities. Sr. Sierra was himself the "literary editor."

*It seems that we all acquire increased outward importance in the translation process. A Spanish version of a little text-book of mine, the 'Elements of Psychology,' of which I was first informed while in Mexico, has become, from a small pocket volume, a great tome two inches thick!

†He is also author of a valuable 'History of Elementary Instruction in New Spain.'

French than of any other national type. It is, indeed, to be remarked that in many ways French civilization is more really alive in Mexico than any other, save, of course, that which survives the Spanish occupation. The effect of this *rapport* shows itself in the ability to use the French—in text-books, sources, etc.—and also in the actual organization of the schools. No doubt much is due to the direct influence of Barreda, a student and disciple of Comte, who headed the Commission of 1867 for the reorganization of the Preparatory School.

There have, indeed, grown up, somewhat as in Paris, great schools vitally issuing from some actually present cultural root, so to express the matter. The School of Fine Arts is connected with the art collections and with actual architectural projects; there is to be a school of Archæology, Anthropology, and History, built upon the existing Museum of Mexican Antiquities; the School of Commerce is a practical vehicle of actual commercial instruction for both sexes, and so on. This is somewhat the origin also of the schools of Paris, whose thorough amalgamation into a university would bring them into more organic relation to one another. In Mexico, the advantages of this have been, of course, those of an immediate, pragmatic sort: relative utility, relative lack of waste, relative directness in ministering to the demands of the national life. But the defects have also been felt, such as are apparent in other countries, viz., lack of solidarity, lack of *esprit de corps* and "team-work," and, above all, lack of some of the institutions necessary to fill out the scheme of culture. There has been wanting anything corresponding to the École des Hautes Études, or to our university faculties of philosophy, pure science, and what we denominate liberal arts of university grade. The nearest approach to our Arts course has been the curriculum of the Preparatorium, an institution corresponding fairly well to the American College, which fits its graduates to enter directly the schools of Law, Medicine, Engineering, etc. This, of course, has left great gaps in the system which only those actuated by motives of a more theoretical and directly cultural sort would care or endeavor to fill. There have been important contributions to science coming from Mexico; one recalls that the Hodgkins prize awarded by the Smithsonian Institution in 1895 went to the important study of Life in High Altitudes by the well-known teachers respectively of biology and physiology in the Normal and Medical Schools, Srs. Herrara and Vergara Lope. But as Sr. Chavez himself remarked to me, in our discussion of the subject, such work has been the result of direct individual endeavor. Literature and science alike have not had the aid or support that would come through institutions in which their pursuit is made more dignified from being official and collective.

The new National University project is, however, taking form. It has just been made the subject of an official announcement. On January 8, the day of the annual formal opening of the Preparatorium, the writer had the pleasure of attending this function with the Minister of Public Instruction. In the address which was asked for he made somewhat the same reflection as that written out above, and said that the great further need was that of a National University, a school devoted to Science, Literature, Philosophy, and Art for their own sakes, a school of research and production. This would bring unity and wholeness to the educational body. This was followed by the remarks of Minister Sierra, who at once rose to his feet and said that the Government was prepared then and there to announce the intention of establishing such an institution, which should constitute, with the schools already in existence, the National University of Mexico. This project was to be, he said, together with the establishment of the great National Theatre already taking form in a suitable building, the contribution of his Department of the Government to the Centennial Celebration of Mexican Independence to take place in the year 1910.

This announcement was received, it may well be imagined, with great applause, and the newspapers the following day commented upon it as one of the most important measures which modern Mexico owed to the Administration of President Diaz. In another address, delivered at the opening of the Normal School, I could not refrain from pointing out that the United States had neither a National University nor a National Theatre, and that in these things Mexico, coming first, was entitled to be called the leader in the development of one set of the group of interests we are coming to call Pan-American.

There are now in operation schools of Agriculture, Law, Medicine, Commerce, Fine Arts, Engineering, Music, Teaching (the two Normal Schools), Arts (in our college sense), and there will be established in the new university in addition departments for Pure Science, Philosophy, Literature, Archæology and History, Arts and Crafts, and Political and Social Science.

When one thinks of certain facts of history—the closing of the old University of Mexico, a Jesuit institution that flourished during the Spanish occupation; the conditions of confusion and paralysis that extended down late in the century, before stable government came to modern Mexico after the term of the French Intervention; the economic and racial problems with which the country has had to deal, as illustrated by the reform in finance,* only just now being brought about by that genius, a Frenchman, Limantour, the present Minister of Finance, together with the restricted scope and place, the Federal District, in which alone the problems of higher education are even yet of any pressing urgency—when one thinks of all this, it becomes evident that in such steps as these the Government of Diaz is proving itself to have extraordinary vitality and moral power. Commenting upon the proposed University, the President, in the interview referred to, declared that Minister Sierra should have all the money he needed to carry the project through. This may be commented by the remark that in his annual report, issued about the same time, Minister Limantour reported a credit balance in the national treasury, and submitted an increased estimate of receipts for the ensuing year.

So much for the spirit of the new Mexican educational life. In a report which I have promised to write out for the Bureau of Education at Washington, more detail will be appropriate. It will, however, no doubt be evident what lesson we should draw from such a movement on our southern border. We have taken interest, sometimes a servile and very imitative interest, in institutions across the sea; we have recently heard much of international cooperation and alliance in our educational operations, motived by interest in a larger fraternity and moral community: why should not this interest find an outlet here in Mexico, where a virile national life is assimilating its material from every source? In the matter of language alone, the opportunity is as great as the need: we need Spanish, they need English.* Mexicans, both teachers and students, might attend our universities in the fall term, which coincides with their long vacation.

I find that men going from us—either professors or students—would not only be welcomed, but acclaimed and honored. Things Pan-American are in the air, conferences are arranged to conserve commercial and political interests; why not such things in education, science, art? I found the Department of Public Instruction cordially open to such suggestions. It is likely that an official delegation will go from Mexico to the National Educational Association at San Francisco in July next, also visiting the summer school of the University of California.† It would be a capital thing should the American Association for the Advancement of Science hold a winter meeting in the City of Mexico; witness the procedure of the British Association in going not only to Canada twice, but this very year to South Africa! Certainly the members of the American Association would have "the time of their lives," and the international good to result would go far to leaven many of the lumps of misunderstanding over which the politicians are living the strenuous life. Indeed, there are many ways in which this lesson might just now be very practically read, and in these ways we men who work in science and literature and the arts may second the endeavors of those who are striving to bring in the day of a more united American continent.

J. Mark Baldwin.

*It happened during my visit that the Government officials were paid for the first time part (80 per cent.) of their salaries in the new gold coin—a beautiful piece of five Mexican dollars bearing the eagle and snake of the national emblem on one side, and on the reverse the head of the patriot of the Revolution, Hidalgo.

*Señor Javier Arrangoïz, Director-General of Customs, who is also Director of the School of Commerce, hopes, with the aid of Mr. H. N. Branch, Professor of English in the School, to establish a system of correspondence between pupils in Mexico and the United States. I should be glad to serve as medium of communication for any teachers who wish to join in such a scheme.

†Since writing this I have heard from Prof. E. C. Moore, Dean of the Summer School, who happened to be in Mexico when I was, that Sr. Chaves has been asked to lecture at Berkeley this coming summer. Lic. Orci, also an official in the Department, is coming this spring to the Johns Hopkins for advanced work in psychology.

INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY OF SCULPTORS, PAINTERS, AND GRAVERS.

London, January 8, 1906.

The International has already, in its six years, accomplished an important work. It has introduced into London the art of the world which was hardly known there before. It has carried into the English provincial cities exhibitions such as had never

hitherto been seen in them. It has become—instead of the Royal Academy, the so-called national artistic body, but really the tomb of national art—the association of the artists of the country, to which foreign Governments come when they wish to organize British sections in international exhibitions abroad. If the shows which it held in America were not altogether what was expected of them, that was wholly the fault of some of the artists, who were not intelligent enough to take advantage of their opportunities. Nor has the International been content to introduce good art into England; it has tried no less for good arrangement, both in the placing of the work exhibited and the decoration of the galleries. And last, but not least, the most important thing of all, the International has vindicated the name and reputation of Whistler, its first president, and given him the position he had been denied all his life.

This Society has just opened in the New Gallery its sixth exhibition, which in main respects differs but little from its five others. One striking innovation, however, has been made. The "Gravers"—the word is Whistler's—do not appear now at all, but their section, which has so far been the most successful of the three, and includes water-colors and pastels as well as prints and drawings, is reserved for a separate show, to open toward the end of this month. In the absence of the Gravers, there is no question that the sculptors monopolize the interest. Once more, the central court has been converted into a stately white temple, Rodin's "Baiser" taking the place of his "Penseur" of two winters ago. "Le Baiser" is well known; the surprise is to see it in a London gallery. It need hardly be described, so often already has its beauty of form and design been pointed out. Rodin has never done anything more perfect than these two figures, so superbly and sympathetically modelled, the contrast between the muscular strength of the man and the delicate grace of the woman so learnedly suggested, such charm and passion in the pose, such rhythm and stateliness in the outline, where Rodin of late deliberately fails. It represents him at his finest and sanest, before he launched into the experiments and eccentricities and mistakes which, unfortunately, his admirers and disciples have praised until the public—the sheep following whithersoever they may be led—have come to believe that in these lie the measure and fulness of his genius. The "Baiser" makes it the harder to understand his reason for the awkwardness, the formless silhouette, of a work like the "Paolo and Francesca," occupying a centre in another room. In this the figures emerge, in the now familiar fashion, from a great shapeless rock, but, in emerging, they have not the grace and loveliness of some of his other little groups of the same kind. They lie clasped in an almost clumsy embrace, their outstretched arms repeating an ugly line and gesture. Whatever meaning there may be is lost in the chaotic arrangement.

After M. Rodin, the late Constantin Meunier, the Belgian, and Mr. Paul W. Bartlett, the American, are the two sculptors who appear with the greatest distinction. There is an unusually fine collection of Meunier's work: small bronze reliefs, statuettes and busts of the subjects that were his inspiration—the miners and laborers and peasants, in whom he saw as much beauty as the Greek sculptor saw in his gods and in the priests and youths who sacrificed to them. Meunier, still more than Millet, ennobled labor and knew how to express all that there is in it of heroism and grandeur. The heads have character; in the reliefs, men and women and beasts move in rhythmical unison; the oldest and most wrinkled and worn women of the people have a tragic dignity—the dignity of the type. And all this little collection has been so well arranged where it fills one side of the court, that never yet, not in Paris or Antwerp, not in Brussels or Liège, have I felt the force and truth and impressiveness of Meunier as now in the New Gallery. But the Belgian's reputation had reached London; not so the American's. Mr. Bartlett is a newcomer, but he has proved an immediate and, among artists, a sensational success. He has sent the series of small bronzes that won him fame and the highest honors at St. Louis—the graceful vases, the little figures as perfect as if unearthed from some old Greek tomb, the marvellous fish and lions—marvellous in their harmonious line and graceful form—the torsos so well studied, so sensitively modelled. And he reveals, in addition, so much feeling for color that his work gains a quality sculpture does not always give. I have never seen any of Mr. Bartlett's more ambitious work—more ambitious, that is, in size—that could in any way approach these small and exquisite bronzes.

M. Bartholomé has already contributed more remarkable sculpture to the International. His "Adam et Eve," a learned academical exercise, in so heroic proportion that it is quite out of scale in the court, and his other two exhibits, "Jeune Fille se Coiffant" and "Au Bord de l'Eau," seem insignificant from the sculptor of the monumental tomb to the dead at Père-la-Chaise. Mr. Wilson, who is retaining some of his work for the February exhibition, has only an excellently designed "Pietà," a relief for the private chapel at Welbeck Abbey. Mr. Furse and Mr. Wells are other of the more notable exhibitors. And there is nothing else for me to mention, unless it be that Mr. Havard Thomas, the late notoriety, sends a relief that I wonder to see hung in this small but fine collection, and that Mr. Ricketts, the universal genius, has this year descended upon sculpture.

The painting, it might as well be admitted frankly (or rather the British part of it), includes much that is distressingly commonplace and more distressingly bad. The Scotchmen, as a rule, are too poor for notice; the Glasgow School, for the moment anyway, have gone to pieces—there are only a very few exceptions. The galleries themselves are as effective as ever at a first glance. Walls draped with grayish white or pale neutral green make the best possible background, the pictures are hung fairly well, though not with the thought and care devoted to the Whistler Exhibition last year. However, there is no clumsy crowding as at the Academy, and you feel that so much attention and respect could not have been lavished upon work without genuine merit. The truth is, after the first glance, you see only too plainly that most of the work is of the smallest merit, if any. The International, with Whistler as its president, started for the avowed purpose of exhibiting all that is finest and most individual in modern art everywhere, without any foolish limit of school or nationality. In one particular it has not wavered: it is international in its selection of work as in its name. But the selecting committee of painters should have been more rigid in their standard, and their weakness is the more unpardonable because the sculpture committee have so splendidly shown them the way. It may be thought that, as the best work comes from abroad, this is proof of the breadth and liberality of the painters. But for so much poor work the foreigner is also responsible that one fears the lack of judgment has been even greater than the liberality. However, when the Academy is remembered, when the bad hanging, the insularity, the dreadful decoration of most of the London exhibitions is considered, one is the less inclined to criticise the International too severely. The trouble is that it has already done so much that the suggestion of anything like a falling away from the high aims with which it set out is at once resented.

One of the most interesting things to me in the exhibition is the attempt to obtain a representative showing of American artists. Little is known over here of what is being done by the American artist at home. The American artist in England is known well enough for the English to be eager to appropriate him, and so we have Sargent and Abbey and Shannon in the Academy, and the amazing spectacle of Whistler figuring as a painter of the British school in a National Gallery. The American artist in Paris sometimes sends to London, where he has at least been heard of. But that there are artists, and distinguished artists, quietly working in their native land, no Englishman would condescend to believe. As a strong endeavor to prove that there are has been made this year, the pity is it should not have been more thorough and more successful. The Pennsylvania Academy has contributed six or seven pictures, but only three out of these do the painters full justice. There is the very beautiful "Mother and Child," by Mr. De Forest Brush, and I am glad to see it is receiving as much attention in London as it received in Paris in 1900—the attention it deserves. The golden "Sheep Pasture," by Mr. H. W. Ranger, is distinctly one of the finest landscapes in the entire exhibition. "People at Breakfast," that well-studied and well-observed interior, by Mr. E. C. Tarbell, is most interesting, and Mr. J. De Camp's "Little Hotel," though rather commonplace, still has character. But the pictures by Theodore Robinson, Winslow Homer, and Mr. Eakins should never have been sent, nor a painting of flowers by Mr. Alden Weir, lent by a private owner. Nor has Mr. Wiles been discreet in the choice of his portraits. The American may be perfectly well aware of the distinguished and strong work these artists have done; but the Englishman is not, and he scarcely would imagine it from the performances by which they are now represented, while the absence of men like Childe Hassam, Dewing, and many others, is greatly to be regretted. It seems always the way when American work is exhibited in London. Even Mr. Chase, a member of the International

—he has nothing this year—usually prefers to send indifferent portraits rather than his masterly renderings of still life, like his fish, for instance. And as for the New York Water Color Club, when the members held an exhibition in London last spring, they did themselves anything but good by it. However, I hear that a genuinely representative series of drawings and prints has been prepared by American artists for the International's approaching second exhibition, and I hope it will make up for the disappointment that I, anyway, have had in the pictures.

There is reason for disappointment in most of the other foreign sections. From Germany, though the National Galleries at Berlin and Cologne contribute, comes little of note, save a large, powerful landscape by Von Bartels, "The Flemish Inn," a wide stretch of wind-swept flat meadow land, and lines of wind-swept poplars under a dramatic sky. From Holland and Belgium comes hardly more: two or three not very remarkable Israels, a Bauer not so good as pictures the artist has had in previous shows, a Mesdag, and two paintings by Buysse, amazingly full of observation—one an impression of sunlight and mist on a frosty morning; the other a Flemish canal in the early hours of a September day. Italy would not count were it not for a characteristic Segantini, "Early Spring"; while, for some reason I fail to understand, those always amusing and often daring young Spaniards, Zuloaga and Anglada, have given place to their much less interesting countryman, Sorolla y Bastida. Thaulow carries off all the Scandinavian honors.

The French, however, appear more triumphantly, not solely in a group of the Impressionists, but in the contributions of the younger men influenced by them. Manet, Monet, Sisley, Pissarro, Renoir, Degas, Berthe Morisot, even Cézanne, who is just at this moment enjoying an exaggerated reputation, are all included: Manet most notably in "Le Linge," a good example of his "peinture claire"; Monet most delightfully in "Antibes," one of the earlier landscapes that are reminders of the beauty he once allowed himself to see in Nature. The Carrières are fine, "Maternité" and "Mère et Fille"; but I have spoken of them when they were exhibited in Paris. Two of the Besnards are wonderful impressions of majestic cloud storms gathering and threatening above a wide sandy beach. M. Boldini's "Mrs. E. A. Salaman" is one of his extraordinarily clever and audacious performances, and M. Aman-Jean's portrait of a lady, from the New Salon, has the usual charm. Raffaëlli, Cottet, Simon are by no means at their best. And, altogether, my interest was greatest in a nude by M. Louis Legrand, the hackneyed motive of a woman at the bath, treated with such knowledge of form, such subtlety of modelling, such a delicate sense of color, that it has all the originality of a new technical theme—a little masterpiece. Hardly less astounding are two small Vuillards, a woman at her toilet, and the corner of a room—"Chambre de Garçon"—both with that fine quality of paint that makes Vuillard the delight of artists. And with these I must place four paintings by Forain, two of dancers that suggest the influence of Degas, two of lawyers as suggestive of the influence of Daumier, but all admirable in the personal adaptation of models set by great masters.

As I have said, it is among the British members one comes upon the most hopeless commonplace. This, no doubt, is the fault of having "members." However, when the commonplace is disposed of, some good work remains. Mr. Lavery, the vice-president, is at his best in "The Ladies Evelyn and Norah Hely-Hutchinson," for the arrangement of the sisters sitting side by side is so decorative in pattern, the color is so agreeable, that it is easier to forget the unpleasantness of the technique and the utter insignificance of another of his portraits hanging opposite. Sir James Guthrie has an effective full-length of "The Marquis of Tullibardine," in khaki; but, apparently, he has hesitated between his desire to render all the detail and his deference to the methods of Whistler, with, as result, weakness throughout and an irritating restlessness. A portrait of a lady by Mr. Charles H. Shannon is more disappointing, for Mr. Shannon is an artist from whom, if one never expects strength or the knowledge of a painter like Legrand, one does look for a decorative arrangement. But the figure is placed so low on the canvas as to lose all graciousness as well as dignity of design, while the color scheme is so low in tone that only with difficulty does one make out the design at all. Better are the portraits by Mr. Nicholson, who of a sudden, however, shows an inclination to reëcho Mr. Sargent when one would so much rather see Mr. Nicholson himself. But best of all is Mr. Greiffenhagen's portrait of his wife, a graceful figure standing in graceful pose, the simple dress the excuse for a lovely harmony in black and silver, the only stronger color in the flesh tints of the flatly modelled face and the pale roses of the hat. There are admirable landscapes by Mr. Peppercorn, Mr. Mura, Mr. Oliver Hall, Mr. Bertram Priestman. And, if I add that there is also work by Mr. Strang, Mr. Pryde, Mr. Ricketts, Mr. Conder, I have said enough to give a good idea of the scope and variety of the most important annual exhibition of modern work now held in London. It will be interesting to see what the "Gravers," whose section has hitherto been the most important, will make of an exhibition all to themselves. N. N.

THE RUINS OF ANGKOR.

SAIGON, November 30, 1905.

French Indo-China is much less visited by travellers than it deserves to be. This is in part because the ordinary tourist is hardly more than aware of its existence, or, if he has any impressions about the country, they are pretty certain to be unfavorable, based on the common assertion that the French do not know how to colonize. In part, too, the neglect of these regions by the globe-trotting public is due to the fact that the means of transport are still unsatisfactory. Thus, though the boats of the Messageries Maritimes stop at Saigon, one must, in order to visit Tonking, either retrace one's steps northward for some distance, or else take at Hongkong a decrepit little steamer whose date of sailing it is impossible to find out much beforehand. Even the service along the coast from Haiphong to Saigon, though comparatively regular, is not really good. All this is a pity, as there is plenty to see. The landscape is picturesque, for the coast is rugged and the interior mountainous or rich with tropical vegetation; the towns, too, old and new (most of them are both), are worth a visit. Haiphong is a thriving port, with rosy dreams for the future. Hanoi, since 1898 the capital of Indo-China, is in some ways perhaps the most attractive-looking spot for a residence in the Far East. It is a fresh, new city, prosperous and cheerful in appearance even though the stucco with which the buildings are covered soon becomes shabby and is often not as well kept up as it should be; but the broad streets are in perfect condition, there are good public buildings and handsome shops—indeed, it is hard to see who can support them all; the trees are numerous though still young; there is a fine botanical garden, pretty rides and drives, a theatre with a subsidized troupe (shared with Haiphong), a school of Oriental research, and other institutions of many kinds. Then, too, Hanoi has a real winter of a sort—for instance, driving on a November afternoon one may need an overcoat; so the climate is good as tropical climates go. None the less it is tropical, a fact not taken enough into account in the building of many of the houses, which are better suited to the suburbs of Paris than to Tonking. The native part of the town is quaint and bustling, though the few monuments of Annamite art in the vicinity are not striking. Altogether Hanoi makes a very favorable impression on the visitor. Whether its prosperity is factitious and due to too large an expenditure of public moneys, is a question on which the tourist should hardly venture an opinion, but there seem good grounds for being optimistic about the future of a capital situated in a fertile, thickly settled region, and the meeting-place of four railways.

Saigon is quite different from her younger rival. Though no longer the metropolis of the colony, she is the chief commercial centre, the port from which great and ever-increasing quantities of rice are shipped to many countries, including our own Philippines. The European city has an older, more established look than Hanoi. The trees are taller and more numerous, the theatre and Government buildings are finer; but, like Singapore, Saigon is hot all the year round, and, being built in the midst of a mud delta, offers no chance for an escape to a cooler neighborhood. There is a good deal of business done here, but, in spite of its trees and its theatre and its cafés, and its closer touch with the outside world, one would hardly choose Saigon as a home without some special reason. However, it repays coming to see for a day, and it is also the starting-point for an excursion to the ruins of Angkor.

Before saying anything about these wonderful remains, it may be worth while to point out that a visit to them, though entailing a little discomfort, is no longer a matter of real difficulty. There is a regular if not very good steamer which runs weekly in the season of high-water (from about November 15, to February 1) between Saigon and Sien Reap and Battambang in Siam, and the sail up and down has, in parts much charm. The ruins are just

within the Siamese border, but one should get a pass beforehand in Pnom Penh, the capital of Cambodia, from the French residency there, which telegraphs ahead how many visitors may be expected, so that there shall be enough sampans (native boats) to meet them. Pnom Penh itself is a rather attractive, bustling little place, with a puppet king and a new foreign quarter, adorned with the trees and fine roads the usual accompaniments of French rule; but its resources are soon exhausted, and one grudges the twenty-four hours spent there both going and coming. It is, however, a great convenience to those not provided with the necessary outfit, that the manager of the Grand Hotel furnishes not only food and bedding but servants and an interpreter for the further journey. In the very early morning of the following day the steamer reaches the mouth of the Sien Reap River, where one finds a sampan in waiting and is paddled up stream for five hours to the town of Sien Reap, and, after a further hour's drive by bullock-cart, reaches Angkor Wat. Here there is a very tolerable shelter in which the traveller can eat and sleep. If he is pressed for time, he can do his sight-seeing in two days, and then catch, on its return trip from Battambang, the steamer by which he came. The whole trip from Saigon and back in this case takes about eight days; but it is much better, if one can afford it, to wait over a boat, see everything more thoroughly, and visit some of the less-frequented ruins.

Like the Bôrôboedor and other ruins in Java, the monumental remains at Angkor were the work of a race who must have been much superior in civilization to the natives of the same region at the present time. The temples at Angkor Wat and the palaces, some three miles beyond, at Angkor Thom, are only a part, though the finest part, of the ruins scattered over a district recently an integral portion of Cambodia, of which Angkor was once the capital. The earliest work at Angkor Thom dates from the beginning of or perhaps from before the Christian era, while the latest at Angkor Wat is supposed to be of the eighth or even the tenth century. We can thus say that these buildings cover a period of at least a thousand years. They not only represent an enormous amount of human labor, such as can have been performed only by a dense population in this now desolate region, they also show a very highly developed artistic quality, both in conception and in execution. As they stand to-day, they are undoubtedly entitled to a foremost place among the great monuments of the world. One must therefore deeply regret that more is not done to arrest the process of their further destruction by the ever encroaching tropical vegetation which tears them asunder, and also that further excavations are not undertaken which would doubtless bring to light much that is now hidden. Still, this would be a good deal to expect just yet of the Siamese Government on its distant frontier, but the desire of the French to restore to Cambodia—*i. e.*, get into their own hands—what has until lately been the heart of her territory, is not unnatural. What we know about these ruins is, of course, almost entirely the work of French scholars who have investigated and are still investigating these remarkable products of an extinct civilization. Much as they have found, there is still a great deal to learn.

The dominant character of the art at Angkor is admittedly Hindu. It is recorded that the Khmer, or Cambodian, state was founded by an invasion or migration from India in the fifth century before Christ. The earlier inhabitants, the Ciampas, after some struggle, were subdued or driven to the southward. The political as well as the artistic acme in the history of Cambodia seems to have been reached some fifteen centuries later, when both Siam and Annam were tributary to her. After that her decline was rapid. Her former vassals soon became her aggressive neighbors, and then her overlords, who between them reduced her territory till what was left of it peaceably accepted a French protectorate in 1864. The Indian element in the population has probably long been submerged by the conquered race, and to this may in a measure be ascribed the decline in civilization which has taken place. It is true the modern Cambodians are a fine-looking, attractive people, even if lazy and hardly fit to hold their own in the struggle for existence against Siamese and Annamites, not to say Chinese. Cambodian art, with all its richness, is less elaborate than Indian; indeed, the traveller coming from the more fantastic work of the Mongolian East is struck with its sobriety. The layman may hardly risk an opinion on any resemblances to the art of other nations, such as have been suggested, but yet, even to the casual observer, the bas-reliefs (which differ not a little from one another) suggest the work of Assyria and Egypt; and at times the almost classical pillars make one think of Greece itself. As in the case of the pyramids, we have no knowledge how the huge blocks of stone were lifted to their lofty positions.

The temple of Angkor Wat is situated in a walled rectangular park 1,030 metres long by 830 metres wide. A stone bridge leads to the western or principal entrance, which consists of a central passage and two at the extreme sides (for chariots and elephants), piercing a gallery two hundred and fifty metres long and surmounted by three towers. About four hundred metres further, at the end of a broad highway flanked by some small ruins, is the main building. It is almost square, three stories in height, pyramidal in shape, and crowned by nine towers, most of them well preserved, although the statues adorning their exterior are in a bad state of decay. As the towers are in line with one another, it is difficult to see many of them at a time from the ordinary approach. The lower story of the temple is formed by a base, on which rests, on the four sides, a great gallery whose exterior pillars let in the light on more than half a kilometre of elaborate bas-reliefs (about two metres high), with thousands of figures representing scenes from the Ramayana and other examples of Hindu life and mythology. To quote from Sir Hugh Clifford's 'Further India':

"Even more astonishing than the Titanic character of the ruins is the wealth of beautiful detail which they display. Almost every individual stone is curiously carved. Statues of immense proportions, figures of Buddha, of giants and kings, of lions, dragons, and fabulous monsters, abound. The bas-reliefs show processions of warriors mounted on birds, on horses, tigers, elephants, and on legendary animals, combats between the king of the apes and the king of the angels, boats filled with long-bearded rowers, some of them dressed in the Chinese fashion, cock-fights, women at play with their little ones, soldiers armed with bows, with javelins, sabres, and halberts, and innumerable other scenes. The men who wrought these carvings must have been possessed by a veritable passion for artistic presentment, by a love of art for its own sake such as would seem to argue a degree of intellectual refinement which has no counterpart among the peoples of the Indo-Chinese peninsula in our own day."

The interior of the enclosure is now covered with rank vegetation, out of which, on each side of the main passage, there rises on a monumental base a detached building, a perfect little gem of architecture, reached by a lofty staircase. Nine other exterior staircases lead from the first story to the second, but their object is chiefly structural. Even the one used for the actual approach is handsome rather than convenient. The second story itself is a smaller square gallery with cross connections, and, at a little lower level, four paved courtyards formerly containing fountains or statues. From the gallery we get many charming glimpses of different parts of the structure, across, above, below. The third story, reached by an even steeper staircase than the last, encloses the base of the central tower, a highly decorated sixteen-sided, tapering spire, whose summit, though it has lost the nine metres of its point, still looms fifty-six metres above the floor. From the platform there is a splendid view of the surrounding country, and we realize that this superb monument stands literally in the midst of almost impenetrable tropical jungle. The whole grand mass is of stone, and although one tower has fallen in completely and much of the exterior decoration has suffered from the ravages of time, nevertheless the temple as a whole is in a state of extraordinary preservation, for which one may well be thankful.

Unfortunately, this is far from being the case at Angkor Thom. Here we have not one building, but a number of them in an enclosure nearly four kilometres long in each direction, and entered by five great gates. The interior is a wild jungle, out of which here and there emerges the ruin of some once proud structure or crumbling wall. We are lost in astonishment at the really terrific power of the tropical vegetation. The seed in a crack becomes a tiny creeper, which expands till the force of its slow but resistless pressure splits mighty blocks of stone from one another; statues are entwined and pulled from their pedestals; trees have grown up as if by magic in what were paved courtyards, and have burst their way through thick walls. Even places cleaned up a few years ago are once more a mass of green. In its prime, Angkor Thom, with its palaces and temples and dwellings swarming with the brilliant life of an Oriental court, must have presented a gorgeous spectacle. A Chinese writer of the thirteenth century, after the decline had already begun, has left us an account of the magnificence which he witnessed, and mentions that there were stalls for two thousand elephants alone. The chief buildings must have been most imposing. Ruinous as is their present condition, enough remains to establish their former splendor. The most interesting of them to-day is the Baïon, a great structure severely beautiful in its lines with three stories of galleries,

once surmounted by fifty solid towers, each of them with the colossal head of Brahma, whose four faces looked serenely down on the world below. Many of these towers have fallen, but others still stand, and in the midst of the desolation about them give an effect of grave majesty that is indescribable. Perhaps no one thing in the Angkor Wat itself quite equals the Baïon, and how much there is beside it!

It is hard to tear one's self away from sights such as this. To study them at all satisfactorily, even in a superficial manner, demands far more than two brief days, which are all that can be granted to them by the hasty traveller. However, even the merest tourist returns from his visit to Angkor with the feeling that he has been looking on wonders which he will never forget as long as he lives.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

ALL-ROUND CONSTITUTION-STRAINING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of my *Atlantic* article on the United States Senate, you very fairly point to the President's recent manœuvres as a straining of Constitutional barriers quite as reprehensible as any proceedings of the Senate. When all is said, a thought will arise that the House of Representatives is not far behind either Senate or President in disregard of its real rights and duties, neglecting the latter and exaggerating the former beyond all bounds. The chief object of most members is to stand well with their constituents, so as to keep their seats; they are little scrupulous as to the means of effecting this end, and allow their relations to the President and Senate to take on all sorts of undignified and illegitimate forms.

In Mr. Cleveland's second term, the Democratic House, so largely controlled by Southern members, was intent on an early repeal of the so-called "Force Bill," or Federal Election Law. This repeal was sure, and while it was deferred there was no danger that the law would be operative. The President sent, not a public message, but private suggestions, to various members to let the repeal wait till some progress had been made with the tariff. One member greeted a note of this kind with the audible remark: "I wish the President would attend to his end of the Avenue, and let us attend to ours." Yet that member regularly laid siege to the White House "end of the Avenue"; he haunted the departments at all hours, demanding offices for his constituents to which he had no more constitutional claim than to the command of the army. WILLIAM EVERETT.

QUINCY, MASS., February 12, 1906.

PIGEON-HOLING EXTRAORDINARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the alleged inefficiency of Government departments: there was received at this library on January 29, 1906, a document entitled 'A First Report on the Relations between Climates and Crops,' by Cleveland Abbe. The date of publication is 1905, the letter of transmittal to the Secretary of Agriculture is dated August 1, 1905. I expected to find in the document the results of recent investigation. My expectations were dashed as I read the second sentence of the letter of transmittal:

"This paper is not designed as an original investigation, but as a summary of the views of the best experimentalists and observers, *so far as those had been published up to 1891*. A continuation of this study, bringing the subject up to date, is contemplated, but as the publication of this first portion has been frequently requested, it seems wise not to delay."

Turning to the preface for further light, I read:

"[The chief signal officer] issued an instruction dated Feb. 25, 1891, authorizing me to prepare this work, completing it before June 30 of that year. The present report is a rapid compilation from a wide range of sources, and presents a preliminary view of the condition of our knowledge at that time, . . . I regret that the report could not have been published in 1891."

Where, then, was the manuscript in the fourteen years one month between its completion and its transmittal to the Secretary of Agriculture? Upon this mystery are we to have no light except that suggested by the regret quoted above?

A LIBRARIAN.

February 3, 1906.

MISSAL AND PAYNIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The discussion of Keats's line has assuredly reached a stage that must be distressing to lovers of poetry. Why this needless expenditure of dialectic? To the imagination the clasped missal may be allowed to suggest holiness which the prayers of swart paynims neglect. We should be loath to disturb Madeline's blissful slumber with the creaking of our logic-engines.

LEWIS F. MOTT.

172 WEST 79TH ST., NEW YORK,
February 12, 1906.

Notes.

A new novel, by Owen Wister, 'Lady Baltimore,' is announced by Macmillan Company.

'The Fading of the Mayflower,' one hundred and fourteen stanzas in sonnet form, by Theodore Tilton, will be published March 1, by A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago.

Dr. W. E. Griffis is at work upon a revision of his 'Mikado's Empire,' brought down to date by an account of the Russo-Japanese war. Messrs. Harper expect to have it in hand by mid-summer.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will soon publish the fourth and concluding volume of Dr. Morgan Dix's 'History of the Parish of Trinity Church,' and 'The Electoral System of the United States,' by J. Hampden Dougherty.

Marion Crawford, in conjunction with Count Soderini and Professor Clementi, is engaged in the preparation of a life of Leo XIII. on the basis of hitherto unpublished documents, which were personally handed over to Count Soderini by the late Pontiff. The work will fill four volumes, and, according to preliminary reports of those acquainted with the project, will put an altogether different face on the relation of the last two popes to the question of Italian unity.

Interested readers of the article on the new auxiliary language, "Esperanto," by Professor Schinz, in the last number of the *Atlantic*, will be glad of some information regarding text-books. There is a grammar and text-book by O'Connor (to be had of Fleming H. Revell Co., New York), an English-Esperanto dictionary by the same author, and an Esperanto-English dictionary by Matteau. A larger French-Esperanto dictionary (in two volumes of one thousand pages each) is in course of publication. With the building of the great wireless tower in the north of Germany, for communication with all the countries of Europe at once, the necessity for a common *Hilfsprache* becomes manifest. It may be mentioned that at least one American book, an elementary exposition of the modern theory of the continuum by Professor Huntington of Harvard, is about to be translated into Esperanto.

A few reprints deserve mention: the Oxford Edition of Kingsley's 'Westward Ho!' (H. Frowde), with illustrations from books and prints contemporary with the period of the Great Armada; by the same publisher (and, by chance, with an introduction by Walter Raleigh), the 'Lyrical Poems of William Blake,' the text controlled by Blake's latest and best editor, John Sampson—a tasteful volume for the hand; and Spenser's 'Faerie Queene' in two pocket volumes of the Newnes-Scribner Caxton Series, with limp orange covers and paper a shade too thin except for economizing bulk.

The new issue of 'Who's Who in America' (Chicago: A. N. Marquis & Co.) surpasses its English prototype by nearly 300 pages in extent, and is at once more exclusive (un-foreign) and more democratic if only by reason of its care for authors. The number of persons commemorated is 16,216, and for their addresses, when non-resident, they have been pursued to the uttermost parts of the globe. Of all directories, this is one most often to be thankful for and to resort to. Exemplary in its kind and scrupulously edited, it is, in addition to the biographies, the handiest tracer of a writer's (dated) works and publisher, and in this respect it enjoys a real distinction.

Mr. Frank Maclean's 'Henry Moore, R.A.,' in the "Masters of British Art" (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners), is a sound and unpretentious piece of work which will supply all the information that the general reader will care for about this thoroughly competent if not quite great painter. The illustrations are very successfully reproduced, and, in spite of the monotony of subject and the inevitable loss of the glory of color, give one a high opinion of the truth and vigor of Moore's rendering of the open sea, which he was one of the first artists to paint as an independent subject and without reliance on incident or "human interest" of any sort. The scattered allusions through the volume to Moore's brother Albert, whose talent was so different from his own, lead one to long for an equally good account of his life and work. Could not Mr. Maclean give it to us?

There is certainly, nowadays, a strong

leaning among English people of taste and leisure toward the study of old English furniture. In addition to the books we have recently noticed, all bearing upon this subject, and some of great cost and elaboration, we have now (from George Newnes and from Scribner) a less expensive book, 'An Introduction to Old English Furniture,' with a great many illustrations by H. M. Brock and text by W. E. Mallet, who says plainly that he is a dealer. This is so far from being an objection that one rather welcomes the appearance of a treatise written from the furniture-business point of view. Mr. Mallet very civilly calls attention to the most important of the other books upon the subject which are now in course of publication, and speaks as manfully as any collector could speak for purity of taste, for reason and moderation in the desires of the collector, for some independence of changing fashion, and for the consequent saving of fine old pieces from destructive alteration. The one hundred and sixty-eight examples are generally interesting. They are at least such pieces as a private citizen might hope to purchase, and embody designs of suggestive value. But the drawings are not very attractive; they are made with a broad-pointed pen in a too forcible style, leaving little chance for the more delicate details to manifest themselves. The author's brief notes which accompany them are to the point.

Four lectures delivered last year, by Prof. J. S. Nicholson, at the University of Cambridge, have been published under the title of 'Rates and Taxes as affecting Agriculture' (London: Swan Sonnenschein). A good survey of the pressure of taxes upon English landlords and farmers is based upon recent reports and memoranda of the Royal Commissions on Local Taxation and on Agricultural Depression. The author draws upon Dowell's 'History of Taxes' and upon Cannan's 'History of Local Rates' to prove that there is neither legal nor historical foundation for the popular idea that land has always been regarded as a peculiarly appropriate object of heavy taxation. On the contrary, only administrative difficulties have prevented land from enjoying special favors until very recently, when, curiously enough, the clamor for the taxation of unearned increment has come simultaneously with the almost total disappearance of true economic rent. Contending that agricultural rent in England is now simply profit on capital sunk in the land, Professor Nicholson argues against the presumption that the tenant is able to shift the tax upon the landlord. In reality, he claims, both parties share a heavy burden, for the rates are practically a fixed charge, while rent is declining and relief is at present arbitrary and inequitable. While the author proposes no definite scheme, he urges that the reform which must soon come, can be wisely accomplished only by complete reorganization of the whole system of local finance.

The term, "Poultry Farming," adopted by "Home Counties" for the volume published by Dutton, is a misnomer, so far as it implies extensive plants devoted exclusively to the breeding and rearing of domestic fowl. Its true title would be, "Avoid Poultry Farming." The author's purpose is to discourage poultry-raising on a large scale. Therein he shows sound common sense. He favors the system of poultry-keeping in vogue before megalomaniac notions had beset every kind of enterprise whereby a dollar might be earned. Thirty years ago, or even later, such a thing as a poultry farm was unknown. The output of eggs and fowl came from thousands of petty sources—from the twelve to fifty hens kept by country folks and allowed a wide range of territory, where, practically, they found their own living. "Home Counties" favors a return to this system, as a philanthropist eager to save his fellow-men from disaster. To those who may be lured to establish a poultry farm, with its equipment of incubators, brooders, wire-fencing, etc., 'Poultry Farming' may be cordially recommended as a deterrent. "Home Counties" has practical knowledge of his subject. He appears to fear the hostility of agricultural journals and dealers in poultry devices and supplies, by reason of his iconoclastic frankness. He certainly deserves grateful thanks of those who may not have learned the elusiveness of the nimble dollar in reproducing itself when subjected to artificial incubation.

The twenty-third annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology (for 1901-1902) contains, besides the usual administrative statement, an accompanying paper of unusual merit. Mrs. Matilda Coxe Stevenson writes of the Zuñi Indians, their Myths, Esoteric Societies, and Ceremonies. Having accompanied her husband in his many visits to the Zuñi region, Mrs. Stevenson has had a rare and extended opportunity for observation and for seizing upon the spirit of the local beliefs and ceremonies. Together with the general Report come Bulletins 28 and 29, of which the latter is a collection of Indian texts (Haida Texts and Myths, recorded by John R. Swanton), similar to those of Professor Boas already mentioned in these columns. Bulletin 28 originated in Mr. Charles P. Bowditch's interest in American archæology and kindred subjects. Feeling that American scholarship along these lines was hampered by the fact that so much relating to American antiquities was accessible only to the user of foreign languages, he supervised and paid for the translation of the twenty-four papers included in the present Bulletin. The collective title is 'Mexican and Central American Antiquities, Calendar Systems, and History,' the most prominent contributor being Édouard Seler. It seems hardly credible that there are many professional "Americanists" to whom German is a serious barrier; at the same time, we are glad to welcome the translation, especially as it carries with it a collection of material of high value from various sources.

The Carnegie Institution has put forth a classified catalogue of 'Writings on American History, 1903,' a bibliography of books and articles on United States history published in that year, "with some memoranda on other portions of America." The compilers are Andrew C. McLaughlin, William A. Slade, and Ernest D. Lewis. The books or articles are often accompanied by explanatory or appreciative notes, and by reference to leading reviews of them. An index mitigates the inevitable drawbacks of any system of classification.

From the Boston Book Co. we have a fifteen-page pamphlet of 'Abbreviations Used in Book Catalogues,' compiled by Mary Medlicott. A third of the space is given to a list of German technical terms of interest to librarians, mainly derived from the Pratt Institute Bulletin. The same firm sends us a corresponding brochure, 'Material for a Bibliography of Dr. Edmond Halley (1656-1752),' by Alexander J. Rudolph of the Newberry Library, Chicago. We should some time ago have acknowledged receipt of a second revised and enlarged edition of Señor Domingo Figarola-Caneda's 'Bibliografía de Rafael M. Merchán' (Havana, 1905). The compiler is the director of the Biblioteca Nacional, and his subject is an expatriated Cuban littérateur and publicist, whose fame is shared by Colombia, his adopted country. Sr. Figarola-Caneda furnishes a biographical introduction. Merchán was, like all Spanish-American writers, capable of verse as well as an acknowledged poet, but he translated Longfellow's "Evangeline" in prose (Bogotá, 1882). His 'Estudios Críticos' (1886) reprinted an obituary notice of Bryant contributed to a journal of the capital in 1878. The range of his interests was very wide, and is followed minutely by his bibliographer. Besides political and literary themes, he wrote on the education of women, and the last title in the pamphlet before us is a chart for guidance in the printing-office of *La Luz* with respect to purity of language, and for the simplification of typographic composition and correction.

In the initial number of volume eleven of the *Deutsche Juristen-Zeitung* (Berlin: Otto Liebmann) one may read a review of progress in the law for the past decade, accompanied by a very interesting plate of portraits of deceased jurists of the period; Mommsen the most famous of the twenty-eight. Dr. Zorn of Bonn treats of International Conferences, apropos of that now in session at Algeciras; but he does not refer to the American delegation.

Among the noteworthy indications of the intellectual awakening of China is the statement of three Bible societies, the British, Scotch, and American, that their circulation of the Scriptures in that country in 1904 was 2,308,109 copies. The significance of this is strengthened by the fact that the output does not represent mere charitable work, but the demand of the Chinese themselves. Of the more than one million copies circulated by the British and Foreign Bible Society, all but 33,273 were sold. Here we may also note the remarkable development of journalism in China. Shanghai, with a population only about two-thirds as great as Boston, has the same number of daily newspapers—nine, four of which are in the Chinese language. Hongkong, just half as large, has ten dailies, including six Chinese. In both places there are a large number of Chinese weeklies. Local dialectic newspapers are being started all over the Empire, and, according to Consul Anderson of Amoy, much of the anti-foreign agitation which has caused so much trouble of late is to be traced to such publications. In addition to these are many Chinese religious papers published by the missionary societies, which have large circulations and are forming an important factor in the regeneration of the educational and social system of the nation. Most of the foreign publications are in English, but there is a French daily and a German weekly at

Shanghai, and a Portuguese weekly at Hongkong.

—The 'Sailors' Narratives of Voyages along the New England Coast' published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and annotated by George Parker Winship, begins with Verrazzano's report to the King of France of his voyage in 1524, and includes the more familiar tales of Gosnold, Pring, Champlain, Waymuth, and John Smith, in chronological order. They are veritable sailor tales of slow voyaging over uncharted seas, anxious approach to unknown shores, and surprising and wonderful adventures of many kinds. These old sailors loved the marvellous, and were quick to believe any extravagant report. So they wrote fascinating tales of the genial climate, the fertile soil, rivers of excelling grandeur and beauty, great park-like groves, and mines of copper and iron, gold and silver. There was an exhilaration in the air of the New World that moved so sober and respectable a man as Pastor Higginson of Salem to write the highly spiced report of "divers thousands of acres of ground as good as need be, and not a tree in the same," and the light-minded Josselyn to tell of moose twelve feet high, with equal spread of antlers, and hens that crowed like cocks. This light-hearted joyousness is most beguiling. It implies happy and prosperous experience, and suggests that Bradford's mournful narrative of the Pilgrim Fathers' voyage and their pathetic first winter need never have been written had the pious Pilgrims been guided by the shrewd sailor wisdom of these men, and sailed from England not on September 6, but months earlier. But there is here also a large portion of sober truth-telling. These old navigators found the Indians a timid and peaceful race for the most part. They made free with their lands, traded craftily, and kidnapped their persons. The naïve story of "poor Christopher Levett" in 1624 bears eloquent witness to the wisdom of decent and Christian regard for them; the later tales of bloody Indian wars are the logical sequel. The editorial work has been skilfully done. The selection of material is judicious, with the single possible exception of the omission of any allusion to the voyages of the Northmen. Capt. John Smith's mention of "morish grasse" on Plum Island (p. 240) is unintelligible. Our own reading, "plaine marish," *i. e.*, marsh ground, is readily understood. Fine paper, large type, maps and facsimiles contribute to the charm of this delightful book.

—Sir George Otto Trevelyan's 'Interludes in Verse and Prose' (London: G. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) is an echo from the past, the remote past of the fifties and sixties. On every page there is some allusion to the political or social interests of Londoners and Anglo-Indians and English University men of the day, and some of these interests proved to be so ephemeral that only a contemporary of the author could now do them justice. The parody of the "Ecclesiazousæ" of Aristophanes, for instance, called "Ladies in Parliament," was written in the period of agitation which followed the rejection of Gladstone's Reform Bill of 1866. Lord Russell had entertained John Bright at dinner, and this was the scandal of the London season to which there are witty allusions in the poem. One is thankful for the explanatory footnotes, and as one pores over the passing mention of men and things that mean little or nothing to the reader of to-day, one realizes anew how much political comedy depends on its freshness. If Sir George Trevelyan needs a scholiast, how much of Aristophanes has become pointless forever? Two-thirds of the book are studies of Anglo-Indian life at a time when the rupee had not depreciated, and the writer could say that the career of an Indian civil servant held out the most certain and splendid prospects to ambition. Sir George's father was himself a model of a successful civil servant. But the son, in spite of his interest in Indian affairs, spent only one year in India, as secretary to his father on leaving college. His experiences followed close on the suppression of the Indian Mutiny, and he has written some thrilling pages describing the heroic resistance of a handful of English in the siege of Arrah, now long forgotten by the general public, for whom Cawnpore and Delhi are the classic allusions when the Mutiny is remembered at all.

—Perhaps the best paper in the collection is one which the author delivered as a lecture in Edinburgh in 1865, "An Ancient Greek War." He had promised to lecture on his travels in Greece, but an alarm of cholera checked him at Brindisi, and he substituted for personal experiences this admirable study, which could have been written only by a thorough Greek scholar. Towards the close he has some eloquent pages of panegyric on American valor in the civil war, just ended. "And to think," he says of Robert Gould Shaw and Charles Russell Lowell, "that the very existence of these men—our equals in birth, circumstances, and education—more fortunate than us in that they possessed a cause for which they had a right to labor and suffer—was successfully concealed from us home-staying youth! That we were almost brought to believe that a nation composed of descendants from the Royalist chivalry of the seventeenth century had been subjugated by a heterogeneous mob of aliens officered by political jobbers!" Sir George Trevelyan writing in the sixties, when all educated Englishmen were not so clear-sighted, found in the citizen armies of Sherman and Grant the closest modern parallel to the Athenian militia that fought at Chæronea. "Leonidas and his countrymen, performing their national toilette in preparation for the death which they knew to be inevitable, find a parallel among those veterans in Meade's army who, when their division was ordered on a desperate service, were observed to be silently writing their names upon slips of paper and pinning them to the breasts of their blouses." A fine tribute to Lowell's patriotic poetry closes this paper. The book is attractively printed and bound, and has an excellent portrait of the biographer of Lord Macaulay, taken in 1881.

—Volume eleven of the current 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) concludes the letter K from Kimpolung. In our English alphabet, K is not toothsome, but here it covers a large part of C, as maps not only of Königsberg but of Coblenz, Cologne, Constantinople, and Copenhagen testify. There are long articles on the Child, from kindergarten to juvenile education, songs, diseases, infanticide; and, in connection with one on infant mortality, a shaded map for the German Empire, the Bohemian border lying most in gloom, along with Stettin. The Church is another voluminous rubric. In treating of Colonies, maps are again employed, to show their extension the globe over, and there is a useful table of memorable dates in German colonization, coming down from 1528. As Kitchener's life is sketched without reflections on the Boer war, so Colombia's annals are summed up without characterizing the nature of her deprivation of Panama. Under the Congo State there is allusion to cruelties and oppression, with notice of Leopold's whitewashing committee. Korea is brought up to date and left "a vassal State." There is an odd immediate juxtaposition of Kuroki and Kuropatkin, the one born in 1844, his defeated antagonist in 1848. Which was the better man? On the principle of distinction in warfare, is Kuroki as civilized as Kuropatkin? We read their lives, and find the Russian to be author of a number of valuable military works; Kuroki's fame has no literary roots whatever. The kinematograph, comets, costumes, hospitals, atolls (in which Alexander Agassiz's researches counter to Darwin's theory are not overlooked), war, and art are other topics; while maps not yet named show the lighthouses of the German coast, and criminal statistics for Germany, France, and Italy. There is, finally, a series of portraits of German classics of the nineteenth century, of whom Kleist and Klopstock fall in this highly interesting section of the Lexikon.

—One of the most attractive biographies recently published in Germany is that of Johanna Schopenhauer, by Laura Frost (Berlin: Schwetsche & Sohn). It covers the period from her birth, in 1770, till her death, in 1838. Especially interesting is the record of her residence in Weimar, from 1806 to 1832. Soon after her arrival, Goethe called on her and introduced himself with jocose formality as the "Geheimrath Goethe." He had just married Christiane Vulpius, and thereby excited the anger of the aristocratic circles in Weimar, who refused to receive his wife or recognize her as "Geheimräthin." Frau Schopenhauer put aside this class prejudice with the facetious remark: "If Goethe gave her his name, we might at least give her a cup of tea." Goethe was grateful for this liberal spirit, and became a frequent and welcome guest at her receptions on Sunday and Thursday, where the presence also of Wieland, Falk, Fernow, Prince Pückler, Augustus and Frederick Schlegel, and other persons of distinction rendered her salon celebrated as the resort of the most eminent representatives of German literature and art at that time. She was remarkably cheerful in temperament and optimistic in her views of life, in striking contrast to her son, the misanthropic and pessimistic philosopher, Arthur Schopenhauer. This moral and intellectual antagonism prevented her from appreciating the real scope and value of his writings. When he took his doctor's degree at Jena in 1813, he gave her with justifiable pride a copy of his dissertation: "Ueber die vierfache Wurzel des Satzes vom zureichenden Grunde." "The fourfold root," she ex-

claimed laughingly; "why, that must be something for apothecaries!" In a deeply injured tone he retorted: "My writings will be read when scarcely a copy of yours can be found in any lumber room." "No doubt," she answered, "the whole edition of your works will always be on hand." Curiously enough, both of these bantering prophecies were in a certain sense fulfilled. For twoscore years his works remained almost wholly unheeded, and scarcely found any sale except as waste paper, while his mother's twenty-six volumes containing chiefly works of fiction and descriptions of travel, although exceedingly popular during her lifetime, are now utterly ignored by the reading public, and actually unknown to the great majority of her countrymen. This is true even of her principal novel, 'Gabriele,' which Goethe speaks of having read with intense interest "in the forests of fir-trees at Marienbad." In 1814 the son demanded of his mother that she should no longer receive an old friend of the family, with whom he had quarrelled. Her refusal to do so led to a final rupture, and they never saw each other again during the remaining twenty-four years of her life. It is strange that a woman whose tact in social life surpassed that of the majority of her sex, should not have used this peculiar quality to prevent or at least to heal such a sad dissension. Her failure in this respect shows how deeply rooted was their mutual aversion.

REHABILITATING AN IDOL.

James Gillespie Blaine. By Edward Stanwood. (American Statesmen; Second Series). Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

"It would be uncandid on the part of the present writer were he to pretend that he possesses the impartiality and the passionless judgment that qualify him to make the final estimate of this man and of his career." These words of Mr. Stanwood, in his closing chapter, are fully borne out by the character of the book itself. We have here what must be characterized as the tribute of an affectionate friend, holding a brief for his subject in an appeal for a rehearing, before the rising generation, of certain cases in which an adverse verdict was rendered by the generation now passing from the stage. This marks at the outset a difference perhaps inevitable between the biographies of the former series and those of the men who have risen to prominence in American politics since the civil war. In the former case sufficient time has elapsed to allow of estimates fairly impartial and quite generally acceptable. Such is not the case with the men whose work has been begun and finished within a half-century or less, and especially is this true of James G. Blaine.

As Mr. Stanwood devotes his attention so largely to the effort to break the force of the well-known charges affecting Mr. Blaine's integrity of character, the critic is, of course, forced to consider whether the effort is successful. We may say at once that nothing new is brought forward to warrant any other fundamental interpretation of the admitted facts than that which was reluctantly accepted by many thousands of Blaine's own party friends when the facts were first made public. On the part of those who opposed his elevation to the Presidency after these disclosures were made, Mr. Stanwood imagines a personal animosity which did not exist. The persistent efforts to raise him to that office made it necessary that those who opposed should press their objections with all the vigor and steadfastness at their command, or fail to carry the majority of the people with them. Such failure, in their conscientious opinion, would have had an extremely bad influence on American politics. Such men as Curtis, Lowell, and Schurz were not moved by any personal rancor against Mr. Blaine, but they were deeply moved by the possibility that well-known blemishes in his conduct in high public station might be definitely stamped, by approval at the polls, as no bar to the Presidency of the United States. Mr. Stanwood devotes many pages to the Mulligan letters, but is obliged to say at the end: "No matter which of these views be taken, there will be none to dispute the fact that both the immediate and the remote consequences of his connection with the Little Rock enterprise were terribly out of proportion to any benefit he might have derived from it, had it been successful." But the men who ever afterward successfully held the revelations of these letters up as a bar against Mr. Blaine's progress to the Presidency, were not at all concerned with the financial largeness or littleness of the transactions involved. The lack of a fine sense of honor displayed both directly and by natural implication, all through the letters was what made the trouble. How much of the sensational story of Blaine's recovery of the letters from Mulligan's possession is true is wholly irrelevant, but no one can read them and not understand his intense desire to prevent their publication—a desire so intense as to defeat its own purpose by arousing such suspicion that he was obliged to publish them himself as the less of two evils.

In his suggestion to Fisher to remind Mr. Caldwell of a ruling from the Speaker's chair in favor of the Little Rock interests (the motive of the reminder being to secure a favor from Caldwell to Blaine), Mr. Stanwood finds it difficult to see anything reprehensible unless one is already prejudiced against Mr. Blaine. "The worst that can justly be said of his reference to the proceedings in Congress is well expressed by his own word, *indelicate*." But, granting the best that can be said, will it ever be wise to honor with the Presidency a man whose business correspondence while in high official position has such a fatal tendency to indelicacy? Mr. Stanwood appears to very serious disadvantage in his defence of the letter which Blaine wrote to Mr. Fisher, inclosing a draft of a letter which Fisher was to copy and mail to him, clearing him of any questionable action whatever in the whole Little Rock matter. "His sending a draft letter, and his request that the communication enclosing it should be destroyed, is not inconsistent with absolute innocence of wrong-doing, and can therefore not be used even as cumulative proof that he was guilty of wrong-doing." But the very use to which the letter itself was to be put was dishonest, for its desired effect depended absolutely on producing the utterly false impression that it was the purely voluntary act of Fisher. Mr. Stanwood is obliged to admit that this "voluntary" certificate of innocence, dictated to Mr. Fisher by the alleged culprit to be used in his own defence, omitted mention of circumstances which he wished to keep concealed from his investigators, and that such a statement as Fisher would have made if simply asked for his version of the affair would have been harmful. We do not believe that the time will ever come when a detailed defence of the transactions covered by the Mulligan letters will clear Mr. Blaine's reputation from serious reproach. The record was written with his own hand, and, so far as that part of his life is concerned, the verdict that he himself indirectly rendered by his passionate desire to keep the details of the matter from public scrutiny, will be the verdict of unbiassed posterity, so far as posterity takes the trouble to look at the evidence.

Many eminent men, however, have been subject to similar reproach, but have none the less rendered such transcendent services to their country and their fellow-citizens as to dwarf their temporary lapses practically out of existence by comparison. Is this true of Mr. Blaine? Was he, after all, one of the nation's really great statesmen, so that, after his biography shall have been written, as Senator Hoar suggests, "by a historian with a full and clear sense of his faults and infirmities, concealing nothing and extenuating nothing," we shall still feel that we have a great benefactor of our country, to whose career we may direct the attention of our boys with thankfulness and pride? Our mind turns here to the biography of Lincoln, by the general editor of the same series. What reader of those two notable volumes has not been forcibly struck with the way in which an overwhelmingly great character rises gradually up out of a mass of detail so adverse to our ordinary idea of the natural concomitants of greatness that we are tempted to wonder at times whether we are not reading the words of an intentional traducer? Will the final estimate of Blaine, which Mr. Stanwood has neither written nor seriously attempted to write, present even an approximate resemblance to this?

The question makes it necessary to consider briefly what he actually achieved, and what was the real source of his powerful hold upon the affections of so many men. His biographer admits that, of all the great questions at issue between the parties during his public life, "his name is inseparably connected with not one." But we must look beyond the domain of legislation, we are told. "Blaine's influence during his lifetime, and that which remains, was of a broader and more far-reaching character than can be measured by a consideration of the public acts in which he bore a part. It was an influence upon the general tendency of the political thought of his countrymen." This is vague, and, so far as Mr. Stanwood goes in the way of definite application, we can tie it down to little else than Blaine's early acceptance of some of the ideas underlying our present experiments with Imperialism. But sporadic Imperialists were in evidence long before the advent of Mr. Blaine, nor does it appear that the public mind was prepared for the outbreak of 1898 and its consequences by anything in his life or words. It is not yet determined that the launching of our ship of state on that particular sea will, in the unbiassed judgment

of the future, constitute any valid claim to greatness; but if it should, there are much less worthy characters than Mr. Blaine whose memories will be entitled to a larger share. Of the various lines of political thought rife in his time, that which so far has been the most fruitful was the desire for administrative reform in the conduct of our Government, which found its expression chiefly through the mouths of eminent Republicans who afterwards became his most effective opponents. What was his attitude toward that thought? We get it from his own lips, when he writes to President Garfield of "the Reformers by profession, noisy but not numerous, pharisaical but not practical, ambitious but not wise, pretentious but not powerful. They can be easily dealt with, and can be hitched to your Administration with ease." No biographer will ever be able to show for the writer of these words a genetic relation to the great reform movement which is the dominant feature in the political thought of to-day. On the tariff question, notwithstanding his dramatic interference in behalf of the addition of a reciprocity clause to the McKinley bill, we find no evidence of any such accession of fundamental enlightenment as came, though late, to McKinley himself. That the best thought of the day, in both parties, is surging rapidly forward to a successful grapple with the abuses of tariff taxation, is scarcely doubted even by the well-informed among the "stand-patters" themselves. In this movement no great positive influence will ever be traced to the career of Mr. Blaine. It is no prejudice, but the simple want of all evidence of any such positive achievement or influence as is necessary to substantiate a claim to real greatness, that must lead open-minded students of American history to reject the claim.

We have referred to his estimate of himself in the Little Rock transaction, as implied in his desire to suppress the evidence. Mr. Stanwood incidentally supplies us with another implied self-estimate. Of Butler's candidacy in 1884 Mr. Stanwood says, "His political career in Massachusetts showed that he could attract voters of a certain class who were to be found in both parties, and were a credit to neither." Of this vote Blaine wrote to Elkins, "If Butler runs, he will get 250,000 votes, more or less—less, probably. If he does not run, who will get a majority of those votes? I think I would, and hence would gain by his staying out." There is more sagacity here than in his imagining, at an earlier date, that he could command the support of the reformers.

His brilliant conversational power and engaging manner explain readily enough his ability to secure a firm hold upon most of his party associates with whom he came into personal contact, as well as upon many of his political opponents. His biographer gropes rather unsuccessfully for any adequate explanation of his hold upon the thousands of his almost frantically enthusiastic supporters with whom he never did come into personal contact. Perhaps it is well to remember that large classes of people occasionally do things, or display emotions, for which there really is no adequate explanation. The pages of history do not show that genuine greatness of statesmanship is prone to be the generator of wild enthusiasm. The student of Mr. Blaine's "popularity" will go astray if he does not consider carefully its abrupt limitations as well as its intensity. The significant fact was, that where men were most given to thinking outside the trammels of party dictation, there this wonderful popularity met with the most severe checks. In general, such popularity as admittedly great men have attained has run on lines almost opposite to this. Doubtless this seems a mystery to the thorough-going Blaine devotee, and with him we are content to leave it.

To many students of his career, Mr. Blaine appears at his best in his 'Twenty Years of Congress.' He can see the better traits in Jefferson's career far more clearly than many in whom blind partisanship is far less excusable, and his vigorous indictment of his own party for its course in the impeachment proceedings against President Johnson does him credit, especially when we remember that at the time he allowed the storm of party passion to sweep him off his feet along with the rest, and voted for the impeachment resolutions in the House. Mr. Stanwood's enthusiasm carries him beyond bounds, however, when he says that "No other book covering any period of American political history is so full and comprehensive, or displays such intimate knowledge of men and events." While we may admit Blaine's advantage in personal acquaintance with the men of whom he writes, to compare his volumes in point of fulness and comprehensiveness with the work of James Ford Rhodes, for instance, would be absurd.

Mr. Stanwood's attitude towards the leaders of the Independent movement against Blaine's candidacy for the Presidency is an interesting study. He is too intelligent an observer to take the more common position of the Blaine devotee that they were simply a coterie of wicked slanderers. He admits their high degree of intelligence and their thorough honesty of purpose. Blaine's own contempt for them he distinctly does not approve. He agrees with Senator Hoar, however, that the Independent is more severe upon those whom he supposes guilty of any serious delinquency than are the critics in the opposite party, and this seems to puzzle him as it did the Senator. If this be true, why should any one object? It is good Rooseveltian theory that a fiery vigor against all that is wrong in a political party is the best service which can be rendered to that party. The critics of the opposition party may be seeking mere partisan advantage, and are heavily handicapped by the natural suspicion of insincerity; the Independent, or the critic within the party, is much more apt to be moved by conscientious motives, and is therefore more earnest and more effective. Again, Mr. Stanwood lingers over the fact that most of the Independent leaders were free traders, and never again became regular adherents of the Republican party. He cannot accuse them of opposing Blaine because they were free traders, and yet—they were free traders. Why does he not open the window to which he stands so near and learn the truth that for many years now anything whatever that arouses independent political thought, has been working to the detriment of the high-tariff theory—that only the shackles of partisanship can keep its nominal defenders from deserting in such numbers as to make its capitulation a necessity?

In conclusion, we are forced to say that this book can hardly fail to harm the general series to which it belongs. From Mr. Stanwood's point of view, no one could have made a better presentation of his subject than he has made, but it is a point of view somewhat new to the "American Statesmen" series. It was perfectly allowable that this point of view should be presented, but an entirely independent presentation would have been preferable. If the series in question really needed a life of Blaine, it would have been better to select a biographer both presumably and really capable of entire personal detachment. The first group, closing with the civil war, made a very fair approximation to the acceptable "final estimate." It will certainly suffer if it is to be followed under the same general title by volumes partaking so largely either of ardent eulogy or of labored defence, and the more so when the two are united.

HISTORY OF ENGLISH PHILANTHROPY.

A History of English Philanthropy from the Dissolution of the Monasteries to the Taking of the First Census. By B. Kirkman Gray. London: P. S. King & Son. 1905.

Mr. Kirkman Gray has got hold of a fruitful idea, but he has not fully mastered it, and therefore has been unable to give it adequate expression. The original idea, which lends value to a treatise filled with information, is that English philanthropy has a distinct history of its own, and that the progress and development of philanthropic effort have been in England, as elsewhere, demonstrably connected with the development of thought. Our author has attempted to trace the connection in England between the humanity whereof the main object is to relieve or avert physical pain, and variations in public opinion. The existence of this connection is certain. The pity for suffering is in one sense, indeed, the same in all ages, though it is far more intense during some periods of human history than during others. But the form which this compassion takes and the methods by which it attempts to achieve its ends, vary infinitely, and this variation is always connected with the general beliefs, religious, moral, and social, prevalent in a given country at a given era. That this is so will in a general way be admitted by any one who has bestowed the least attention upon the connection between thought and action. But whoever will read with care Mr. Gray's treatise, will see at once that a conclusion which it is easy to arrive at on à-priori grounds, is established with certainty by an examination into the annals of English charity. At one time gifts to the poor, whether made during a man's lifetime or under his will after his death, had a two-fold object. They were meant partly to relieve the miseries of poverty, but in part also to lighten the purgatorial sufferings of the donor. Before the beginning of the seventeenth century, Englishmen had

ceased to believe in purgatory, and the sole object of gifts to the poor was the alleviation of earthly want.

Contrast, again, under the guidance of our author, the philanthropy which belonged to the age of Elizabeth and of the Stuarts, with the philanthropy which characterized the close of the seventeenth and the greater part of the eighteenth century. Benevolence during the earlier era was governed by the idea—very imperfectly carried out—that it was the function of the State to relieve or ward off distress. It is only recently that inquirers have realized that, for good or evil, the Privy Council, as the representative of the Crown, attempted under James I. and, till the outbreak of the Civil War, under his son to enforce the carrying out of the poor-law for the benefit, or at any rate the supposed benefit, of the poor. This effort, indeed, may be looked upon from very different points of view. It meets, as we gather from his tone, with the approval of Mr. Gray. It appears to a judicious inquirer such as Mr. T. Mackay, who still adheres to the faith of Bentham and of the reformers of 1834, to have been noxious, and in fact to have gone far towards the promotion of practices which by 1830 threatened the pauperization of the English laboring classes. Whichever be the right view, one thing is certain: the idea of State duty which prevailed during the sixteenth and until about the middle of the seventeenth century, succumbed before the very different beliefs which gained increasing force throughout the course of the eighteenth century.

Men did not grow less benevolent. The contemporaries of Johnson were a good deal more humane than the contemporaries of Elizabeth or of Charles I. No one can imagine that Johnson, enemy as he was of Dissenters, would have welcomed a law which sanctioned the cropping of a Nonconformist's ears. But whilst humanity had increased, the belief in State intervention had decreased. Charity had become rather a private than a Governmental concern, and Mr. Gray well calls attention to a circumstance which was at once the consequence, and also in part the cause, of this change of opinion. No one supposed that isolated individuals could give that aid to the poor or the sick which the State, in the case of the poor at any rate, attempted to provide in the form of poor-relief. But it was found that the joint-stock principle, which did such good work in the extension of trade, might also be applicable to philanthropic objects. The ideas of the counting-house (many of them, be it said, very sound ideas) were applied to the exercise of charity. There is no part of the 'History of English Philanthropy' so well worth reading as the chapters devoted to establishing, by an infinity of examples, the fact that societies for the founding of hospitals, for the relief of debtors, for the care of foundlings, for the erection of reformatories, penitentiaries, and an endless number of institutions supported by public subscriptions, gave effect to the constantly increasing humanity of the eighteenth century.

Let us look now at another example, provided by our author, of the relation between opinion and public benevolence. In a chapter entitled "Revolution: Thrift and Soup," he insists upon the peculiar characteristics of that school of philanthropists of whom one of the best known is Hannah More. Their distinguishing trait is that, while sharing the ardent humanity which was the glory of the eighteenth century, they participated to the full in the reaction which, on moral no less than on political grounds, condemned the French Revolution and its principles. They were at once fervent philanthropists and panic-stricken Tories. Hence a singular mixture of charity and fear. The men and women who devoted their lives to the service of the poor, were in constant dread of the alleged rights of the people. Their benevolence was undoubted, their teaching was often full of good sense, but their philanthropy savored of didacticism. Soup kitchens were connected with the distribution of tracts, and occasionally attendance at church was made the condition on which depended gifts of bread. In the case of individuals, and certainly of Hannah More, one may be certain that an enthusiastic desire to benefit the bodies no less than the souls of laboring men was the real source of devotion to their interests. But there is no need to deny that the religious public of 1790 or of 1800 considered both charity and religious teaching to be safeguards against revolutionary principles; the study of the Bible was the best antidote to the reading of Tom Paine's 'Age of Reason.' With the high virtues and the comparativery slight defects of these Tory philanthropists we need not here concern ourselves. All that must be noted is that the peculiarities marking a particular form of benevolence are clearly connected with the beliefs of a particular era. We may even go a step further than does Mr. Gray. We may assert a conclusion to which his whole treatise leads, but which he does not emphasize, that the exercise of philanthropy is merely one part, though a very important part, of social action, and, like legislation, with which it is intimately connected, is in reality always the result of dominant public opinion.

Here we see the one defect in Mr. Gray's treatment of a fruitful conception. He has not perceived its whole bearing; still less has he been able to give full expression to the idea of which his whole treatise is in reality the illustration. He is too much immersed in details. For the information he supplies about almshouses, hospitals, and the like, or about early attempts to realize in practice ideals which savor of Socialism, all readers may feel grateful. But the facts he unearths derive their real value from being illustrations of certain principles, or at any rate of certain states of opinion. Yet Mr. Gray never seems able fully to grasp the principles or conditions of belief which his facts illustrate. At all events, he shows very little power of bringing ideas into connection with history. A writer who purports to trace the course of philanthropy, cannot attain his end by merely providing us with a lot of useful information about the growth of different kinds of benevolent institutions. Still, though Mr. Gray has not in our judgment fully accomplished the object which he wished to attain, and has not marked with anything like sufficient clearness the essential and vital differences between the philanthropic ideas prevalent at different eras, his book may easily in this respect be improved in the later editions through which it is certain to pass. We have pleasure, then, in acknowledging that a work which suffers somewhat from not giving due prominence to one leading thought that ought to pervade every page of it, is yet full of facts and ideas which are preeminently suggestive. It is, for example, a great thing that the public should be made to realize that the attempt of the first two Stuarts to establish something very like political despotism, was closely connected with an administrative system meant to benefit the poor. It is not amiss that speculative admiration for Puritanism by men who would have loathed the tyranny of the saints, should be corrected by the knowledge that Puritanism, for a time, at any rate, checked rather than promoted philanthropy. It is a good thing for us all to learn that the prosaic labors of the eighteenth century laid the foundation for the mass of philanthropic associations which have, with all their defects, done much to mitigate the sufferings of the sick and the needy and have done still more to humanize the sentiments of the healthy and the rich Few things are more instructive than the way in which we can trace, through English history in the past, variations in the estimate of the relative merit of State intervention on the one hand, and of individual effort on the other. At a time when it appears pretty certain that new experiments in the direction of Socialism will be pressed or forced upon the English Parliament and the English people, it is of benefit to learn from the undoubted facts of history put forward by a writer who excels rather in the accumulation of information than in the enunciation of theories, that neither the ideas of Socialism nor the problems which they are intended to meet are new, and that in England these probfems have been partially met by exerting the powers of the State, but still more frequently by the combined efforts of individuals. A history of English philanthropy in the past affords some, though perhaps rather dubious, guidance to a generaton of Englishmen who seek to determine what in the immediate future shall be the path of philanthropic effort.

The Abolitionists: Together with Personal Memories of the Struggle for Human Rights, 1830-64. By John F. Hume. Putnams. 1905.

The author of this weighty and dispassionate little essay might have adopted for its epigraph the verse of the protagonist in the great conflict—

> "I am an Abolitionist!
> I glory in the name."

His text is a passage from Theodore Roosevelt's biography of Benton in the American Statesmen series, twenty years ago, condemnatory alike of the Abolitionists proper—the purely moral agitators—and of the Liberty party, the political seceders from the former body. Mr. Roosevelt approves of nothing back of the Republican party. The Abolitionists "have been credited with deeds done by other men whom, in reality, they hampered and opposed rather than aided." After 1840, "much of what they did was positively harmful to the cause for which they were fighting." "The Liberty party, in running Birney, simply committed a political crime, evil in almost all its consequences. They in no sense paved the way for the Republican party, or helped

forward the anti-slavery cause, or hurt the existing organizations. . . . Lincoln in 1860 occupied more nearly the ground held by Clay than that held by Birney. . . . The Liberty party was not in any sense the precursor of the Republican party, which was based as much on expediency as on abstract right, and was therefore able to accomplish good instead of harm."

Mr. Hume, an Ohioan by origin, of legal training, the political editor of the *Missouri Democrat* on the eve of and during the civil war, has felt Mr. Roosevelt's utter want of sympathy with the Abolitionists, and has been moved to recall and vindicate their noble and disinterested and self-sacrificing labors. He further insists upon a genetic relation between the Liberty party and the Republican party. His criticism is agreeably interspersed with personal reminiscences, and his work is a salutary recall of thoughtful minds to a first-hand study of the actors in the mighty moral drama of 1830-1865. He uses the term Abolitionists too loosely, indeed—almost as loosely as the lords of the lash themselves, who knew no distinction between the anti-slavery sentiment of Garrison, Birney, and Lincoln—anathema all. And in his main thesis he is far from exhausting the subject of the evolution of political anti-slavery organization. He comes nearer to sharp definition in chapter xix., "The End of Abolitionism" (p. 150):

"The original and distinctive Abolition movement that was directed against slavery in all parts of the land without regard to State or Territorial lines, and because it was assumed to be wrong in principle and practice, may be said, so far as the country at large was concerned, to have culminated at the advent of the Republican party. To a considerable extent it disappeared, but its disappearance was that of one stream flowing into or united with another. The union of the two currents extended, but did not intensify, the Anti-Slavery sentiment of the country. It diluted it and really weakened it. It brought about a crisis of great peril to the cause of Anti-Slaveryism—in some respects the most critical through which it was called upon to pass. Many of those attaching themselves to the Republican party . . . were not in sympathy with the Abolitionists. They were utterly opposed to immediate emancipation; or, for that matter, to emancipation of any kind. They wanted slavery to remain where it was, and were perfectly willing that it should be undisturbed. . . . One of these men was Abraham Lincoln, whom I heard declare in his debate with Douglas at Alton, Illinois: 'I was with the Old-Line Whigs from the origin to the end of their party.' The Whigs were never an Anti-Slavery party. . . . These men largely dominated the new party. They generally dictated its platforms, which, compared with earlier Abolition utterances, were extremely timid, and they had much to do with making party nominations."

This is perfectly just, as any one may perceive who reverts to the party's attitude towards compromise and the Peace Congress in January, 1861. But the Liberty party is chargeable with a corresponding defection from and limitation of the aims of the Abolitionists proper. In 1847 Wendell Phillips wrote to an English correspondent:

"Our old enemy, Liberty Party, is fulfilling, oh, how exactly! our prophecies in 1840. . . . We said she would be obliged to adopt more than one principle (hatred to slavery) before she would increase. Lo! Goodell and all New York have confessed it, and joined the Democrats on Free Trade, the Land Reformers on Land Limitation, etc., etc.—19 points in all. . . . It was prophesied that the party would be obliged to desert its main principle, separate organization, in any real anti-slavery struggle. It did so in the only two it has met—in New York, on the Constitution [of 1846]; in New Hampshire, on J. P. Hale's election. It was prophesied that when pressed it would be forced to gain strength by selecting for candidates men not of their party. Leavitt, desirous to equal Goodell, is about to select Hale as their Presidential candidate—a man never of their party. It was prophesied that so fast as men became politicians, they would cease to be frank-spoken, active reformers; and so it has proved. Liberty party, *as such*, is dying, and merging under other names in other movements."

In its inception the Liberty party, though exchanging a concrete for an abstract denomination, professed no other aim than its members had pursued as Immediate Abolitionists—an aggressive policy of emancipation, but through political agencies. The Free Soil party was already shrunken and on the defensive, as its name showed: its chief concern was to stop the extension of slavery. The Republican party chose a neutral name, and was ready to go to the lowest depths of concession in order to avert civil war. It was the residuum of successive sheddings of the pure faith expounded in the *Liberator*.

We can dilate no further on this topic, and as to others we must refer our readers to the book itself, which deserves the widest circulation and calm pondering. We conclude with a few unconnected pregnant extracts:

"The slave-owners were numerically a lean minority even in the South, but their mastery over their fellow-citizens was absolute. Nor was there any mystery about it. As the owners of four million slaves, on an average worth not far from five hundred dollars each, they formed the greatest industrial combination—what at this time we should call a Trust—ever known to this or any other country" (p. 32).

"And what has the political party which, in view of its manifold professions, was supposed to have the interests of the negro in its especial keeping, done about it [disfranchisement since the war]? Nothing whatever. It has looked on with the coolest indifference" (p. 81).

"It used to be our boast that Freedom followed our flag. Now slavery [in the Philippines] follows it" (p. 84).

"On all questions affecting human liberty, no one can fail to observe that the attitude of the two great political parties of to-day is practically that of the two principal parties at the time the Abolitionists began their operations. One of them may pass perfunctory resolutions against the Philippine crime, but dares to say nothing about the treatment visited upon the negro. The other may say a few compassionate, but meaningless, words for the negro, but cannot denounce the oppression of the Filipinos. Both are fatally handicapped by their connections and committals. Both are, in fact, pro-slavery, although the one in power, because of its responsibility for existing conditions, is the more criminal of the two" (p. 86).

"If a stranger who knew nothing of the speakers [Lincoln and Douglas at Alton in 1858] and their party associations had heard the two men on that occasion, he would have concluded that one was strongly in favor of slavery and the other was not opposed to it" (p. 96).

"Had the Rebels been shrewd enough, within the hundred days [following the Emancipation Proclamation], to take the President at his word, he would have stood pledged to maintain their institution; and his proclamation, instead of being a charter of freedom, would have been a license for slaveholding" (p. 138).

"Notwithstanding various unfriendly references of an academic sort to that institution, he [Lincoln] was not at the time the proclamation appeared, and never had been, an Abolitionist" (p. 139).

"The conclusion is inevitable that his [Lincoln's] fame as a statesman will ultimately depend less upon his treatment of the slavery issue than upon any other part of his public administration" (p. 147).

The two authoritative chapters on Missouri, written from inside knowledge, are of great importance to the historian, and are especially not to be neglected by any future biographer of Lincoln. We stay our pen with the remark that such a defence as this of the Abolitionists curiously gives no certain evidence of the author's ever having read the history *par excellence* of that body.

English Domestic Architecture of the XVIIth and XVIIIth Centuries: A Selection of Examples of Smaller Buildings, Measured, Drawn, and Photographed, with an Introduction and Notes, by Horace Field and Michael Bunney. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905. Quarto, pp. xiv., 76; many text illustrations and 118 plates.

The authors of this book express, at the outset, their wish to deal with the smaller dwellings of the epoch from the middle of the seventeenth century to the middle of the eighteenth century, or thereabout. They point out how the "English Renaissance," as they call it, has been dealt with of late rather fully, and mention their own dealings with the "less important buildings of this time" as having been undertaken especially to complete the needed investigation. They say that they hope to interest those who know the work of the period, as well as "many others who have never studied it and are therefore ignorant of [its] simple and dignified character." Those are safe words to use, but they are also just and sufficient words. It is a specialty of English architecture that it compares with that of the Continent as the small and unpretending compares with the stately. It has the faults of a cheap and simple fashion of building, but it has its virtues, too, and virtues which appeal very strongly to the modern and to the American taste as regards external architecture. It is truly "simple and dignified" in spite of its small scale and inexpensive treatment. The English cathedral is not high in the ridge, broad in the nave, and yet of overwhelming altitude within in proportion to the width of the nave. It is not mysterious nor bewildering nor overwhelming: and in like manner the English mansion house does not rival a royal palace in its method of design, as do so many châteaus of the sixteenth, and so many of the nineteenth, century. So with the smaller houses as they are discussed in this book: one of the more important of them is the newer wing of Castleton Hall, near Rochdale, Lancashire, with five windows in each story, two full stories, and a row of dormers in the roof. Of this it is said that the material was "little sympathetic to the refined mouldings and accurate masonry which Renaissance architecture required. . . . The local sandstone has been used for the walling, and the dressings made out of millstone grit, as has always been the case." The large scale of the building is commented on; and by this is meant that the win-

dows of the ground story are 11 feet high and 5 feet wide in the clear, and the whole height of the two-storied wall 29 feet above the base course—not a very palatial scale, after all!

We quarrel with our authors very often for their neglect to tell us about the material; but no one who knows the moderate-sized English house, new or old, will believe that these big modillions of Castleton Hall and the cornice they carry are of any material other than wood. If they are of wood, though, should not the authors of the excellent introduction, with its sagacious remarks about sincerity in design, have mentioned the fact to regret it? For assuredly this is a stone mason's idea; these cornices are based upon stone building, they are copied from the cut-stone architecture of the Continent. So that here in this very example the merit and the less acceptable character of English work are at once fairly set forth; indeed, English cheapness of structure and simplicity of aim have never been found quite apart from forgeries of the sort here suggested, with carpenter work and plaster work doing duty for cut stone.

The building named above is given us only in an elevation with some details (Pl. xxi.). There are, however, many photographic plates, some showing each one large building, three or four having two or even three buildings apiece in little separate pictures. The last plate of all arrays four doorways of interesting character, chosen in four little old towns whose very names are like a journey in the Midlands and thence to the South coast—Warminster, Painswick, Stanford, Dingley, and Chichester.

One marked feature is the presence, among the photographs, of views in the streets of towns. These are pretty and make one long to go and live in them or opposite to them. "A house near the church, Painswick, Glos." is the subject of Plate x. "Samuel Salter's house, Trowbridge, Wilts," occupies Plate xv., and has in Plate xvi. a line drawing, an elevation of its front. Plate xxiv. represents "The Ship, a commercial hotel at Mere, Wilts"; and here both sides of the street are seen as it goes curving away, affording by its layout a good opportunity for the camera. All these and the five-score buildings, more or less, which come into the scope of the book, are treated with the briefest possible verbal description. The short notices are devoted almost wholly to comments upon the material; and if any word about the design is ventured, it is a word and little more. There is, however, an excellent Introduction of eight pages, a chapter of nineteen pages dealing with "The Renaissance Evolution in England," and a preliminary essay on the illustrations, preceding the separate notes devoted to them. The matter of this text is perfectly well thought out and expressed. The book is a valuable one from every point of view.

India and the Apostle Thomas: An Inquiry. With a Critical Analysis of the 'Acta Thomæ.' By A. E. Medlycott, Bishop of Tricomia. London: David Nutt. 1905.

Conducted in a scholarly spirit, temperate in tone, and with full references to authorities, Bishop Medlycott's fresh investigation of the vexed question regarding St. Thomas's work in India will be welcomed by all Church historians. It is impossible to give detailed arguments here, but a brief statement of the various theses maintained in this book will be of interest. St. Thomas made two distinct expeditions to India. The first was to the Indo-Parthian frontier. After being summoned back to the place where the Virgin Mary was about to die, he undertook another mission to south-western India, whence he went to the Coromandel coast. There, near Madras, he founded a church which survived for several centuries, until the persecuted disciples fled to the western settlement. The Saint's remains were transferred to Edessa between the years 202-241. Calamina, where the Saint died, is a foreign form of Kâlâh [Khalam, Colon], *elmina* (port), 'Qualah-the-harbor.' After the seventh century this name took the place in Occidental recitals of the real name of the little town now called San Thomé, but originally Mylapore (Ptolemy's Maliarpha). Calamina has nothing to do with south Persian Karmân, as maintained by W. R. Philipps. St. Thomas's sojourn in Southern India is inferentially proved by testimony of the fourth and sixth centuries. St. Pantænus (the rival "first apostle to India") was never in India! The Thomas who was a disciple of Menes was not in India at all, as Theodoret asserts, but in Syria (Judæa) as affirmed by still older tradition. We believe the bishop to be right in this.

Historians of India will wonder, however, at some of these positions. Mr. Vincent Smith, whose 'Early History of India' was published last year, holds that while St. Thomas's mission to Parthia is credible, the connection with South India is a late Nestorian invention, without older authority than that of Marco Polo (thirteenth century). Bishop Medlycott now shows that Theophilus (fourth century) probably visited India and found a Hindu colony of Christians. Again, in the sixth century, the Theodore cited by the Bishop of Tours saw a Christian church, a monastery, and a church festival under conditions reconcilable only with the climate of South India. Bishop Medlycott decidedly scores when he says that Calamina could not have been Karmân, or the local Nestorians would have had the legend of St. Thomas's martyrdom. His own etymology, though, seems too fanciful to be true.

St. Thomas is a picturesque figure. Not content with India, he converted Ethiopia and several other parts of the earth. The best description of his mission is given in the 'Acta Thomæ.' He was not at all inclined to accept the service which Christ bade him undertake. "Whithersoever thou wilt, O Lord," he said, "send me; only to India *I will not go*"! Finally, however, he went, pretending to be an architect, since Gondophares, King of Parthia, had sent for some one to build him a palace, and this seemed to be a good opening. The Saint spent all the money received for building the palace on the poor; then, when the day of reckoning came and the King asked where his palace was, he replied, "I have built you a palace—in heaven." Bishop Medlycott supposes that after this the Saint went to Socotra, passed from there to the mainland, and so eventually reached the eastern coast. Tradition certainly has it that the savages of Socotra centuries later claimed to be descendants of the Saint's first disciples, and who can disprove the tradition? As for the rest, it is not at all improbable that the legend of the Southern mission is much older than the thirteenth century. If the 'Acta' revert to the second century, some mission to India has that respectable antiquity: but the 'Acta' are not in their original form, and details of description found therein may not be of so great value as Bishop Medlycott opines. If, however, the Saint himself—who bears to India somewhat the relation that St. Patrick bears to Ireland, the little matter of snakes excepted—takes any interest in the matter, he will have the Bishop of Tricomia to thank for the ablest presentation yet made in favor of the famous mission to Southern India.

The Bishop's book gives an excellent résumé of the whole discussion and contains a store of documents not easily accessible. In his analysis of the 'Acta' and criticism of (Ptolemy's Maliarpha in) McCrindle's 'Ancient India,' the author's philological skill is worthily employed. A map showing the various routes followed by the apostle would have been of service to the general reader, who would probably be interested also in a list of the radically different languages—Semitic, Aryan, Dravidian, Ethiopic—and dialects which the Saint must have employed on his various tours.

Round About My Peking Garden. By Mrs. Archibald Little. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1905.

Archibald Little, whose recent work on China, economic and physiographic, was recently reviewed in this journal, and his wife deserve the hearty thanks of all who would understand the Chinese as human beings like ourselves. The Chinaman of seventeenth-century French fancy, the ogre of the British opium-seller, the creature imagined by sand-lots orators, and the bogy dreamed of by land-hungry Emperors is a phantasy of one sort. The actual product in humanity of ages of peculiar physical and mental environment is a reality worthy of study. It is to the credit of Mr. Little that, after forty-five years of honorable activity in China, he has been able to picture a land and people with insight, sympathy and justice, while for twenty years his wife has been a helpmeet for him. Educated by her father, and rich in experiences of every sort in China, she has labored, possibly more than any other one woman, at the task of bringing into accord of mutual helpfulness the womanhood of China and of Christendom, and her works praise her in the gates. Behind this book about flowers, architecture, and travel, there is a notable personality. At the outset, one can see that the volume has not been put together, as is so often sadly the case, in some book-manufacturer's office, and illustrated with such material as the clerks and salesmen of the house might pick out from a miscellaneous collection of photographs bought in shops. More than four-score illustrations, here rendered with accuracy and spirit, show the author's own taste and skill in selection, she choosing the subjects outdoors and indoors, and handling her own apparatus. Hence the mass of delightful and edifying illustration,

which powerfully reinforces the text, giving even a *blasé* reader fresh impressions, as of a new China, discoverable only by sympathetic eyes, while yet as realistic as sun-pictures make it. Even when stock subjects are touched by her pen or camera, the effect is that of a discovery.

Instead of a preface, Mrs. Little gives us an introduction entitled "Peking Revisited: An Anniversary Study of August, 1900." Vividly photographing, in word and picture, that awful carnival of loot and devastation, as well as the belated supremacy of discipline, Mrs. Little handsomely appraises, discerns, and lauds the efforts of civilized officers to restrain the outbursts of elemental passions. She is optimistic, though not as the fool, about the promised good to come, at least in the twenty-first century. She saw the Court come back, and her opinion is fixed about the Empress Dowager, as a woman who has an iron will, with abundant resources of mental strength. Very pleasantly does she chat about Pekinese dogs of rare breed, and tell of goldfishes with telescopic eyes and triple, lace-like tails. She takes us where the Great Wall dips its mighty toe into the sea, and gossips about seaside resorts; then to the Imperial Hot Springs and the Ming tombs, and further to Kalgan and the Mongolian grass land, and comes back again to Peking palaces to tell us about Lama and Confucian temples, with others of many sorts and varieties. There seems to be something like a permanent Congress of Religions in Peking, but there is nothing under Government patronage but Confucianism. Examination halls and the ways of students are also treated of with sprightliness, with a chapter on the soldiers of five nations in China, her criticisms being both original and quoted. She mourns that her English brethren, so apt to follow in old ruts, are so slow to learn new things, though she does not admire the Germans. Of the American soldier she says: "The man is equal to his officer, and speaks to him as such. His needs are so great that the commissariat stores are a miniature army and navy co-operative; and it is impossible to move them far or quickly." A visit to Port Arthur shows how it looked before the devastations of war. Dalny, the fiat city, morass of finance and edifice of graft, with its harlequin architecture, is also described. On the missionary question, Mrs. Little's judgment is not that of a closet critic or hasty tourist. She speaks with a knowledge not born of the club or hong, but of the long-resident traveller and level-headed coöperator with those who, whether lay or clerical, "live in pulses stirred to generosity, . . . in scorn for miserable aims that end with self."

There is an index and a glossary.

The Farce of Master Pierre Patelin. Composed by an Unknown Author about 1469 A. D. Englished by Richard Holbrook. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

At length, after near 450 years of waiting, this little masterpiece appears for the first time in an English dress. Mr. S. F. G. Whitaker, it is true, has recently published an English "Patelin," but his version was taken from the "faked" and transformed text of the Abbé Brueys. Mr. Holbrook's version is from the genuine text as given in the earliest printed edition, that of 1486, but a few years later than its composition.

The title follows the French editions in calling "Patelin" a "farce"; but really it is an exquisite little bourgeois comedy. There is nothing of the farce proper about it—no exaggeration nor grimace; the personages, though comic, may very well have been drawn from the life. The perfection of the simple plot, the ease of the handling, the crispness and neatness of the dialogue, show the literary artist; and we can hardly charge Fournier with exaggeration when he calls it "l'œuvre capitale de notre théâtre comique avant Molière." Though it seems to have enjoyed great popularity from the time of its appearance, the author is unknown. He was evidently one familiar with the law courts, and was most probably one of the clerks of the Basoche, who had almost a monopoly of the comic drama in the fifteenth century. It was almost certainly written in Paris, though the scene is laid in some provincial town not specified. From the "pawkiness" of the shepherd, we should conjecture Normandy.

The translator has well accomplished a difficult task: difficult not merely on account of obscurities of phrase and allusion, but from the necessity of reproducing the ease and sprightliness of the dialogue without losing the antique color. Idioms—many of which would be unintelligible if literally translated—he has tried to represent by idioms; as, for example, *avocat dessoubz l'orme* by "briefless barrister." But when he renders a fifteenth-century phrase by the most modern slang: for instance, *Dieu en soit loué,* by "Now you're talking"; *Il luy faut or—on le luy fourre,* by "He must have gold: he shall get it—in the sweet by and by"; *Dictes, je vous pry, sans sorner,* by "I say; please, no kidding"; *Par le sang bleu!* by "Great guns!"—one is conscious of something like a jar.

The edition is enriched by the spirited woodcuts of Pierre Levet (1490) and by a description of the stage-setting adopted at the Comédie-Française. If the translator had given the French text in an appendix, it would have been a boon to students; but we are very thankful for the book as it is.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Axel and Valborg. Translated by Frederick S. Kolle. The Grafton Press.
Beecher, Henry Ward. Sermon Briefs. Boston: The Pilgrim Press.
Bell, Malcolm. Old Pewter. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
Bell, Ralcy Husted. Words of the Wood. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Carroll, B. H. Political History of Europe. Waco, Tex.: Baylor University Press. $2.
Chronicles of London. Edited by Charles L. Kingsford. Henry Frowde. 10s. 6d.
Deutsches Zeitgenossen-Lexikon. Lemcke & Buechner.
Evans, Herbert A. Highways and Byways in Oxford and the Cotswolds. Macmillan Co. $2.
Field, Horace, and Michael Bunny. English Domestic Architecture of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century. Macmillan Co. $15 net.
Fitchett, W. H. The Unrealized Logic of Religion. Eaton & Mains. $1.25 net.
Goddard, Dwight. Eminent Engineers. The Derry-Collard Co.
Guerville, A. B. de. New Egypt. Dutton. $5 net.
Haldane, Elizabeth. Descartes: His Life and Times. Dutton. $4.50 net.
Hare, Augustus J. C., and St. Clair Baddeley. Sicily. Dutton. $1.
Kinard, James P. English Grammar for Beginners. Macmillan Co. 50 cents.
Little, Arthur W. The Times and the Teaching of John Wesley. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. 40 cents net.
Lyman, Olin L. Micky. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Madan, A. C. Senga Handbook. Henry Frowde.
Mazzotto, Domenico. Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony. Translated by S. R. Bottone. Macmillan Co.
Moore, George. The Lake. Appleton. $1.50.
Moriarty, Catherine. Friendship's Fragrant Fancies. Dodge Publishing Co.
Most Popular Home Songs, The. Selected by Gilbert C. Noble. Hinds, Noble & Eldredge.
Needham, Raymond, and Alexander Webster. Somerset House, Past and Present. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Palmer, Erastus, and L. Walter Sammis. The Principles of Oral English. Macmillan Co. 60 cents.
Payne, John, Selections from the Poetry of. Made by Tracy and Lucy Robinson. John Lane Co. $2.50 net.
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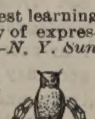

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The Week.

While the full scope and effect of the decision of the Supreme Court on Monday, in the Chesapeake and Ohio case, cannot be gathered from the fragmentary press reports, some things are clear. One is that the courts may be depended upon, in the end, to brush aside the fictions by which corporations attempt to evade the plain intent of the law. This is the outstanding feature of Justice White's opinion. A railroad cannot be, now a carrier, now a dealer. It cannot do as a dealer what it is forbidden to do as a carrier. The word "indirectly" in the Interstate Commerce act takes off the cover from a multitude of sins—such as that by which the Chesapeake and Ohio sought to give itself, as dealer, a lower rate on coal than it would give to any other dealer. Once a carrier, always a carrier, says the court, and with all the obligations of a carrier to obey the law. This decision should also serve to remind Congress and the President how great are the resources of existing law, and how vast the powers of the courts which may be invoked to protect the property rights of the people. One would say, too, that this latest decision of the Supreme Court ought to strengthen the hands of those who are contending for an amendment to the Hepburn bill of a sort clearly to establish the right of judicial review.

If the Ship Subsidy bill had a chance of passing the House, it would not have passed the Senate. It is so perfectly understood that Speaker Cannon and the House leaders will not touch it, that the Senate felt it safe, after a perfunctory debate, to let it come to a vote on February 14. It is a bad bill, so vicious in some of its features that five Republican Senators refused to vote for this party measure; but almost worse than the bill itself is this reprehensible way of playing fast and loose with legislation. One year the House passes a bill which it knows the Senate will kill; next year it is the Senate's turn. Senator Gallinger and his fellows will now say to the ship-owners that they have kept their promises and paid the party debt, and that the trouble is all with a parsimonious House. But every one knows that a Republican bill which is so glaringly improper that Senator Spooner would not vote for it, had from the first no hope of getting through the House.

"Bravo! John Chinaman," says the Lahore *Panjabee;* "you have fairly brought the go-ahead, pushful, and creation-licking Yankee from his high perch." The remark is in connection with the anti-American boycott, which, as the House Committee on Foreign Affairs was told on Thursday by Mr. Denby, ex-Secretary of Legation at Pekin, was directly provoked by our Chinese exclusion laws. Even in Singapore, which is not a part of the Chinese Empire, though a majority of its inhabitants are Chinamen, the boycott is so extensive and stringent that the new street-car company found it advisable to distribute thousands of handbills in Chinese declaring that "nothing belonging to the tramway—rails, cars, screws —was made in America." Small wonder that, with such a feeling, the Pacific Mail Steamship Company should report that American trade with China is "practically gone." Much good a ship subsidy would do in such a case! The plain fact is, that we have gone blindly ahead in our dealings with the Chinese as if they had not the ordinary attributes of human beings. We thought that we could cut them and they would not bleed, could wrong them and they would not revenge. We are finding our mistake.

Only 87 Congressmen were willing on Thursday to consider a bill for abolishing or consolidating the custom-houses operated at a loss, while 163 resolutely stood by these venerable and costly institutions. It is a measure which has come up a great many times in the past, and will doubtless continue to come up in the future until Representatives are willing to put the interest of the nation and its revenues above local pride in having a custom-house. The way in which the unprofitable ports are scattered geographically makes their abolition an uncommonly difficult business. Though there are only fifty-one of them, they are distributed over twenty-four States, whose delegations, voting together, could defeat any legislation. Maine has eight, and a member from that State, Mr. Reed, threw the proposed reform out of court many years ago. Massachusetts stands next with five, and a Massachusetts member, Mr. Gardner, made the point of order which put over a bill unanimously reported by the Ways and Means Committee earlier in the present session. The relation between the vote and the map would not be hard to trace. The Government maintains collectors at ten ports where, with expenses of $5,160.33, not a single dollar was collected in the last fiscal year. It cost $321.38 to collect every dollar of revenue at Albemarle, N. C., $200.22 at Cherrystone, Va., $185.88 at Annapolis, Md., $125.04 at Tappahannock, Va., and $101.46 at York, Me. The system is ridiculous in theory and in practice. The only hope is that, as Congress in the past consented to have the collection of internal revenue put on a business basis, it may ultimately make the same concession for the customs.

The bill of Representative Adams of Pennsylvania, providing as punishment for wife-beaters in the District of Columbia "lashes not exceeding thirty, by means of a whip or lash of suitable proportions and strength for the purpose of this act," has been a cherished measure of his, as he declared last session, for the past twenty-three years. Last year, during the debate on the Fortifications bill, he interpolated an extremely weighty ten-column speech, reviewing the legal status of women from the time of the Egyptians down, and embellished by a statistical table showing the number of Pennsylvanians who beat their wives annually, and the nature of the punishment meted out to each. This year the Committee on the District of Columbia was persuaded to report the bill without recommendations, and the House, on the day when it resolves itself into a local Board of Aldermen, attacked it with much gusto. Mr. Adams referred to the words of the President of the United States in his message for 1904: "Probably some form of corporal punishment would be the most adequate means of meeting this kind of crime." Whipping is not the only form of corporal punishment yet devised. Members were not content to stop short with that, or with inflicting bodily suffering for only one crime. So amendments began to pour upon the clerk's desk, exemplified in Mr. Bartholdt's proposed four new sections. He would have the "male person" who neglected to support his family "put upon the rack for such a length of time as, in the opinion of the public executioner, will be an adequate punishment for the offence." Pinching with red-hot tongs he would prescribe for "male persons" who deserted their wives. In other words, arguments for mediævalism simply fetched up against the sane, wholesome American sense of humor. The bill was literally laughed into oblivion, the roll-call showing only sixty members who favored it against 153 who voted to lay it on the table.

The sentencing of George W. Beavers to two years in the penitentiary settles the case of one of the ringleaders in the post-office frauds. He is one of the men for whose conduct, President Roosevelt declared, "no excuse of any kind"

could be alleged. It is now nearly three years since he was forced to resign as general superintendent of salaries and allowances; in the interval he has employed clever counsel, he has resorted to every legal technicality, and he has exerted strong political influence in order to evade the penalty of his misdeeds. But as he had plunged both arms up to the elbows in the public treasury, he finally saw there was no escape, and pleaded guilty of conspiring to defraud the Government. His confession bodes ill for his fellow-conspirators; for if the case against him is complete, the prosecution is likely to succeed against former State Senator George E. Green of Binghamton, who was indicted with Beavers. Much of the credit for bringing these postal thieves to justice is due to President Roosevelt, who has been absolutely unrelenting, and has given the officers of justice the heartiest support.

Not only has the talk of a few years ago against "government by commission" died down, but suggestions for the creation of new special bodies to deal with this, that, and the other subject come thick and fast. The future of the State Gas Commission happened to come into prominence at Albany last week. Yet simultaneously Tammany's orators were at the Capitol to plead for a Public Utilities Commission. Even before that the creation of a State Automobile Commission was being urged, and it was proposed to authorize a State Voting-Machine Commission to select electoral machinery for all the cities in the State. In short, the old rule for disposing of a puzzling problem by at once relieving an existing office of work, creating a set of new salaried positions, and securing a respite from criticism, has lost none of its popularity. A Chicago newspaper has recently compiled a list of the commissions now making regular reports in each of the States. New York, which with 25 stands fourth on the list, would come almost to the head if pending proposals should be adopted. The only States now having a larger number of commissions are Connecticut with 31, Wisconsin with 30, and New Jersey with 28. Ohio contrives to get along with 14, and Nevada with only 5. There is no theoretical limit to the number of possible boards. Every trade, every physical feature, every article of commerce, might have one to supervise it. Perhaps we should be thankful not to have twice as many.

The blank form to which the Independence League—alias Hearst's hired men—is inviting signatures all over the State, is as ingenious an appeal to the discontented as was ever drawn. Everybody with a grievance or a fad or a grudge or an axe to grind will find something for him in it. Hearst scarcely knows which is his consuming ambition, to give the farmer "good roads," "pure food," and "profitable markets," or the Labor Unions the right to "regulate the pay and working hours of working people"; is in doubt which he will first abolish, "discrimination in railroad rates" or "frauds against the people on the part of insurance companies." In a weak moment of fear lest his programme may alarm people with anything to lose, he put in the comic proviso that he is for "the protection of legitimate capital." This is the propaganda which is now afoot. We do not believe that citizens are at all awake to its significance. It is already gathering great headway, and threatens to change the political map of the State.

It is gratifying to have both the law and the ethics, in the matter of political contributions by life-insurance companies, passed upon so vigorously as they were on February 14 by the New York Life committee. When that company's campaign subscriptions of 1896, 1900, and 1904, were brought to light by President McCall's own testimony, there was a momentary effort, in a few quarters, to defend the action. The issues of the sound-money campaign were so vital—the insurance policyholder had so great a stake in them—that even if a long-ignored statute made contributions of the sort illegal, the less said about it the better. Apologies of this nature grew feebler when certain angry policyholders protested that they had favored the other side in the campaign, and hence that their own money had been secretly used against their own candidates. This protest appealed to the American instinct of fair play; and when, later on, Senator Platt admitted that the companies paid over money for State as well as national campaigns, no one was left to say a good word for the implicated officers. Now comes the New York Life's own committee, and, speaking for fellow-trustees and on advice of eminent counsel, declares that the contributions referred to were illegal and are recoverable at law from the officers who authorized them. Not stopping with this, the trustees adopted their committee's recommendation that suit for that purpose be at once begun. We imagine this to be the *coup de grâce* for such left-handed pilfering of insurance trust funds.

That the death of John A. McCall was hastened by the insurance scandals is not to be doubted. Rising from poverty and obscurity to the presidency of one of the most powerful corporations in the world, he was proud both of the skill which had won such success, and of the great life-insurance company which owed so much to his brilliant management. His resort to legislative corruption to compass ends which he regarded as desirable, was not so much an expression of his personal character as of the school of finance and politics in which he was bred. Born and brought up in Albany, familiar with the corridors and lobbies of the Capitol, a clerk in the Insurance Department, he naturally came to look upon the bribery of a Legislature or the purchase of a political machine as the only direct, efficient, and legitimate means of promoting good laws and killing bad. Probably he never considered the activities of Andrew Hamilton in their wider relations. Convinced that he had done nothing wrong, and that the administration of the New York Life had been above reproach, he really had no fear of the investigation. At first he was surprised, then prostrated, by the wrath of the public. He had really felt that his dabbling in legislation in the supposed interest of policyholders was to be commended rather than condemned. When he fully realized the extent to which his reputation had been smirched, he made large sacrifices of his personal fortune in order to reimburse the company for the advances to Hamilton. In doing this he showed a far higher sense of personal honor than either James W. Alexander, James Hazen Hyde, or Richard A. McCurdy. His fatal error was not that he worked for his own pocket, but that he sacrificed principle for the aggrandizement of his company.

Ohio seems to be feeling her way honestly towards a real improvement in government. As the Democrats did not dream of overturning twelve years of enormous Republican majorities, the ring element kept in the background for the most part, with the result that the average character and ability of Democrats elected was unusually high. The present Ohio Legislature is not likely to develop a group of philosophical statesmen. In an era of blind experiment, however, in which all parties are sailing without the aid of historic chart or compass, the new Democratic element in Ohio has at least shown that it is not dominated by the spirit of graft. Its only hope for success in elections to come lies in its ability to justify itself to the better class of Republicans whose votes placed it in power; and this it cannot do by any appeal to mere demagoguery. If it shall keep its attempts to regulate corporations within such bounds as to do no real harm to legitimate business, if it shall grapple successfully with the corrupting fee-system in local offices, if it shall recast the election laws with the interest of the individual in mind, rather than that of the party machine, and shall make such reasonable alterations in the local-option system as will satisfy the thousands who very naturally objected to the dictation of li-

quor regulations by George B. Cox, then the Democrats will remain an important factor in Ohio politics.

Reports conflict as to the attitude of the railroads towards the two-cent fare law recently enacted by the Ohio Legislature, but it is hardly probable that they will try to circumvent it. It has been framed in answer to a widespread conviction that a two-cent fare to all alike is more nearly just than three cents to the majority, with free travel to a host of public officials, newspaper men, and others who may be in a position to render favors to the roads. The trolley system has shown that reduced fares may bring into existence a vast volume of traffic which would not otherwise have been secured at all; and it is possible that the two-cent fare on the steam roads, in the comparatively thickly settled and prosperous communities of Ohio, may prove more profitable in the end than the higher rate which it supersedes. The counsel of wisdom is for the Ohio roads to assume this as at least a possibility, and bend every energy towards its realization. If the two-cent rate is essentially unworkable, such an attitude during the period of experiment will pave the way for a just accommodation better than the assumption from the start that an intentional injustice has been done.

By the action of the South Carolina Senate, the dispensary of that State has been saved, at least temporarily. The lower house of the Legislature had voted to abolish it. The official investigation, however, is still pending, and one of its most interesting features was the visit last week of Senator Tillman, the father of the system, to testify what he knew of the existing abuses. The Senator had previously stated that he believed the system to be honeycombed with graft, but that, if it were to be abolished, he would take the stump for outright prohibition rather than accept a system of local option. His "revelations," however, turned out to be entirely based on circumstantial evidence. He knew of no explicit cases of wrongdoing among dispensary officials. He told with some apparent bitterness of the aspersions on his own conduct in the first years of the dispensary. "There is no doubt," he said, "if I had been corrupt and wanted to make money out of my position as Governor in buying whiskey, I could have done it." As to the present officers, he thought they had no excuse for not submitting to full investigation. "Don't honey-fugle," he advised the committee, "but go to the bottom in any way possible." In spite of the death of the dispensary-repeal bill and the failure of the inquiry to reveal other than minor scandals, it seems to be the feeling that this year will see a bitter fight on some phase of the liquor question in South Carolina.

It is not because of any obvious commercial or moral gain that a truce in the "Montana copper war" is to be welcomed. That struggle has been attended from the first, however, by so notorious a debauching of courts, voters, and legislatures, and by such utter demoralization of the business communities in the tainted district, that anything was better than its continuance. Nobody comes out of the contest with clean hands, but at any rate there is now the hope of ending it. Whether the acquisition of the so-called "Heinze mines" will tempt the Amalgamated to throttle the copper trade again, as it did five years ago, may be doubted. Three of the nine most productive copper mines in this country are independent of the Amalgamated, and that company would probably hesitate to play their game as it did when it gave up the market to them, in 1901, by fixing prohibitive prices for its own output. But the promoters of the Amalgamated scheme will doubtless continue busy chiefly in working a much more valuable mine than the Boston and Montana, the Butte and Boston, or even the Anaconda, whose daily discoveries of new and unprecedentedly rich veins of copper have, for some weeks past, enlivened financial discussion. The richest veins which these explorers have as yet opened up have been found in Wall Street.

Mr. Balfour's surrender to Mr. Chamberlain is not less ignominious because long delayed. In fact, there would have been a certain dignity in accepting the Birmingham programme and staking his Parliamentary life upon it in a general election; but so clear-cut a policy would have been foreign to Mr. Balfour's temper. As things stand, he is a tardy and ungracious convert; the country has now spoken on the protection issue, and he himself has sunk from actual leadership to subserviency to Mr. Chamberlain. Mr. Balfour accepts protective tariffs, even with the tax on food, which he has declared impossible, as the chief "constructive" policy of the Unionists, though convinced that the party will do no constructive work for five years to come. He presumably notes that Mr. Chamberlain is old and in uncertain health, and realizes that Mr. Chamberlain's lieutenant to-day may be his successor in the near future. Mr. Balfour knows also that his most redoubtable critics among the Free Trade Unionists, Lord Hugh Cecil, Thomas Gibson Bowles and Sir John Gorst, are out of Parliament, thanks to Mr. Chamberlain. This makes the position of leader of the Opposition at least more comfortable than that of Prime Minister was. Still, there is the Duke of Devonshire, who never strikes his flag. Finally, Mr. Balfour had to choose between coming out for Chamberlain or seeing the scanty Unionist minority split in two and his own leadership become merely nominal.

King Edward's speech from the throne on Monday did not differ apparently from the run of such documents. It did, however, forecast legislation on three very contentious matters. First, the Education act, which has been the occasion of widespread discontent among Non-conformists, is to be amended; second, a new constitution is to be granted to the Transvaal; third, a policy of consultation and conciliation is to be pursued in Irish matters. The first two proposals are of a difficult sort. To withdraw state support from the Church schools will arouse very bitter opposition from the entire Establishment. To grant the Transvaal a Constitution consistent with Liberal ideas will stir up the mining syndicates, both on the Rand and in Lombard Street. Indeed, these two engagements, for a wonder, make the Irish professions seem fairly innocuous. Even the most stolid Tory could hardly object to economy and a conciliatory spirit in Irish administration. While the terms of the King's speech would admit comprehensive Irish legislation, it is not at all likely that Campbell-Bannerman will wish to renew the schism of the early eighties. In the Commons the only thing of note was the appearance of Joseph Chamberlain as *de facto* leader of the Opposition during Balfour's temporary obscuration.

The Hungarian Diet has been dissolved and expelled by the police, and new elections will be held under a liberalized suffrage system imposed by royal decree. By a curious paradox, absolutism forces a more democratic order upon its unwilling subjects. The hope is that a more complete expression of the popular will may result in leavening the extreme Magyarism of the majority. Previous appeals to the electorate have only strengthened the Nationalist coalition. One may regret the apparently unconstitutional manner in which the Parliamentary knot has been cut, but the alternative was between some such renovation of the Diet or the complete surrender of the King. For a year the Independence party, controlling the majority, has declined either to take office itself or to support any appointee of the Crown. The contestants stuck hopelessly at the Magyar "word of command" for Hungarian troops, and all legislation was at a deadlock. Until the reassembling of the new Diet on the revised suffrage basis, the quarrel is technically at a standstill. One can hardly imagine a renovation of the Diet so complete that the Apponyi-Kossuth coalition will not still exercise a dominant influence.

GERMAN-AMERICAN TRADE RELATIONS.

Prince von Bülow has already sent to the Reichstag the bill empowering the Bundesrath to extend to the United States the tariff given by Germany under reciprocal treaties to Russia, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, and Rumania. To defend it before the Reichstag, he has selected Count Posadowsky-Wehner, the Secretary of the Interior, perhaps in the hope that that official's friendliness to the Agrarians may help him in this hour of need. For the bill will not be passed without considerable criticism and fault-finding. The nations just mentioned obtained their treaties with Germany only after making important concessions. They will not be pleased to see the United States similarly favored in return for one or two unimportant modifications of the tariff regulations. The Social-Democrats may be relied upon to point out how quickly the Chancellor surrendered to the United States, with really not sufficient concessions, even in form, to "save his face."

Speaking for the German free traders, Dr. Theodor Barth has, according to the *Staats-Zeitung*, in a certain degree come to the rescue of the Chancellor. That is, he lays the blame for the failure to find a permanent way out of the *impasse* upon the whole German commercial and tariff policy. His unusually thorough knowledge of American affairs enables him to see that there was never much hope of inducing the Senate to do for us what the Russian, Italian, and Austrian Governments were so ready to do for their merchants and exporters. But Dr. Barth's views must make the outlook less favorable in the Reichstag, for the extension to be voted by it is to last only twelve months. What is to happen then? The *Tribune's* confidence that there will be no tariff war with Germany may seem singularly misplaced a year hence. No one who has followed the Senate's course in the last five years will delude himself into believing that the pending respite will be utilized by the Senate to confirm a reciprocity treaty, even if Mr. Root should think it worth while to submit one. And if Von Bülow must again confront the Reichstag with empty hands a year hence, his reception will be far less cordial than to-day.

There is dissatisfaction enough as it is. Cable reports state that this question is almost the sole topic of the German press to-day, the Agrarian papers distinguishing themselves by bitter attacks upon the Government. A year hence this opposition to giving the United States a good deal for nothing will be strongly reinforced by others than the selfish Agrarians and the manufacturers who loaded up with stocks of American raw or partly manufactured materials, in anticipation of a prolonged tariff war. In short, it will not do for the friends of a pacific settlement to rest on their oars during the coming twelve months because of comfortable assurances that, since Germany has more to lose by a tariff war than the United States, she will be as ready to knuckle under to us in 1907 as she has been in 1906. Speculation of this kind is dangerous at best. Moreover, Germany's protective tariffs are calling forth precisely the same manifestations of unreasoning selfishness that have marked the development of the system in this country. The Agrarians would willingly have a tariff war raise the cost of living, and thus line their pockets, while the Jingoes on both sides would welcome it as an opportunity to shake big sticks at each other. There could be no clearer illustration of the way in which protective tariffs threaten the world's peace.

To those who would clearly understand the present-day industrial relations between Germany and the United States, we cannot too strongly commend the admirable articles recently contributed by Louis J. Magee to the *Engineering Magazine*, under the title, "The American and the German 'Peril.'" From them may be obtained, not a technical discussion of tariff difficulties, but an appreciation of what each country may get from the other, and a realization of the enormous expansion in their trade relations which would come if the business men of both countries were to make a careful study of each other's methods. Germany has already been doing this on a large scale, particularly since the St. Louis Exposition, but, for too many Americans, ignorance of foreign conditions leads to a belief that there is no use in trying to find a way to increase our business abroad.

Mr. Magee, who speaks after a residence of fifteen years in Germany, optimistically believes, despite the shadow of Agrarian opposition, that "the two nations are going to understand each other better and get together in many future situations." The coming year will count heavily in deciding this matter, and this ought to stimulate all who would prevent a tariff war, with all its ugly possibilities, and also win for this country the enlarged German market to be had, not for the asking, but by comparatively small labor. As Mr. Magee says: "Industrial America, on the whole, can be proud of its export business only when every factory can, with profit, place a certain percentage of its output in the foreign market." The comparatively small percentage of that output now going to Germany is none the less endangered because Von Bülow has saved the situation for a year. The question before our financiers and manufacturers is simply whether the Senate, as now appears, is wholly beyond reach of public opinion in everything touching the tariff, and whether our business world is calmly to sit by and await the loss of one of its best customers through the sheer stupidity and indifference of our legislators.

IGNORANCE ABOUT SOUTH AMERICA.

Mr. John Barrett, formerly Minister to the Argentine Republic, and now our Minister to Colombia, is renewing his efforts to dispel "the lamentable ignorance that prevails generally throughout the United States in regard to Central and South America." Last year he offered prizes for essays by college students on historical and economic themes having to do with Spanish America. In a letter to the President of Columbia University, Mr. Barrett proposes similar prizes for the present collegiate year.

Whether several college essays of 10,000 words each will enlighten any but their writers, we should venture to doubt. Yet Minister Barrett is undoubtedly right in alleging that a vast amount of misunderstanding and prejudice characterizes our relations with the republics to the south of us, though ample knowledge is available. To say nothing of books of travel and the works of historians and statesmen, our consular reports from South America have for years been stuffed with information designed to correct the mistaken attitude of our citizens towards that region. So has our diplomatic correspondence. Mr. Barrett himself labored faithfully, when at Buenos Ayres, to get it into the heads of Americans that their stupid tariff policy was what stood in the way of better relations and better trade with the Argentine. But no visible result was ever registered. There has been no lack of seed, but it has all fallen upon stony ground. The ignorance which Mr. Barrett seeks to dissipate is largely wilful, of the kind which theologians call "judicial."

There is, however, one part of our ignorance of Spanish-Americans which is peculiarly extensive and unfortunate. We mean our total inability to appreciate their opinion of us. Naturally, we are persuaded that we are the most lovable as well as the most admirable people on earth, yet we are dimly aware, and are deeply puzzled at it, that the South Americans do not like us. They actually prefer a retrograde people like the Spaniards, or a race known to be frivolous if not wicked, such as the French; and get on better even with the stiff English! Then they talk about "sympathies" and natural affinities, and ingratiating manners and national sentiments, and other things which we do not in the least understand. There is, in fact, no more pathetic problem in international psychology than the pain-

ed surprise of Uncle Sam at discovering that he is not, with his "sister republics" of this hemisphere, the irresistible charmer that he had considered himself.

We have no wish to write an essay on that subject, but the statement of a few simple facts can do no harm. If the South Americans are cold towards the United States, it is an effect defective which comes by cause. Their suspicion and dislike have plainly deepened during the past ten years. This is admitted in official circles at Washington. It is reported by European observers. A writer on President Roosevelt's foreign policy in the last *Edinburgh* records the fact as indubitable. Why is it? Bad manners undoubtedly account for something. We have persistently been overbearing and contemptuous in our dealings with the Latin Americans. The comic stage scarcely misrepresents the thing: one virile American is capable of knocking together the heads of six "dagoes." That fairly mirrors our national attitude; and it cannot be called conciliatory. In commercial relations, too, we have been blundering and tactless. After having legislated so as to make a flowing trade with South America impossible, we lay it up as a grievance against South Americans that they will not buy of us. Scarcely a session of Congress passes without an angry reference, by indignant legislators, to the fact that Brazil and the Argentine and Chili take more goods from Europe than they do from us. This, again, is not exactly lubricating.

All these things, however, might be dismissed by the South Americans as merely bad breeding and poor business, but they cannot so easily put aside the graver cause of their distrust. It is not the absence of politeness, on our part, but of justice, of which they complain. They look upon the United States as a country which has several standards of international fair dealing, and which applies its lowest and roughest to them. And this feeling of theirs has been distinctly heightened by the tone of President Roosevelt's public utterances respecting them. He has abounded, of course, in disclaimers of territorial ambition or aggrandizement at their expense. But they have a proverb, equivalent to our "deeds speak louder than words" (*hechos son amores y no buenas razones*), and they apply it to the President. Protest as he may, his real attitude, they think, is that of one who considers that they have no rights which can stand in the way of his wishes. They recall how brutally he proposed to "take the matter into our own hands" if Colombia stood upon her undoubted prerogative. And his talk about his "police power" over them, with his intention to move against them if they are "disorderly," not only offends but disquiets them. They see in it all a sign of overmastering contempt for them; and they know that, out of contempt, justice was never born.

There is clear evidence in the South American press that President Roosevelt's descent upon San Domingo has intensified the sentiment against us in all Central and South America. The question asked is, Where next is the Big Stick to fall? And if Minister Barrett were free to tell why Colombia is not ready to fall into our embraces, he would have a tale to unfold not only of foregoing wrongs, but of present refusal to do justice. Colombia is to-day, we are informed, asking our Government to agree to arbitrate the differences between the two countries growing out of the events at Panama in 1903. She urges merely that a tribunal of impartial jurists be permitted to decide whether President Roosevelt exceeded his powers, under either the treaty or the general law of nations. All such disputes, Mr. Roosevelt vehemently contended in the arbitration treaties which he urged upon the Senate last year, ought to be arbitrated; but we are told that he will not listen for a moment to Colombia's plea. Arbitrate with a dago! Permit jurists to review *my* conduct! Well, so long as such an attitude is taken, we fear that the prejudice of South Americans against us cannot be removed even by the youngest essayist in our colleges.

OUR THREAT TO CHINA.

Beyond doubt, Secretary Root has received alarming reports from our consuls in China, of a sort to make him and the President anxious about the situation in that country. They are obviously unwilling to accept the publicly expressed opinion of the Chinese Minister that there is no ground for apprehension. In a recent interview he declared that there is no probability of another Boxer uprising. The existence of a serious boycott the Minister admits and deplores, but the present anti-American movement is primarily the work of merchants and men of education, whereas the Boxer uprising was an outbreak of the lower classes, after a couple of famine years. Moreover, there are now no weak or sympathetic viceroys to connive at a revolt, as was the case in 1900. Finally, the new Chinese army affords a security not available when hordes of Boxers were assuming control of the interior.

Despite all this, there may be warrant for the formation of an expeditionary corps, or at least the grouping of certain extra troops in and about Manila in the expectation of serious trouble and the need of protecting Americans. The President may desire to be even more forehanded than in 1900, when we were able to throw two regiments into Tientsin with comparative speed. But the frankness with which all preparations are announced and the anxiety of the Washington officials is proclaimed to the whole world, savors too much of "shirt-sleeves diplomacy." We are wholly at peace with China; so far as the official relations of the two nations are concerned, there is not the slightest reason for the United States to prepare to violate the integrity of Chinese territory. Every one can appreciate the serious situation that would arise if the War Department were to announce that, on account of private news of impending trouble in Japan or in Italy, which might endanger the lives of American citizens, troops were being assembled at the nearest point of embarkment for the possible scene of hostilities.

Even when the war with Spain was at hand, there were various efforts to explain away the first movements of regular troops towards the South. In the case of China, however, there is no concealment of any kind. The President believes there may be trouble, and off the troops go. The purpose of their going, their rendezvous in or near Manila, the officers to command them in China, the preparatory manœuvres they are to carry out to fit themselves for service in China, are, as the Germans say, "tolled forth by a great bell." Whether the Philippine Scouts shall be employed is also discussed. In short, the whole world is informed of every step without the slightest regard for China's feelings, and apparently without inquiring whether all this will not offend the Chinese and intensify the already costly boycott. The rest of the world is strangely unmoved. The Kaiser, who was so hot for revenge and bloodshed in 1900, has not yet breathed any threats of fresh slaughter, or taken the slightest precautions to be ready, so far as is known. In England, France, and Italy, as in Germany, if there are preparations being made for another march to Pekin, due regard for the feelings of China keeps the fact locked up in the rooms of the various general staffs.

It is not surprising that members of the Asiatic Association, composed of American merchants engaged in the China trade, are reported as being "considerably disturbed" over the Washington Government's openly announced military activities. Their advices coincide with those of the Chinese Minister, and they are reported to be convinced that the current talk of an uprising is best calculated to bring it about. In our opinion, their view is correct. The educated Chinese know perfectly well that the United States would proceed in this way against no other great nation, and the facts, if not already published in China, are likely to be as widely and as quickly diffused in that Empire as have been the accounts of the American outrages against Chinese residents or

travellers. The vice-president of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company declares that our trade in China is "practically gone," as the result of our unfair treatment of the Chinese. At the very least, the residents of China will see in our action a determinedly hostile spirit, looking only for an excuse to land an army and perpetrate again some of the horrible crimes which thoroughly disgraced the so-called Christian troops in 1900. The attitude of our Government, in brief, is one of distrust and contempt, and smacks of the same spirit which makes the average American look upon every Chinaman as an underfed and overworked laundryman, to be kicked or stoned if the policeman's back is turned.

To menace China is the wrong way to go about it. To allay the intense bitterness with which Americans are regarded in China, Congress must do justice to the Chinese nation; must adopt a treaty dealing with her subjects as with those of any other nation. She wants the assurance that her travellers will not be maltreated at our doors; that the whole Chinese population of a city like Boston shall not again be arrested in a body and shamelessly imprisoned under conditions resembling those of the Black Hole of Calcutta; that her subjects shall not be excluded when emigrants from Bohemia and Hungary and Russia are freely admitted. Failing these healing measures, there will not for years be cordial relations between the two countries. And if American troops are again landed in China, they will be opposed with a hatred more intense than that of 1900, and born of a consciousness of having suffered great injustice at our hands.

THE MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP TROUPE.

We refer to that aggregation of talent which is touring the State in the interest of Hearst as Municipal Ownership Governor. The manager of the Troupe —one remembers how "The Matthew Arnold Troupe" got reduced fares—is Mr. Max Ihmsen. He is the gentlemanly agent who set out to buy the Presidency for Hearst in 1904. To buy a mere Governorship might seem, after that, something of a come-down for one of his abilities, but we presume the commissions are satisfactory. With him are associated certain ex-politicians, ex-employees of corporations, and ex-owners of a character.

This pleasing combination of performers descends upon city after city with a fine derangement of the methods of a circus and those of the advertisers of a patent medicine. No sooner is their metaphorical tent pitched, than they clamorously call upon the public to walk up and see Hearst in his unrivalled feat of breaking the necks of three giant monopolies at once. In the streets the deft demonstrators set up their stands and open their satchels. Are you suffering from corruption? Try a box of Hearst's Municipal Ownership Pills. Is the body politic covered with blotches? One application of Hearst's Municipal Ownership Wash will be a sure cure. Meanwhile, the pavement is littered with handbills, sandwich-men parade up and down, cornets are sounded, and Tom Johnson's famous Ohio campaign in a devil wagon is far outdone by the blare and glad publicity of the Hearst Municipal Ownership assault upon the Governorship of the State of New York.

It all sounds like a bad joke, but we assure our readers that it is no laughing matter. One of Murphy's errands at Albany the other day was to ascertain the true strength of the Hearst movement up the State, and all the politicians told him that Hearst was "coming strong." There is, of course, no real Democratic organization throughout the State to withstand Hearst. What there was in 1904 was merely a shadowy personal appurtenance of David B. Hill; and now that he has let go, the remains of it are for anybody to buy. And the purchase is going on swiftly. Word has gone out that the Hearst band wagon is distinctly the one to climb into, and the rush to get aboard is reported to be furious. We hear of from 40 to 400 signatures a day being affixed to his petitions in a single county. The signers are supposed to be filled with a burning desire that Hearst become a municipally owned Governor, and that at the same time a State Legislature be elected that shall have municipal ownership written on its heart. This is the sort of evidence which is being laid before Murphy. Its effect in inclining him to the alliance which Hearst is proposing can scarcely be doubtful. For many weeks, now, the Hearst papers have not pictured Murphy in convict's garb. Nor have they shown him dining luxuriously at Delmonico's (it is well known that Hearst always dines at Dennett's) while his poor deluded followers are gnawing their nails outside. On the other hand, Murphy's personal organ has left off attacking Hearst, reserving all its fire for Mayor McClellan; while the trip of the Tammany chief to Albany to explain to the Legislature through the eloquent and suddenly converted Cockran that the Wigwam is now in favor of the control of public utilities, is a pretty good proof that Murphy perceives the private utility of joining forces with Hearst. Neither man, of course, has a single personal or political conviction that would stand in the way; and we shall doubtless soon be gazing upon the edifying spectacle of two men, of whom one has said that the other is a thief and assassin, while the other has declared the first to be an anarchistic murderer, taking sweet counsel together, all for the greater glory of municipal ownership!

The movement shows now many symptoms of a mounting craze. The very words "municipal ownership" are made a sort of mysterious and sacred symbol. An actual working plan to secure municipal ownership is the last thing the Troupe thinks of, or needs to think of. You must not ask them where they are to find the necessary money, or how they are to get around the State Constitution. Such questions imply a certain sanity in the municipal-ownership extremists, whereas they give every sign of being afflicted with a mania. Very likely, if you pressed them, they would say that Gov. Hearst might suspend the Constitution for two years, or until his plans were carried out. Reason, measure, the hard facts of finance, the ugly facts of politics are all left out of the reckoning. What is expected is that there will be a great rallying of the disappointed and discontented, of place-hunters and amiable enthusiasts and the mildly crack-brained, who, together with the labor-union vote and the Tammany vote, are to win Hearst the Democratic nomination for Governor and sweep him into office. What will he do with it? Silly question! He will have been tremendously advertised, and that is enough.

All this may be thought fantastic, unheard-of, impossible. So it would have been twenty or even ten years ago. But, as the orators tell us, our ideals and morals have "improved" since then. Our political standards, at least, have been improved to the extent that the Hearst candidacy has now seriously to be reckoned with. The clamor of it will fill the State. Republicans are affrighted by it, and decent Democrats know not where to turn. A man who, but for his money, which he pours out lavishly in politics, would never be thought of, heading a movement which, if not financed by him, would attract but few with brains in stable equilibrium, is raiding the chief office of the State, and sober people are saying that there is no means of beating him off. This is the political portent now confronting the citizens of New York. About it they will have to think, write, speak, act for months to come.

WOMEN WAGE-EARNERS.

A movement was set on foot some months ago by the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the Women's Trade Union League, and women settlement workers to secure an investigation by the Department of Labor into the industrial conditions of women in the United States. The plan met with the approval of President Roosevelt, who recommended it to Congress, and of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, who has asked for an additional appropriation to enable the Department to carry on the

work. It ought not to be difficult to convince the committees on appropriations that such an investigation would be, merely as a basis for future legislation, amply justified. Interest in the wage-earning woman has passed the stage of curiosity and amusement. That she is now regarded as a serious element in the social as well as the industrial situation, is manifest.

Most of the ills, real and imaginary, with which society is afflicted have been, at one time or another, laid at the door of the woman wage-earner. Race suicide, the decreasing marriage rate, the increasing divorce rate, wife desertion, undermined domesticity, even the disappearance of the cook, have been, among other calamities, ascribed to the iniquitous tendency of the modern woman towards financial independence outside the home. It is a simple matter to make such charges, and under present circumstances impossible either to prove or disprove them. We have practically no data to indicate the effect, social or other, which has followed the entrance of women into industrialism.

That important changes have occurred since women took to working for wages instead of for their board, no one can doubt. It remains to be proved that society has suffered. No one but a theorizing sentimentalist ever maintained that women at any period constituted an idle class. They have, in fact, always worked. The share of women in the world's toll has probably not increased, and there is reason to doubt if it has changed radically in character. To demonstrate this theory, or else to disprove it, will be one result aimed at by the proposed inquiry.

In a recent number of the *Journal of Political Economy*, two University of Chicago women, Miss Breckenridge and Miss Abbott, publish a résumé of that part of the report of the twelfth census which deals with women engaged in gainful occupations. From these statistics it appears that more than five million women were earning money in 1900, and that the rate of increase, for the decade, of wage-earning women was much greater than the corresponding rate for the employment of men. The number of women in industry actually increased faster than the female population. The gain was not confined to the East, where immigration might be supposed to have caused it, but was marked in all sections of the country. The census scheduled 303 occupations, and women appear in 295 of them. The only occupations in which they are not found are the United States army and navy, the fire departments, and "helpers to roofers, slaters, steam boiler-makers, and brass workers." Helpers in this sense mean unskilled workers who supply physical strength. In almost all occupations women are increasing. In only four important occupations are they decreasing. It is rather amusing to find that the occupations which are becoming unpopular with women are of a character usually described as feminine—dressmakers, seamstresses, servants, and waitresses. Women dressmakers increased only 17.8 per cent. between 1890 and 1900; men dressmakers increased 150 per cent. Women milliners increased 40.5 per cent.; men milliners 340 per cent. Men appear also to be crowding women out of the saloon business, the laundries, the tailor shops, and, to a certain extent, the cotton mills. But women increased in all departments of trade and transportation 120.3 to men's 37.6 per cent. Women distanced men in all but one of the five large groups of the census classification. The exceptional group was that of domestic and personal service.

The census, however, only enumerates, and does not explain. Sometimes its figures are gravely misleading. If the statistics relating to the garment trades, for example, were accepted literally, the inquirer might receive the impression that women are dropping needles and thread and that men are snatching them as they fall. When we read that women seamstresses increased in the decade only 0.04 per cent., while men seamstresses increased 20.8 per cent., we gasp first, and afterwards wonder what was meant by the term seamstress. The census throws no light on the distinction between a seamstress, a dressmaker, and a tailor. Is the Italian woman who "sews pants" in a tenement a tailor or a seamstress? Is the girl in a fashionable shirt-waist shop a dressmaker? What is the young girl who performs simple tasks in a cloak-making factory? The census does not say.

Nor does it give any real information as to the competition between men and women in trades and professions. One is left to infer that men and women are performing substantially the same tasks, but even superficial observation of the facts disproves this hypothesis. We really do not know just how far, if at all, women have displaced men in industry; neither do we know exactly the extent of direct competition between the sexes. The subject is of great importance. The study published in the *Journal of Political Economy* rightly points out that "with it is inextricably interwoven the vital question of women's wages, and the more vital question of the nature of the work to be done by women, the dignity and permanence of their position in the industrial world, and the effect upon them of the work they do."

ASPECTS OF COMIC JOURNALISM.

The resignation of Sir Francis C. Burnand, for twenty-five years editor of London *Punch*, reminds one how little that paper has been subject to the vicissitudes of journalism. As if by foreordination, the admirable parodist, Owen Seaman, takes the head of the historic table, and *Punch* will, if anything, be more *Punch* than ever. Others may change, but *Punch* retains a kind of Olympian uniformity. From its first number, sixty-five years ago, to the last, its outward appearance and inward savor are practically identical. England has been in conspiracy to provide it with talent. During the retiring editor's term of office the paper lost such artists as Charles Keene, Du Maurier, and Sir John Tenniel; but it also saw the rise of Mr. Linley Sambourne's forceful caricature, of Mr. Raven-Hill's delightful rusticities, of the nervous and most expressive art of the lamented Phil May. In fact, barring an inclination to overindulgence in rather trite doggerel, *Punch's* jorum has rarely been more tasty than in the past quarter-century. Its only serious rival in the comic field has been *Fliegende Blätter*.

There is, of course, the prevailing American view that *Punch* is dull. Dull it is, in the sense that the best fun of the most jocose family may be merely tantalizing to the outsider. A nudge to the initiated may be sufficient to recall jokes proved by a thousand laughs; the uninitiated needs a clue. Now, *Punch's* family is London—a family whose acquaintance is tolerably worth while; and probably no one who has not imaginatively made himself familiar with the mood of London has any business with *Punch* at all. It is the homesickness for London that extends the subscription-list to the bounds of the Empire; it is the desire to know what London thinks of itself, of the provinces, of the world, that makes readers for *Punch* in every land. It represents London in the mood of intellectual dalliance as thoroughly as *Fliegende Blätter* does non-Prussian Germany. This representative quality gives to these two comic papers something of the solemnity of institutions.

No other nation has shown the same continuity of humor. French comic journalism, which in sheer literary and artistic ability yields to none, is always prone to lapse into didactic and fairly savage satire, or into crapulous buffoonery. A genuine humorist like Gavarni or Caran d'Ache is a rare apparition; the tendency is towards the portentous caricature of Daumier or Forain. One remembers a few great names, but hardly the journals that kept them in pay. In our own country, the absence of anything like genuine comic journalism is even more striking. We deal with isolated names, and not with journalistic pedigrees. In fact, the only caricaturists that approximately measure up to the English or Continental standards are those that work for the daily press. If Mr. McCutcheon should come East, it would shift the centre of gravity of newspaper caricature; if Mr.

Rogers should quit Herald Square for Park Row, a great deal of political satire would take the Subway with him. Throughout American comic journalism the same lack of sequence is felt. The only thing that changes not is the citation of those consecrated forms, the goat, the Irishman, the negro, the mother-in-law, the shrewish wife, the bibulous husband—"subjects of universal interest," the editor of a comic weekly once sardonically called them.

Comic journalism suffers equally among us from vulgarity and fastidiousness. If to write and draw down to the least exacting sense of humor makes a fairly negligible comic press, to follow pseudo-æsthetic and pseudo-literary ideals makes a periodical that, considered as pabulum for the comic spirit, is neither flesh, fowl, nor good red herring. In particular, the attempt at pictorial completeness works against anything like good humorous illustration. It is the day of the photograph, and frequently it seems as if the aim of illustrators was to apologize for the fact that they are not photographers, by making their drawings as photographic as possible. Now the zest of a joke lies in its brevity; and the shortest and most direct method is the best for the joke addressed to the eye. A few scratches of Keene's pencil, a scribble of Hokusai's brush point, afford an infallible hieroglyph for a laugh; and one need not ask far among artists to learn that these notes, abstract, exacting as regards thought and selection, economical as regards technical means, are yet far more valuable pictorially than what the layman calls a "finished" drawing.

The French and Germans have maintained the true tradition of caricature. The English have kept it, with the additional advantage, referring to comic journalism, of a settled social order, a common range of personal interests, and a somewhat uniform sense of humor. Because Mr. Gould of the *Westminster Gazette*, for example, takes counsel of his public, and not of the drawing-master, his caricatures have the matter in them. When he represents Mr. Chamberlain in the boat, reassuring sinking Mr. Balfour with the words, "If you shouldn't come up, Arthur, may I keep the boat?" he counts on a public versed in the chances of the river, and in its humors. The same drawing would lose half its appeal in New York or Paris. Until New York has developed a similar common fund of experience, it will hardly have comic papers of the true metal. Mr. John La Farge has somewhere described a work of art as essentially a transaction between two parties: the man who makes it and the man who sees it. The work itself is merely the occasion of a kind of understanding, a compromise, if you will, between what the artist put into it and what the layman makes out of it. This principle is doubly true of wit and humor. Their quality depends upon the quality of the audience. We have given Mark Twain his millions of readers, but we have not yet developed the public that requires its discreet weekly service of humorous comment on the week's happenings. We stand half-way between pioneer and urbane conceptions of the comic, and nothing will hasten the process more than a fairly clear idea of aims among editors and illustrators. Certainly neither the current bufoonery nor the affected artistry of the few that deal with "society," is making effectually for the gratification of the mind or even for the mere tickling of the ribs.

MAURICE AND THE WORKINGMEN'S COLLEGE.

LONDON, February 3, 1906.

In 1854 the Workingmen's College was founded by F. D. Maurice and his friends, among whom were numbered Kingsley, Ludlow, Tom Hughes, and Lowes Dickinson. On the 20th of January, 1906, the college moved from its old home in Great Ormond Street and took possession of a new, large and commodious building in another part of London, built and admirably suited for a collegiate institution which supplies to a body of workingmen an education, and also social advantages, in many ways resembling the educational and other benefits obtainable by richer men at our universities. The opening of these new buildings is not the sort of fact which is telegraphed across the Atlantic. Yet it is an event of quite possibly more permanent importance than the striking issue of a general election which may, after all, like many electoral victories or defeats, produce few results which are long remembered. In any case, the history and the fortunes of the Workingmen's College created by Maurice may, from two different points of view, be of some interest to the readers of the *Nation*.

The college is much more than a mere memorial of its founder: it is a monument which displays a side of his genius that is often forgotten. To his devoted admirers Maurice appeared the English theologian of his age. To most men of the generation among whom he exerted the greatest influence—to persons, that is to say, who flourished between 1850 and 1870—he often appeared to be something of a mystic, who, since they did not understand him, they sometimes too hastily assumed could not be understood. Many even of those who stood quite apart from the theological doctrines of which he was the earnest exponent, felt him to be a man of the highest intellectual power. "I have always thought," wrote John Mill, "that there was more intellectual power wasted in Maurice than in any other of my contemporaries. . . . The nearest parallel to him, in a moral point of view, is Coleridge, to whom, in merely intellectual power, apart from poetical genius, I think him decidedly superior." Even this critic, who found the greatest difficulty in accounting for the possession of the highest mental and moral gifts by a thinker who came to moral and religious conclusions so different from those reached by himself, felt a "deep . . . respect for Maurice's character and purposes, as well as for his great mental gifts." In truth, Maurice was one of those rare teachers whose goodness, wisdom, and disinterestedness, and unbounded zeal for the promotion of everything which was good, noble, and holy, was, so to speak, almost visible.

But while Maurice's character, as personally known to his contemporaries or as handed down to a succeeding generation by an admirable biography, possessed the untold attraction of goodness and nobility, yet many Englishmen, while fully sensible to his virtues and his charm, have always felt that he was a mystic, and have drawn the inference, for which there exists little valid justification, that mysticism means the sort of dreaminess which makes a man unpractical, and unfits him for doing much good work in this very workaday world. They imagine that the life of a theologian in whom they trace mystical tendencies must in some way or other have been, to use Mill's expression, though not exactly in the sense in which Mill employs it, "wasted." The Workingmen's College is the abiding confutation of this singularly erroneous idea. Its whole history proves that its founder possessed two rare gifts constantly lacking in men reputed to be specially endowed with hard common sense. He possessed at once the insight to perceive the real wants of the men and women among whom he lived, and also the ingenuity to devise the means by which to meet these needs. Long, indeed, before 1854, philanthropists and reformers to whom the meed of high praise should never be denied, had pressed upon the public the duty of educating the English people; but the preachers of this sound doctrine tended to identify education with the diffusion of useful knowledge, and felt with James Mill as if, from an educational point of view, "all would be gained if the whole population were taught to read, and all sorts of opinions were allowed to be addressed to them by word of mouth and in writing." Maurice, in common with many other good men, perceived that this ideal of education was inadequate, and that it did not provide, for the best of the working classes, the real benefits which, even in 1832, English universities conferred upon the most fortunate of their students—that is to say, a liberal interest in various forms of culture, and especially in literature, and also the inestimable, though hardly definable, training created in the best of our colleges by the habits and traditions of college life. He longed to give to intelligent wage-earners something like collegiate education. Many shared his desire, and this sympathy with his object gathered round him a body of zealous associates.

Maurice went, however, a step further than merely pointing to a fine ideal. He perceived the means by which this ideal might be more or less realized. He saw, as few had done, that workingmen of intelligence, when not oppressed by too severe toil, could and, as the fact has proved, would give their evenings to education. He saw, also, that an institution might be formed wherein education might be combined with common social life; that you might, in fact, create a school for work-

ingmen which was no mere mechanics' institute, but was in a true sense a real college. He further anticipated with truth that many among the best university graduates would freely labor at bestowing upon others the knowledge which they themselves had obtained at the universities, and obtained, in many cases, through the liberality of founders and benefactors. The Workingmen's College has been the practical fulfilment of Maurice's ideas. It is a college open to workingmen; it is a college where teaching takes place in the evening; it is a college which has kept before itself the constantly expanding ideal of a liberal education; it is a college where the students, many of whom have belonged to it and labored in and for it during their whole lifetime, have acquired during the last fifty years the best traditions of English university life. One fact among a hundred exemplifies the success of Maurice's experiment. The means for acquiring the new buildings which the college now occupies were supplied in part by a legacy of £5,000 or £6,000 from one who in his youth had been a student at the college, and, though his name was hardly known to most of its members, recollected through life and with gratitude the benefit conferred upon him by his collegiate education.

The college is not only a living monument to the genius of Maurice, it is also an illustration of that desire to do away with class feuds and animosities which was the best characteristic of English life during the last fifty years and more. This is a trait to which the future historian of the nineteenth century may, we trust, do justice, but it is a feature of English life which is apt to escape attention amidst the rant, the cant, and the turmoil of general elections and party conflicts. This desire for reconciliation is to be found in the reformers of every class and school. Bentham, Arnold, Cobden, Lord Shaftesbury, Maurice, and thousands of men influenced by these leaders and teachers, all desired a policy of reconciliation, though they pursued it by very different means. The earlier reformers, whether typified by Bentham or by Sydney Smith, aimed at repealing all laws and amending all institutions which were obviously unjust or demonstrably harmful to the poor. Philanthropists such as Lord Shaftesbury were prepared to go somewhat further, and, at the risk of even dangerous interference with trade, put a stop to any mode of manufacture which was injurious or was deemed injurious either to children or to women. Free trade itself, though an economic doctrine favorable to the growth of commerce, was considered by Cobden and Bright to be intimately connected, if not necessarily bound up, with justice to the poor and needy. All these men had more or less accomplished their work by 1854. Maurice and his disciples went a step beyond; they wished not only to ensure justice for workingmen, but to sympathize with and gain in return the sympathy of wage-earners. To call Maurice a Socialist is, we now know, as absurd as to call him either a heretic or, in the ordinary sense of the term, a Free-thinker; but Maurice and his friends wished to recognize what they deemed the good side of Socialism, and shared fully the passionate indignation of Socialists against any social arrangements which might seem to base the prosperity of a state upon the poverty or misery of the mass of the people. These men, though they knew it not, believed as firmly as Bentham that any society ought to exist for the happiness of the greatest number of its members; if, as may be said with truth, Maurice or Arnold substituted welfare for happiness, they assuredly failed to see that the happiness aimed at by the Utilitarians included welfare. This difference is now of little importance. The noticeable matter is the extraordinary success with which the labors of many men of different schools were crowned. Free trade removed a root of bitterness which did more than any revolutionary doctrines to set class against class. The prosperity which it induced deprived Chartism of its power, and, greatly to the benefit of the nation, delayed democratic change till it could be carried out without provoking either revolutionary or reactionary violence. To attribute anything like this widespread effect to the Christian Socialism of Maurice, of which the genuine Christianity is now much more noticeable than the very moderate Socialism, would be absurd. Yet the movement of which the College is at once the memorial and the permanent result, did much. It opened friendly communications between the wealthy classes and the wage-earners; it was a sign and a cause of a wide change; it led men to consider with fairness doctrines which even the reformers of an earlier generation had treated as heresies; it brought men of all classes nearer to one another.

'L'Étape,' a French novel which is, unlike most French novels, a sort of religious tract, describes a society for the education and enlightenment of Parisian artisans. This school bears a resemblance to the Workingmen's College. A priest who, an ardent Catholic and a fervent Liberal, believes that Catholicism is the true friend of democracy, appears at this college, if we may so call it, and tries to preach his doctrine to its students. They refuse him a hearing, meet his attempted arguments with threats of personal violence. The scene imagined by Bourget is probably drawn in too strong colors, yet the 'Vérité' of Zola, which is, in its tone and intention, the exact antithesis to 'L'Étape,' leads from one point of view to the same conclusion. From both novels we gather that the Conservative and the Liberal, the priest and the workingman, are divided from one another in France by inveterate hostility. The gulf which divides them is too wide to be passed over, yet a calm inquirer finds it difficult to believe that France can prosper unless this gulf can be bridged. However this be, the Workingmen's College is one of the many evidences of good will among different classes created by the strenuous efforts of good men during now more than fifty years. It is this good will which, as long as it lasts, is the real strength of modern England. AN OBSERVER.

NAPOLEON VICTIM OF HIS CLAN.

PARIS, February 2, 1906.

The personality of Napoleon the Great has a curious hold on all who once become interested in it: I allude especially to the historians. Thiers gave a great part of his life to the study of the Consulate and the Empire. We have at present two historians who are devotees of Napoleon, M. Vandal, who continues the history of the rise of Napoleon in the period of the Directory, and M. Frédéric Masson; they both owe their popularity to their hero worship, and they must strike a very responsive chord in the public, as their success has not been impaired by the deplorable failure of the Second Empire, which, having begun with a *coup d'état*, ended in the loss of the provinces for France. The present generation has no desire whatever to return to the Imperial system; it has for the person of Napoleon I. a sort of poetic admiration; it has the feeling that he was an exceptional being, and that he was in reality the beginning and the end of an era.

M. Masson has just published the seventh volume of his 'Napoleon et sa Famille.' This indefatigable writer tells us that, though he has already written twenty-one volumes on his prodigious hero, he is far from having exhausted his subject; he has still several volumes to publish. He prophesies that, after he has accomplished his task, there will be still much to find and many materials for other works. His passion for his hero makes one think of a painter who is in love with a model, and is never tired of making sketches of his idol and of giving her a place in all his compositions. The new volume embraces the years extending from 1811 to 1813, during which were prepared the fatal events that marked the downfall of the most extraordinary fortune that history offers to our meditations. The date of the great disasters has not yet arrived, but these disasters are, so to speak, in germ in the general state of Europe, in the combinations of the enemies of Napoleon and of France.

The preface, or rather the "avant-propos," of the new volume is of high interest, as it propounds the general theory of M. Masson regarding the Napoleonic period. This, though it lurked in all his preceding works, had not yet found its definitive expression. In his opinion, the obstacle to Napoleon's gigantic plans of domination over Europe came not only from the great Powers themselves, and from England, whom he found directly unattackable and who subsidized the armies of the Continent, but also from the stupidity, the worthlessness, the ingratitude of his own brothers and sisters. He dreamed of surrounding the French Empire with satellites, who could move only in his orbit; his Corsican and clannish instincts inclined him to choose these satellites from among his own family and those connected therewith; but they all disappointed him; they identified themselves with the interests of the countries over which they ruled; they believed themselves to be sovereigns by divine right, they tried in every way to escape from the domination of the Emperor.

"In my volume vii.," writes M. Masson, "I consider less the action exercised by Napoleon upon his family than that exercised by it on his work. It is no longer Napoleon who raises his brothers or degrades them; it is they who make themselves the artisans of his fall. It is not he who imposes his laws on them, it is they who, consciously or unconsciously, by their errors or by their crimes, prepare his ruin. Their acts are most of them accomplished

outside of his control, of his authority, of his will; but this is in virtue of the delegation he has granted them, of the powers he has bestowed, of the system which he has established. Thus, they are bound so closely to his conception of government that, if he is not historically responsible for many of their acts, he must bear the chastisement for them. The instruments which he chose and employed were bad; he made them worse by his veto or his compliance. . . . After the death of Napoleon, each of his brothers published or inspired apologetic memoirs, in which they tried to throw upon Napoleon the responsibility for their family disaster; they gave themselves certificates of intelligence, generosity, loyalty, liberalism."

M. Masson does not attempt to write the complete history of the countries which were for a while submitted to the Napoleonic rule; he has little doubt that many papers have been destroyed, and he has confined his efforts to a sort of résumé, sufficient to give a just idea of Napoleon's relations with his family. He makes his readers acquainted with the feelings and actions of Madame, Napoleon's mother, of Joseph, Louis, Lucien, Jerome, Fesch, Élise, Pauline, Caroline. Thus limited, his task was still very great.

"I have an account," he says, "of a secondary play which interweaves itself with the principal drama and of almost secondary scenes. My personages appear for some minutes in the forefront, they even influence the end; but they are nevertheless secondary, and their characters, however curious they appear to me, are never drawn in traits of beauty or of heroism."

Volume vii. begins with an account of the Council of 1811, and of the struggle between the Emperor and the Sacred College. Napoleon wished to give the universal Empire a universal Church. The negotiations with Pius VII. respecting these religious matters have lost much of their interest; but they had a very brutal end. The Pope was arrested and taken prisoner to Fontainebleau.

It may be said that the fortune of the Bonaparte family was at its height in the year 1811. M. Masson occupies himself first with Pauline, who had followed Madame to Aix-la-Chapelle. He describes her society, her intimacy with Montrond, with Canonville, her amusements; he speaks of her extravagance. King Jerome, in Westphalia, acquired neither consideration nor authority. His army, his kingdom, were really given up to Davout, who disposed at his pleasure of the Hanoverian battalions. The funds in the Treasury "are as much my property," wrote Napoleon to his brother, "as what I may have in the Bank of France." Jerome was not unintelligent; he understood what dangers threatened the Napoleonic domination, with such a system of tyranny. Jerome was anxious to play his part in a great war; he considered "that Westphalia was lost to him, and placed all his hopes in his army and in the command he might obtain in it."

Louis was ill and hypochondriacal. He left Holland without renouncing his throne, his people—what he called his country. He complained constantly of Napoleon, who not only had robbed him of the crown, but had poisoned his life. "I have," he writes to Lucien, "been maltreated, from my youth, by my brother." Napoleon first forced a crown on him, and then an abdication; he already had forced a wife on him. Louis is a victim; he writes volumes on his misfortunes, from Grätz, where he was living at the time, under the name of Count de Saint-Leu. He writes a poem, "Marie, ou les Peines de l'Amour," and is more occupied with his mediocre verses than with anything else.

Shall we follow Hortense in her journeys, in her villeggiaturas? Lucien's movements offer greater interest. He arrived in England at the end of 1810. He writes: "The tyrant has made a mistake. It gratifies me that, notwithstanding his desire to disgrace her [his wife Alexandrine], the news of the reception which is given us here will come to his ears, and that the image of your mother [he was writing to his children] received by the noble English of this island will pursue him and irritate him in the midst of his imperial feasts." Lucien and his wife went to Ludlow, where Lord Powis offered them the hospitality of Dinham House. Soon afterwards, Lucien bought for £9,000 sterling an estate near Worcester and Ludlow. He also began work on a poem, "Charlemagne." His wife writes secretly a poem on "Bathilde, Reine des Francs."

It is rather fatiguing to attend M. Masson in his excursions from one member of the Imperial family to another; he takes us from Lucien to Élise, to Caroline, to Murat, to Joseph, observing only a chronological, not a logical order. The details about Murat are among the most interesting portions. M. Masson judges him well, and renders full justice to his courage:

"Murat is the most admirable soldier, the most astonishing leader, the cavalry officer who on the battlefield has the clearest view and the promptest action, a form of boldness which belongs only to him, a *désinvolture* in the presence of death which makes it of little account to those who follow him. . . . As long as he takes the aggressive, he is unique; on the defensive, he is flat, loses his power, gets discouraged; against misfortune he opposes neither resistance nor tenacity."

During the Russian campaign, the Emperor confides to him four *corps d'armée*, twelve divisions, thirty-six thousand horse, the most astonishing mass of cavalry that has been seen in modern warfare; he leads it very badly. He says to an officer sent him by the Emperor: "Tell the Emperor that I have conducted the vanguard of the French army further than Moscow; but I am bored, you understand? I am bored. I want to go to Naples to occupy myself with my subjects." His subjects? Truly he had made himself popular in Naples, with the lazzaroni by his theatrical ways; but would he have been if he had not been chosen and supported by Napoleon? It was the fundamental error of Murat, of his wife Caroline, of Joseph in Spain, to believe in their independence; they were all nothing, if not the vassals of Napoleon. It was Napoleon's mistake to take such instruments for his gigantic projects; he could not say, "Uno avulso, non deficit alter"; he made choice only in his own clan, and the most intelligent member of his family, Lucien, had become his bitter enemy.

Correspondence.

THE LATE KING OF DENMARK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the number of your highly esteemed paper for February 1st I ran across the following lines:

"Few monarchs have been more sorely tried than King Christian. Early in his reign the Danish Duchies were torn from his kingdom by Germany, and England permitted the spoliation with a supineness that aroused Mr. Robert Cecil (later Lord Salisbury) to his highest flights of satire."

By the Danish Duchies you understand the Duchies of Holstein and Schleswig.

Permit me to suggest some remarks, the correctness of which may be easily ascertained.

(1.) The Duchy of Holstein is, and has always been, more thoroughly German than any other part or portion of Germany since the times of Hengist and Horsa of mythical fame. It has never been a part of Denmark. Under the Holy Roman Empire it was part of the Lower Saxon Circle or District; it was also included in the German Confederation established at the Congress of Vienna. It was connected with Denmark precisely in the same way as Hanover was with Great Britain. From George I. to the death of William IV. the electors and kings of Hanover were kings of Great Britain. From Christian I. till the death of Frederik VII., the Dukes of Schleswig-Holstein were kings of Denmark. As in England Queen Victoria succeeded to the throne under the laws of England, while under the Salic law prevailing in Germany the Duke of Cumberland ascended the throne of Hanover, so on the death of Frederik VII. Christian IX. succeeded to the throne of Denmark, while Duke Frederik of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg was called to the throne of Holstein and Schleswig under the laws of Germany prevailing in those old German provinces. The fact that Duke Frederik of Augustenburg (father to the present Empress) was euchred out by Bismarck, has nothing to do with this case.

(2.) The first King of Denmark of the Oldenburg line, Christian I. of Oldenburg, was also elected Duke by the estates of Holstein and Schleswig on condition that those two countries should remain united forever (*up ewig ungedeelt*). This fundamental law was broken in 1846 by Christian VIII. of Denmark, who, under coercion of the mob of Copenhagen, issued an open letter, in which he declared his intention to extend the law of succession in Denmark to his German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. For an answer, the estates of Holstein and Schleswig set up a provisional government of their own and took up arms in defence of their rights. They were defeated in the battle of Idstedt and turned over to the good graces of Denmark by the German Confederation. Schleswig was incorporated into Denmark by another *coup d'état* in 1863. Then followed the war of 1864, which settled the Danish claims for good.

(3.) That Great Britain was very anxious to prevent the establishment of an independent German state at the mouth of the river Elbe, and was even more opposed to the annexation of Schleswig and Holstein by Prussia, is well known. War was avoided only by the obstinate opposition of the Queen. The details are interestingly related in the Memoirs of the Earl of Malmesbury.

(4.) The high flights of satire on the part of Mr. Robert Cecil, later Lord Salisbury, show conclusively how little even better informed English statesmen of his period

cared for truth and fair play outside of their own national affairs. Nor did his sneering remarks, that the Germans had better save the Baltic provinces from Russian oppression, reflect much credit on his common sense. Courland and Livonia, though partly colonized by Germans some 800 years ago, have never been part of Germany; 90 per cent. of their inhabitants are of Slavic stock, while Holstein has always belonged to Germany and is inhabited only by Germans, and Schleswig at least by an overwhelming majority of the German race. As even divine Homer was sometimes caught napping, so we may assume that Mr Robert Cecil was half-asleep when he committed these uncommonly silly remarks to his diary.

(5.) The late King Christian IX. was not a member of the royal house of Denmark by birth, nor was he a Dane by blood or born in Denmark. He simply was one of the many German princelings without patrimony or expectations. His wife was a niece of King Christian VIII.; and since no heirs were born to Christian VIII. and Frederik VII., her husband of the Glücksburg line was designated to the throne of Denmark, after the late Grand Duke Peter of Oldenburg had politely refused to accept the honor. Neither the Queen of England nor the Empress Dowager of Russia was born a princess of Denmark; but fortunately very few people knew about it. Many of the troubles of King Christian IX. during the first years of his reign were caused by the fact that the most zealous Danes (mostly of the city of Copenhagen) were distrustful and opposed to him on account of his German birth.

Trusting that you will find these objections historically correct, I remain, with great respect, your faithful reader,

DR. E. SCHRADER.

1311 SPRAGUE AVENUE, SPOKANE, WASH., February 9, 1906.

NIETZSCHE'S WORKS IN ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Our attention has been called to an editorial on "The Function of an Endowed Press" in a recent edition of the *Nation*, in the course of which the writer adverts to the incident of the appearance of two volumes of Nietzsche's works produced by a London publisher. The late firm of Henry & Co. brought out two volumes of Nietzsche, and these were later taken over by Unwin, who brought out the third and fourth. In this country we publish these four volumes of translations of Nietzsche's works: 'Thus Spake Zarathustra: A Book of All and None,' 'A Genealogy of Morals,' 'The Case of Wagner, the Twilight Idols, Nietzsche contra Wagner,' 'The Dawn of Day.' It occurs to us that the writer of the editorial in question may perhaps be interested to know this; and if he and his friends will support us by buying the third and fourth volumes, we should be perhaps encouraged to go on.

Seriously, however, the point seems to be that enterprises of this kind to which the writer of the article in the *Nation* refers are undertaken from time to time; and that when they drop from the hands of one publisher they are apt to be taken up by another. Without going into particular instances, we think it may be said that a great deal of serious literature, including serious current literature, is published both here and in England at prices similar to those which are charged for current fiction. And while, of course, it is true that fiction has come to occupy a more prominent place in the public eye and on the book counters than serious literature, so that your editorial writer is entirely justified in suggesting that fiction and serious literature do not appear side by side and on equal terms, yet we have reason to know that the amount of serious literature which is bought and read throughout this country is entirely disproportionate to the amount of attention which its circulation attracts. We would venture to submit that the devotion of the American reading public to fiction, to the exclusion of more serious books, does not obtain to the extent which appearances would seem to indicate.—Very truly yours.

For the Macmillan Company.

HERBERT P. WILLIAMS.

NEW YORK, February 19, 1906.

THE "MEDUSA" OF THE UFFIZI GALLERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: M. Corrado Ricci, the eminent director of the Florentine galleries, made an interesting announcement recently in the *Istituto Germanico* of Rome, which was reprinted in the *Marzocco* of Florence for December 17, 1905. It concerns the famous head of "Medusa" in the Uffizi Gallery, hitherto attributed to Leonardo da Vinci. M. Ricci observes that the spreading of error is generally more rapid and becomes more deeply rooted than that of truth. As a case in point, the splendid picture by Titian in the Borghese Gallery in Rome, representing "Venus and Medea," is still called in catalogues, photographs, and even in histories of art, by its false title of "Sacred and Profane Love." The so-called "Beatrice Cenci" in the Barberini Gallery is generally attributed to Guido Reni. Though it is proved that Reni did not come to Rome until several years after the beheading of the renowned Roman parricide, the legend of his painting the beautiful girl a few days before her death is too popular to be easily uprooted. Yet the canvas surely represents a Sibyl.

The authenticity of this "Medusa" of Leonardo had been already doubted. But an allusion of Vasari's and the persistent force of error have thus far carried more weight than technical, historical, or æsthetic opinions. Vasari speaks ('Vite,' iv., p. 32, Florence, 1879) of a hideous beast which Leonardo painted on the cross-section of a fig tree for a countryman, while our painting is square and painted on Dutch oak. That alone is sufficient proof that this is not the Florentine "Medusa" of which Vasari speaks. He writes also of another "Medusa" begun by Leonardo, but which remained unfinished, while that of the Uffizi is complete in detail and design. So neither of these two mentioned by Vasari can be identified with the Uffizi picture, and we can only conclude that all trace of them is lost.

But M. Ricci has found a very satisfactory solution to this vexed question. In an inventory of the "guardaroba ducale" of the end of the sixteenth or the beginning of the following century, one reads that the head of a Medusa "was presented to S. E. by the page of M. Philippe de Viq., etc. In a catalogue of 1769 the same picture is put down as a "Medusa in the Flemish manner." It is only in the following catalogue (1784) that for the first time the picture appears attributed to Leonardo da Vinci. From that date on, error flourishes, and we always find the picture appearing among Leonardo's works.

Even if these documents were not convincing enough, Italian artists always represented the Medusa full-face, while in the Uffizi picture the head is horizontal and in profile; all the hideous animals, so realistic, so carefully finished, reveal Northern ideas and treatment, and convince us that this head of Medusa in the Uffizi Gallery could never have come from the brush that gave us "la Gioconda."

UMBERTO GNOLI.

PISA, February 2, 1906.

Notes.

The second series of "Ancient Records," whose publication has been undertaken by the University of Chicago, is now issuing from its Press, viz., 'Ancient Records in Egypt,' by Prof. James H. Breasted of the University. It is first of the three contemplated, and the present volume is one of four to appear at intervals before July. An index will probably be supplied. Prof. Robert F. Harper's 'Ancient Records of Assyria and Babylonia,' and the late President Harper's 'Ancient Records of Palestine,' are still somewhat indeterminate.

The well-known articles on American history contributed by Alexander Johnston to Lalor's 'Cyclopædia of Political Science' have been arranged by Prof. James A. Woodburn of Indiana University in the form of a continuous narrative, under the title of 'American Political History, 1763-1876' (2 vols., Putnams). Of the worth of the articles themselves there is, of course, no question, and the work of the editor seems to have been, on the whole, skilfully performed. It is a pity, however, if the job was to be done at all, that some of the details should not have been more carefully attended to. A reasonable modification of phraseology, particularly in the opening sentences of articles, for the sake of better connection, could not have been objected to by the most exacting critic; but Professor Woodburn apparently has felt bound to follow his author literally, even when to do so produces such extraordinary results as those on pages 408-411 of volume two, where West Virginia bursts upon the scene. The numerous cross-references of the originals are here transferred bodily to footnotes, where, of course, they are both inappropriate and misleading, since the topics to which they refer can be found only by consulting the index. The original bibliographies, too, excellent in their day, ought certainly to have been revised and brought up to date, instead of being left for the most part twenty years behindhand; it is strange, for example, to find a list of authorities on the Bank controversy without a mention of Catterall's definitive work, or on the distribution of the surplus revenue without notice of E. G. Bourne's authoritative treatise. The statement (vol. i., p. 391)

that "there is no good history of the finances of the country in the English language" makes one wonder what Professor Woodburn thinks of Prof. Davis R. Dewey's volume. We note some avoidable misprints: Ferrand for Farrand (vol. i., p. 82), McDonald for MacDonald (vol. i., p. 269), and a double entry of Burgess's 'Reconstruction and the Constitution' (vol. ii., p. 478). The usefulness of the book in its present form will doubtless be considerable, and almost anything that will insure a wider acquaintance with Johnston's articles should be welcomed; but a separate collection of the articles in their original arrangement, with necessary revision and addition, is still, we think, a desideratum.

We had hoped to dilate upon the Atlas volume concluding Dr. Thwaites's grand publication of Lewis and Clark's original Journals (Dodd, Mead & Co.); but we perceive that we must give it up. It embraces the explorers' maps, almost wholly the skilful work of Clark, with some others carried out by the expedition, and with a general map of the entire route indicated on present-day political geography. There remains but one field of devotion for Lewis and Clark antiquaries, and that is a plotting of Clark's maps *at scale* on the maps of to-day. But it may be yet too early to do this, speaking cartographically.

Under the title of 'The Chief American Poets,' Curtis Hidden Page has edited for class use about six hundred and fifty pages of selections from Bryant, Poe, Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Lowell, Whitman, and Lanier, with brief biographical sketches and copious reference to material for further study (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The declared aim has been to select the best from each author, representing, of course, the various phases of his work, and we find no glaring lapses of judgment to record, either of exclusion or of inclusion. As to Lowell, we raise the question whether critics and biographers are right in their total neglect of a poem which the author himself, shortly after its publication, referred to in a private letter as the best thing he had yet done. We refer to "The Fountain of Youth," of which Lowell's closest friend among the honored names of literary New England has been heard to say in recent years that it sprang from the deepest currents of the author's life.

Dr. Reginald R. Sharpe, Record Clerk in the City of London's Town Clerk's office, has issued, in his 'Calendars of Letter-Books' of the Corporation, a transcript of the so-called Letter-Book G, of which the date runs from 1352 to 1374. The reign is Edward the Third's, in which France and England were intermittently at war, with mutual invasions. The terminal year is that of Petrarch's death; and amid all the curious information, historical and customary, to be found in this volume and helpfully summarized in Dr. Sharpe's introduction, two items have a surpassing literary interest, remotely associated with the great Italian. One is the mention of John Chaucer, possibly the poet's father, as one of the ward collectors of a naval tax imposed on the city by the King; while the poet himself appears in the record of a lease to him of a tenement over Aldgate precisely in 1374. These items are not now first discovered or published, however. Nor is it new that the guilds, prototypes of our trade-unions, were in this period effectively directing that "no one, for instance, could follow the trade of fishmonger unless he became a member of the Guild, whilst no member of the Guild was allowed to meddle in any other trade." To this after six centuries have we reverted!

Halifax is a town in Plymouth County, Mass., which has never had more than 800 inhabitants, since 1875 has but once surpassed the population of 1765 (556), and last year sank to 497. By means of an "Old Colony Town Record Fund," the vigorous Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants in Boston has just published the town's 'Vital Records' to the end of the year 1849, transcribed from five different volumes. For Barnstable County, using its special Fund, the Society has already published the 'Vital Records of Brewster.' The volumes are neat in appearance, and have been compiled with scrupulous painstaking. The proceeds of publication go to swell the respective Funds.

Whatever else it may be, Professor Nino Tamassia's latest book on 'S. Francesco d'Assisi e la sua Leggenda' (Padua: Fratelli Drucker) is altogether worthy of his deservedly high reputation for scholarship and research, while the subject chosen is such as to appeal to a far larger circle of readers than has been the case with any of his previous works. Indeed, the volume before us is one which no serious student of St. Francis and his times can afford to neglect. The thesis is revolutionary; but it is supported by a wealth of evidence which, if only by reason of its cumulative quality, acquires tremendous cogency and force. That the earliest and most authoritative histories of the Saint, from the 'Vita' of Tomaso da Celano to the 'Floretti,' are nothing but a *réchauffé* of still earlier myths; that the genesis of the legend of the Stigmata is neither miraculous nor pathological, but literary, being, in fact, traceable to the ἐγὼ γὰρ τὰ στίγματα τοῦ Κυρίου Ἰησοῦ ἐν τῷ σώματί μου βαστάζω of St. Paul; and that the wolf of Agobbio never really existed except in a symbolic sense, are a few among the many subversive opinions which are more or less openly maintained in these pages. Even M. Sabatier is vigorously assailed, and the whole story of St. Francis is cast into the melting-pot of ruthless critical analysis. Such a book may outrage our prejudices and run counter to all our preconceived notions; but it certainly cannot be ignored.

The *Library Journal* for January contains an article on "Special Libraries," by Mr. Robert H. Whitten of the State Library in Albany, describing the method of keeping extracts and clippings from periodicals in the Legislative Reading-Room at that library. Articles from some 500 engineering, medical, law, and general periodicals are extracted bodily, placed in manila envelopes, and filed in a classified arrangement with other pamphlets and manuscripts. Mr. Whitten argues that this method has decided advantages over the old method of cataloguing or indexing, which compels the inquirer to spend considerable time first in finding the references he wants, and then in waiting for the attendant to collect all the volumes he would consult, while "under the system under discussion he goes to the vertical file, picks out a handful of articles on the subject, selects the one or two desired, the whole operation occupying only a few minutes."

The January number of the *Printing Art* opens with an essay from the pen of Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, illustrated with several facsimiles, on the new so-called Humanistic type introduced by the University Press at Cambridge, Mass. This type is an attempt to revert, not to the early printers, but to *their* models, the scribes. Another article in the same number, by Mr. John Cotton Dana, deals with Library Printing, viz., of cards, bulletins, announcements, and that sort of thing. Mr. Dana shows, by a well-chosen selection of illustrations, how dignity and beauty can be obtained by the simplest means, by types accessible to the smallest printing-offices. The lesson is needed. Mr. Dana holds that libraries should "coöperate and even be leaders in the present forward movement in the industrial arts," and points out how they are able to bring lessons in beauty home to their readers through the printed matter which they distribute freely.

A list of over five hundred English standard works on Philosophy, compiled by Benjamin Rand, is given in the February Bulletin of the Boston Public Library. It consists of the leading histories and the works of and commentaries upon seventy-one philosophers. A noteworthy fact is that the largest number of titles is under Herbert Spencer, who is followed hard by Immanuel Kant. Current prices are annexed to most of the works in the list.

The *Annales de Géographie* for January opens with a discussion of the relations of the structure of the earth's crust to earthquakes. Observations of more than 170,000 show that they occur almost equally and exclusively along two narrow zones lying on two great circles of the terrestrial sphere: the Mediterranean or Alpine-Caucasian-Himalayan circle, with 53 per cent. of recorded earthquakes; and the circum-Pacific or Andeo-Japanese, Malaysian circle, with 41 per cent. These observations, it is asserted, give no support to the theory that the tetrahedral distortion of the earth's crust is due to this cause. Other articles are a summary of the facts, with a map, brought out by the first Russian census of 1897, in regard to the distribution of races and languages in the Empire; accounts of the cartography of French Indo-China, of the Kalahari desert in South Africa, and of the geology and glacial phenomena of the region of Jacobshavn, Greenland. Among the minor contents is a notice of a so-called French military mission for the purpose of discovering the best route from the Peruvian coast to the Amazon, and the progress of the rubber plantations throughout the world, but especially in the East. M. de Martonne describes the first inter-university geographical excursion. Students from eight French universities, under the direction of the professor of geography at Rennes, last summer studied the physical geography of Brittany. Languedoc will be visited by this year's excursion.

The *Globus* reports the details of a new German oceanographic expedition recently

sent out by the Naval Department of the German Government, the work to be carried on on the "Vermessungsschiff" *Planet*, a steamer of 650 tons. The vessel is to proceed northward of the Philippines to the Bismarck Archipelago, and, in addition to deep-sea measurements, the meteorology of those regions will be studied, especially the conditions of the higher strata by means of balloons. With a view to studying the coast outlines, stereophotogrammetry is to be utilized on a larger scale than ever before, and the same means will also be employed for the study of the size and shape of ocean waves. It has been decided that the *Planet* shall remain for a number of years thus employed in the western tropical regions of the Pacific Ocean.

The statistics of the census for 1905 are being gradually published by the German authorities. According to these reports, there are now forty-one "Grossstädte," *i. e.*, cities of more than one hundred thousand inhabitants in the Empire. This is eight in excess of the number in 1900, when the last census was taken. There are now five cities with over half a million inhabitants, as compared with two half a decade ago. These are Berlin, reporting 2,034,000 inhabitants; Hamburg, with 800,882; Munich, with 538,393; Dresden, with 514,283; and Leipzig, with 502,570. The most extraordinary growth is reported by Duisberg, which in the past five years advanced from 93,605 to 191,551, and Gelsenkirchen, which jumped from 40,500 to 146,742.

The Institute for Austrian History has begun the publication of a series of works that promise to be of exceptional value for the study of illuminated manuscripts. With the financial support of the Imperial Cultus Ministerium, successive catalogues are being issued to furnish scientifically accurate and illustrated accounts of the rich treasures of illuminated miniatures found in such abundance in the libraries of the Austrian Empire. The two opening volumes have made their appearance, the first being devoted to the Tyrol, and containing descriptions of 275 illuminated documents found in twenty-six libraries, cloisters, and museums; the second, entitled "Salzburg," contains an illustrated description of 126 such manuscripts, a goodly number being unique. Of special interest are the productions of the Salzburg schools of the eleventh, twelfth, and fifteenth centuries. Notwithstanding the fact that the Salzburg libraries were despoiled in favor of the libraries of Paris, Munich, and Vienna, an abundance of good material in this vein remains. Prof. Franz Wickhoff, who holds the chair of the history of art in the University of Vienna, is the general editor of the whole series, but each volume is being prepared by some specialist who is also a member of the Institute. Other volumes are to follow, covering the various provinces of the Empire. A special volume will treat of the manuscripts in the possession of the Imperial family.

Our London correspondent describes on another page the Workingmen's College founded by Frederick Maurice, apropos of its occupation of a new domicile, after patient waiting. We understand that, as is usual in such cases, the improved condition will involve a larger annual outlay for maintenance of building and of the staff of instructors. From thirty to fifty thousand dollars could be usefully added to the endowment, and some part of this may well come from Maurice's admirers in this country, or from sympathizers with his philanthropic foundation. Any such may send their offerings to the principal of the college, Prof. A. V. Dicey, 80 Banbury Road, Oxford.

A Paris reader writes: "An advertisement in your columns concerning the new monthly of the University of Chicago, the *Journal of Political Economy*, names among its board of advisory editors M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, who is stated to be a Senator. But he is not a member of the upper house, though he has more than once tried to be elected to the Chamber of Deputies; nor is either his brother or his son in Parliament. He is, however, a member of the Institute and a professor of the College of France—titles of the highest honor here."

—The symposium on "The Municipal Librarian's Aims in Bookbuying," in the *Library* for January, brings up again the moot question whether the function of libraries is strictly educational or essentially entertaining. An anonymous "Municipal Librarian" states very forcibly "The Educational Ideal: The Best and the Best Only"; while the editor's "Plea for Elasticity" presents the argument for the other side. These two articles were sent to a number of prominent librarians and literary men, in order to elicit expressions of opinion. Some of the replies are of unusual interest. Mr. Sidney Lee does not think "that public funds ought to be applied to the provision of such frivolous amusement as ephemeral fiction affords. . . . Municipal libraries constitute in my mind," he says, "a public danger if those who choose the books for them are content to echo the voice of the majority, or deem themselves under obligation to satisfy the demands of prevailing ignorance rather than to seek to counteract or diminish it." Mr. Sidney Webb, on the other hand, asks: "Why should not the citizens collectively provide themselves with recreative or amusing literature, if they choose, at whatever level of taste or culture they may have attained?" He does not think the question very important, but raises the more pertinent question "whether the librarians and members of library committees are doing all they can to make their institutions as useful to the community as possible." And he mentions, among the matters which library authorities might consider, the formation of local collections, and the selection of some one subject for each library to specialize on.

—Mr. H. W. Singer's 'Whistler,' in the Langham Series of Art Monographs (Scribner's), is a rather inconsequent little book, for which not a great deal in praise is to be said. The first twenty of the eighty pages of text are devoted to a discussion of Whistler's personality and his gentle art of making enemies—surely a liberal proportion—while six more pages, in the middle, are devoted to the hardly needed defence of art critics and to the exposition of Mr. Singer's own view that "the less the critic himself has painted or carved, the better it will be for him." He considers the fact that both Ruskin and "'Arry" Quilter were painters, a sufficient proof of the falsity of Whistler's (and Dürer's) doctrine that "none but an artist can be a competent critic." He hardly perceives the bearing on his own dictum of the fact that Whistler's writings seem to him worthy of discussion at length as "part of the gospel of the newer art criticism," and as the work of "a prophet of æsthetics" and "a divinely inspired oracle." His attitude is oddly compounded of personal antagonism and convinced Whistlerianism; but of any real analysis of the nature of Whistler's art he is incapable. "It is owing to the purely artistic character of these creations," he remarks, "that so little is to be said about them," and he has certainly found little to say. The only descriptive passages of importance are long quotations from Geffroy and Duret. Finally, the seeker of light on the real qualities of Whistler will get as little from the illustrations as from the text. With one or two exceptions, they are not well chosen, and, almost without exception, they are abominably reproduced.

—Under the general title "Epochs of Irish History," the firm of David Nutt is publishing a series of little books by Miss Eleanor Hull of which two volumes, 'Pagan Ireland' and 'Early Christian Ireland,' have already appeared. They are dedicated to the young students of Irish in a London branch of the Gaelic League, and are obviously intended for similar classes of readers. The style is therefore simple and popular—sometimes almost too condescendingly simple; yet the footnotes and occasional digressions bear testimony to the author's scholarly interests and particularly to her knowledge of folklore. The books contain a variety of information about ancient Ireland, the country and the archæological remains, the manners, customs, and beliefs of the people, and a sketch of their history. In these early periods the history is largely legendary, and Miss Hull has simply told the old stories as they were preserved in the native authors. Her selection of tales is good, and she has made use of the best modern editions and translations. She has also brought together a great deal of material which could not be found elsewhere, except in expensive works like Dr. Joyce's 'Social History of Ireland,' or O'Curry's 'Manners and Customs.' In general, the books seem to us well adapted to their purpose. Naturally one does not look in them for scholarly analysis of the old documents or for much discussion of their significance; and when the author does venture on such critical comment, it is usually not of much value. The question of accuracy in translation does not ordinarily arise, since Miss Hull is chiefly occupied with free summaries of the texts with which she deals; but it may be worth while to suggest one correction of this nature. The opening words of the Irish hymn ascribed to St. Patrick, should probably be rendered "I arise," and not "I bind myself."

—Many a reader of Dunlop's 'History of Fiction,' who has kept some small Latin from his college days, has doubtless wished for a first-hand acquaintance with that fund of mediæval story and fable which has given so much to French and Italian literature as well as to our own Chaucer. Such an acquaintance has heretofore de-

manded a university library, with time to browse therein. Prof. Jakob Ulrich has now sought to give, in small compass, specimens of the best of this mediæval fiction, 'Proben der lateinischen Novellistik des Mittelalters, ausgewählt und mit Anmerkungen versehen,' Leipzig, 1906. The editor has wisely refrained—a rare virtue in a German editor—from overloading his book with historical and critical notes, and of the 217 pages 208 are given up to the Latin text. He has thus been able to supply a surprisingly large amount of material. The collection opens with twenty-two pages of selections in verse, among which are included the "Snow Child," one of the three beast poems ascribed to Paulus Diaconus, the "Unibos," and eight out of the ten stories of woman's trickery by Adolphus of Vienna, one of which we find in elaborated form in Chaucer's "Merchant's Tale" of January and May. Of prose we have twenty-two stories from the 'Disciplina Clericalis' of the Spanish Jew, Petrus Alphonsus, which is the first example in Western literature of the Oriental story-within-a-story, and of which there exists a Norman version as early as the twelfth century. This is followed by twenty-two selections from John of Capua's translation of the 'Kalilah and Dimnah,' the introduction, which gives the framework, and eight stories from 'The Seven Wise Masters,' five from Dolopathos, forty-one from the 'Gesta Romanorum,' thirty-seven from the 'Exempla' of Jacques de Vitry, forty-three from Étienne de Bourbon, and some six pages from the Tours collection. The notes are unpretentious, consisting chiefly of references to Gröber's sketch of Middle Latin literature in his 'Grundriss,' to Benfey's 'Pantschatantra' and to the works of Dunlop, Clouston, Chauvin, Köhler, etc. Here and there we find a short indication of the later life of a story in modern European literature in a reference to Boccaccio, LaFontaine or Grimm. The book offers interesting examples of mediæval Latin style as well as of the genealogy of fiction. Moreover, these short-stories from the long ago—how long ago it were rash to say—will still prove amusing reading for one who reads his Latin with feet on the fender.

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE.

My Life: A Record of Events and Opinions. By Alfred Russel Wallace. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1905. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 435, 464.

One of the scientific notables of the past forty-five years, a man to whom Darwin could write (and in substance often did), "I wish I had your power of arguing clearly" (vol. ii., p. 11), and that in reference to the very theory which his own radiant argument had illumined, must evidently be a spirit of no ordinary force; and his opinions, of which he has set forth a greater number than most scientific men find time to mature, make a more curious collection than all the rare birds and butterflies he sent home from the islands of the East, the famous Semioptera with its *panache* included. He believes in paper money as a standard of value, in national ownership of all the land, in Socialism, seemingly in astrology (ii., 335, *bis*), and unquestionably in full-blown spiritualism. If we are not mistaken, he is opposed to vivisection, as he emphatically is to vaccination, enforced or voluntary, to interest on money, to all inheritance and testamentary disposition of property. He scorns as utterly uncritical the modern scientific determinations of centres of psychical function in the cortex of the brain—not merely the work of Flourens, but also the later attempts of Broca, Munk, and others; and in this he is not so very far from the general opinion of students of the subject, who have at the most yielded but a hesitant and provisional assent to any one attempt to characterize the distinctive functions of the different regions of the brain. On the other hand, he warmly espouses the old phrenology of Gall and the bumps of the travelling lecturers of the forties. These paradoxes are defended by him with all the conviction of his reason, and more. He believes in all that he believes down to the very soles of his boots; and his arguments are mostly so surprisingly strong that some one of his works, say his 'Studies, Scientific and Social,' ought to be made the basis of a course of lectures on logic. Happy would be the university which should find itself equipped with a professor of logic really capable of dealing with his text.

As to Darwin's encomium, it does not stand alone. John Stuart Mill, Herbert Spencer, Sir Norman Lockyer, Huxley, John Fiske, Chauncey Wright—in short, almost everybody whose judgment concerning the logic of science had any particular value—have ranked Wallace among the past masters in scientific argumentation; yet his narrow training has rendered him an easy mark for whatsoever evil spirit there may be, personal or not, that beguiles men into sophistries, confusions, and rash assumptions, and it perhaps goes far to explain his willingness to serve as an instructor of the public on original lines in such a vast curriculum of subjects. He tells us (ii., 39) that he has "a positive distaste for all forms of anatomical and physiological experiment," and that he never even *saw* a dissection; nevertheless, biologists attach great weight to his conclusions about the distribution of animals, the classification of the races of mankind, etc. He has to have translations made for him from the German—and Malay, which he speaks fluently, will hardly be reckoned as an equivalent; but many a naturalist of good sense would doubtless be glad if he could exchange all his knowledge of German for half of Wallace's acumen in balancing scientific evidences. Wallace is an Oxford D.C.L., as well as an LL.D.; in this exceptional case the degree of D.C.L. really effected something, namely, it showed experimentally that, for all his paradoxes, even a university which is above all else *orthodox*, which would shiver at the bare idea of being *paradox*, or so much as paraclit to paradoxy, perceived that to "honor" Wallace in show would be to honor herself in deed. Bearing all these things in mind, and knowing well that Wallace never wrote a dull line in his life, and couldn't if he tried, his very tables and diagrams being as entertaining as they are valuably instructive, our reviewer, we will answer for him, was not a little curious to read this autobiography and to discover what schooling of child and man had produced this conglomerate personality.

In 1823, George IV. being King of England, Louis XVIII. of France, on the eighth day of the year, Alfred Russel Wallace was born two miles from the north bank of the Severn, at Usk, on the river Usk. He was named after a Mr. Richard Russell, and we learn that the reason why he always spells his middle name with one *l* is that, after the christening, the parish clerk, who was no great speller, so wrote it in the register! No more inexplicable case of "psychic influence"—and it has lasted for eighty-three years—is told of in the spiritualistic chapter, although Home and Stainton Moses figure there. He came of virtuous Church-of-England middle-class stock, not at all sordid or vulgar. His father, having a competency at first, did not practise his profession of attorney, and, by his ignorance of law and business, gradually sank into extreme poverty. When Alfred was about six, the family moved to Hertford, and, after a year or two of teaching by his father, he went to the public grammar school, where he learned nothing but the nomenclature of geography, chiefly of English towns, and above all the Latin grammar; and this is the only schooling (in the narrow sense) that he ever had. The vestiges of some knowledge of Latin still appear, now and then, in his sentences, especially in constructions that are bad in a language in which the order of succession of the words is the only clue,* as well as in the frequency of "I and brother William," "I and my wife," "I and Mr. Mitten" (vol. i., pp. 246, 247, 251, 337, 339; ii., 49, 61, 238), though in the accusative it is "my brother and me" (i., 256). More than once in this book he deplores an incapacity for language which he attributes to himself. But, as to this, it is necessary to distinguish between a natural incapacity and early want of facility due to one's self-communions not having been such as to exercise one's faculty. We take leave to doubt any lack in him of the faculty itself, for the few facts at our disposal rather point the other way. Thus, his description of his school life shows that he was anything but industrious; yet he gained enough Latin to pick out the sense of the Æneid, and no doubt to parse the sentences. Later he found it "very easy" to learn Malay; and although that language is, as he says, of the simplest construction, especially the dialect of Sumatra, with which he presumably began, yet it may be doubted whether any grown man whose capacity for language was decidedly defective would have been so particularly struck with the facility of the task of learning it. So, during his sojourn in Wales, he greatly enjoyed the Welsh church services; he enlarges upon the beauty of this ancient tongue, which is quite noticeable for its various modifications of its words, and he praises the elocution of the preacher in a way that implies that he followed the speech, word for word, though it was only a Sunday recreation for him. But the evidence we most rely upon is his own remarkably lucid, easy, and harmonious style of writing; remarkable, we mean, in comparison with that of others who, like him, have never received any instruction in rhetoric. With little opportunity to compare his own

*For example: "Before leaving Singapore I wrote a long letter to my old fellow-traveller and companion, Henry Walter Bates, then collecting on the upper Amazon, almost wholly devoted to entomology and especially giving my impressions of the comparative richness of the two countries." This is far from being one of Wallace's worst sentences; but it illustrates the Latinity (i. 349).

performances with those of other unpractised writers, he would at first naturally judge of his own talent by the effort it cost him to express his ideas, although this effort must have been largely due to want of habitude. His self-estimation was further influenced, no doubt, by the grade-numbers that two itinerant phrenologists had assigned to his bumps of language.

At the age of fourteen his school days were brought to a close, and after a few months he joined his eldest brother, who was a surveyor. Alfred took very kindly to this business. The alternation of outdoor and indoor work was greatly to his taste, and the mathematical ingredient attracted him strongly. This is deeply graven in his correspondence. The disposition he has shown through life to express himself in maps and diagrams, together with his love of regularity and order, may incline us to think that Wallace is one of the mathematical class of thinkers. Meditation is dialogue. "I says to myself, says I," is the vernacular account of it; and the most minute and tireless study of logic only fortifies this conception. The majority of men commune with themselves in words. The physicist, however, thinks of experimenting, of doing something and awaiting the result. The artist, again, thinks about pictures and visual images, and largely in pictured bits; while the musician thinks about, and in, tones. Finally, the mathematician clothes his thought in mental diagrams, which exhibit regularities and analogies of abstract forms almost quite free from the feelings that would accompany real perceptions. A person who from childhood has habitually made his reflections by experimenting upon mental diagrams, will ordinarily lack the readiness in conversation that belongs to one who has always thought in words, and will naturally infer that he lacks talent for speech when he only lacks practice.

Another part of Wallace's education that must not be altogether forgotten consisted in his spending nearly a year in a silent and contriving trade, that of the watch-cleaner and jeweller. But circumstances carried him back to surveying, and just then the railway fever rose to such a heat that surveyors commanded high pay; so that, though we may be sure that he would not have had the audacity to obtain what some others would, yet in six months he laid up £100. This being increased by a legacy of £50, he was enabled to join his friend, Henry Walter Bates, in a voyage to Pará. Some years earlier, he had become deeply interested in botany; and more recently Bates had drawn him into a passion for beetles and butterflies. Before sailing, he had had the great good luck to secure the services of Mr. Samuel Stevens as his London agent. He remained on the Amazon, Rio Negro, and Uaupes through four years, dispatching collections to Mr. Stevens just sufficient to pay his expenses. On his return voyage he took with him more, to the value of £200, astutely calculating, we may presume, that if he himself got safe to England, so would they. It fell out otherwise. The ship took fire. Wallace was miraculously rescued, and saved only his life and a few sovereigns. The trusty Stevens, however, had of his own motion insured the specimens for £150, and lo! this was paid. He now wrote and published two books, which just paid the printer, the *time* being a dead loss, from a monetary point of view. He next desired to go collecting in the Malay Islands, and, after much difficulty and delay, Government, at the instance of Sir Roderick Murchison, who was no ordinary scientist, but a swell, presented him with a first-class ticket overland to Singapore.

Wallace remained in the Malay Archipelago for eight years, studying the living forms in the forests of the chief islands and many smaller ones. He was thirty-one when he went, thirty-nine when he returned. Those years were passed in intellectual solitude. All that time he hardly spoke except in Malay, a language without abstractions, comparatively. His only constant servant was a native picked up on the north shore of Borneo. That such a life must bring a great but dangerous education to a young man we may be sure. He came home even more ignorant of how to steer his bark than he went out. He had gone for no better reason than that he was captivated by the accounts of the fauna and flora. He had not the slightest idea that he was going to the one country where a collecting naturalist could gather a fortune in specimens. Before he returned, he committed the folly of sending home a paper giving the theory of natural selection, and defending it. Was he a duke or a millionaire, that he could afford to shock every right-minded man with such a theory, whose enormity was aggravated by its being pretty evidently true? Perhaps he thought it his duty to mankind, though mankind decidedly thought not; yet even when he learned that Darwin had long had in hand a great work to the same purport, he had not the common sense to suppress his own book, and sink it deeper than ever plummet sounded. His conception of Natural Selection (at least, as he now holds it) is superior to Darwin's, in that he maintains that variation in every character of every form is so great in every generation that the vast majority of the young are destroyed without reproducing; so that a new species could be established in a century, if changes in the environment were rapid enough to call for such swift transformation. Of course, such variations exist.

Returning to England, he found he had earned a competence. Let him keep still, leave mankind to shift for itself, and distrust his own potential folly, and a happy life was before him. Alas! his ignorance of the world and want of appreciation of that ignorance were such that ere long the savings were evaporated, and he found himself in the desperate condition of having to live on his pen. Still, even then, had he written what was most conservative and indisputable, carefully concealing his original power, he might doubtless have obtained an appointment to a position where he could give carefully measured vent to his genius. But, perhaps feeling that he had not been put into the world for that, he preferred defending startling hypotheses that are not of a nature to be verified or disproved by decisive experiment. The result naturally was to press him more and more into byways of thought, diverging constantly further from the sober conservatism of worldly interest. Far be it from us to blame the veteran naturalist whose paradoxes have been so instructive to us. But it concerns us to understand how he came to develop as he did, since several of his arguments must derive much of their weight with the general public from the high scientific standing of their author; and two of the most impressive chapters of the present volumes are calculated and partly intended to produce momentous changes of the reader's opinions largely by force of the confidence he will have come to place in the author's power of eliciting the truth of the matter to which they relate.

We repeat that Wallace is a great scientific reasoner; and of course this implies that he is perfectly fair-minded, and sincerely anxious to do full justice to that side of each question which he combats. We may add that, where he differs most from received opinions, his arguments are in general the most carefully considered and consequently the strongest. Certainly, his argument against vaccination, as it is presented in his 'Studies,' is extremely strong. The presentation of it in his 'Wonderful Century' has been more admired by lawyers, but its force is too much directed against refuting his opponents rather than to studying the facts of the case.

The spiritualistic experiences detailed in the second volume of 'My Life' simply cannot be read by any person of open mind without producing a strong impression. But the author admits that the impressive phenomena come very rarely; and when we turn to such a book as Arthur Lillie's account of his friend, the Rev. William Stainton Moses, who was probably in all respects that one of the powerful mediums who most inspires confidence, and there see in what an ocean of incredible nonsense the manifestations are swamped, we ask ourselves whether it is possible for anybody to hold his attention long upon such dire rubbish without great danger of being thrown into such an abnormal state of mind that his testimony may perhaps be no better than that of a person in an hypnotic trance. At any rate, it is the most unwholesome nutriment for the mind, and we are glad that Mr. Wallace did not long continue his active interest in it.

His Socialistic doctrine, which seems to be of a variety peculiar to himself, rests wholly upon a definition of justice as requiring that every child shall have, in every respect, an opportunity precisely equal to every other's. He seems to think it an axiom that such justice ought to be carried out. It is a kind of justice singularly at variance with the dealings of nature with individuals. It could only be remote from viva-voce criticism and discussion that such a proposition could in his mind be metamorphosed from being a thing impossible to believe to being a thing impossible to doubt.

To sum up, this is certainly a very entertaining book, highly instructive in several distinct ways. The volumes are very attractively clothed, and there is an index of near fifty pages.

THE AMERICAN NATION UP TO '89.

Preliminaries of the Revolution, 1763-1775. By George Elliott Howard. [The American Nation, vol. viii.] Pp. xviii., 359. Harpers. 1905.

The American Revolution, 1776-1783. By Claude Halstead Van Tyne. [The Ameri-

can Nation, vol. ix.] Pp. xix., 369. Harpers. 1905.

The Confederation and the Constitution, 1783-1789. By Andrew C. McLaughlin. (The American Nation, vol. x.) Pp. xix., 348. Harpers. 1905.

The two volumes of Professor Hart's "American Nation" series which deal with the period of the Revolution will doubtless prove, to many readers, the most interesting volumes yet issued. In amount of matter and in general scope they naturally suggest comparison with the well-known work of John Fiske, but there is little besides the title in which the two works accord. In purely literary interest, and in the sure feeling for what is effective or dramatic in historical events, Fiske's superiority is unquestionable; but in just balance and proportion, in thoroughness of research, and in all-round attention to the various aspects of the subject, the volumes before us are far better, not only than Fiske's work, but also than any other account of the American Revolution of equal compass.

The distinctive character of the work of Professors Howard and Van Tyne will appear from an enumeration of the topics which the authors have included in their account of the Revolution, but which other writers have either omitted altogether or treated scantily or incidentally. Thus, Professor Howard begins with chapters on the Seven Years' War as "revealing an American people," on the British Empire under George III., and on the mercantile colonial system. A clear and unusually full account of the Stamp Act and Townshend Acts prepares the way for a discussion of episcopacy as a cause of the Revolution. The episcopal motive, first strongly urged by Mellen Chamberlain in his essay on John Adams, proved a prolific raiser of doubts to historians until Dr. Arthur L. Cross examined it in his 'Anglican Episcopate and the American Colonies.' Professor Howard adopts Dr. Cross's conclusion that "the strained relations which heralded the War of Independence strengthened the opposition to episcopacy, rather than that religious differences were a prime moving cause of political alienation" (p. 221). Of the remaining chapters, those on institutional beginnings in the West and on the early treatment of the Loyalists are the most distinctive.

Professor Van Tyne, who takes up the story at the outbreak of hostilities in 1775, prefaces his account with a summary review of the ground covered by Professor Howard—an instance of needless overlapping which this series for the first time presents—and then proceeds with a narrative in which purely military events are subordinated and attention centred with unusual directness on the civil history of the States and the work of the Continental Congress. On the subject of the Loyalists, and in general on the relations between Whigs and Tories, the author is an authority, and his treatment of the matter in the present work is of a high order. Both volumes are, as usual, well furnished with maps, while the bibliographical chapters survey the principal literature.

From the numerous interesting points which these volumes present, we select two only for brief special comment. The first is as to the light which the writers, particularly Professor Howard, have thrown on the vexed question of the cause of the Revolution. Speaking broadly, one may say that historians have tended to emphasize the political aspects of the early Revolutionary struggle, and to point out that it was apprehension rather than grievance that drove the colonies to revolt. The trouble with this theory is that it too much disregards the economic situation in America, and appears less conclusive the more the economic situation is revealed. On this fundamental point Professor Howard does not seem to us entirely clear. He tells us (pp. 64, 65), speaking of the old colonial system, that although the system as actually administered "did not prevent the great material prosperity of the colonists," and though "even the harsh restraint of manufacturers was quietly accepted," yet the system is nevertheless to be "regarded as the primary cause of the Revolution," for the reason that "it was wrong in principle and degrading in motive."

We have to confess to finding this confusing. It would be difficult to instance a social upheaval at all comparable to the American Revolution which was brought about by revolt against a system, of which one could only say that it was "wrong in principle and degrading in motive." If the restrictive system actually interfered but slightly with the prosperity of the colonies, one can but wonder why the colonies revolted at it. The case seems to be, rather, that the Americans were poor, that they profited much less than has commonly been supposed from the lax enforcement of the trade laws, and that under the restrictive system there was small chance of accumulating either capital or wealth. When, then, the Sugar Act, the Stamp Act, and the Townsend Acts undertook to take money from America directly, in addition to what had previously been exacted indirectly, the people rebelled because they could pay no more. In other words, the American Revolution, like other revolutions, shows how the political motive—naturally the one to be emphasized to the world at large—waits on the economic motive and then supplants it. Professor Howard has given us an admirable survey of the political side of the early Revolutionary period, but he has not, we think, sufficiently shown how the low economic development of the colonies, and the consequent inability of the people to pay greater tribute to the mother country than they had long been doing, bred certain revolt when pressure grew too great, and afforded the indispensable basis for political agitation from 1770 to 1775.

The second point is suggested by Professor Van Tyne's discussion of the relation of the States to the general Government under the Continental Congress. Of the many prepossessions with which the study of American history has been approached, none has come to be more dominant than that which ascribes to the United States, as against the States, the possession of sovereignty, and that, too, from the beginning of federal union. The theory has the support of great names. It has been employed for the triumphant vindication of the national as opposed to the State-rights view of the Constitution. It is the accepted opinion of the Supreme Court. It has never, indeed, satisfied historians. President (then Professor) Woodrow Wilson challenged it, a dozen years ago, in his 'Division and Reunion,' and made no small stir by doing so; for his statement that "the doctrine that the States had individually become sovereign bodies when they emerged from their condition of subjection to Great Britain as colonies, and that they had not lost their individual sovereignty by entering the Union, was a doctrine accepted almost without question, even by the courts, for quite thirty years after the formation of the Government" ('Division and Reunion,' p. 45), appeared to not a few legalists to justify the essential positions of Hayne, Calhoun, and all the rest of the State-rights leaders.

Professor Van Tyne, writing as an historian, rather than a lawyer, has tested the theory by the facts so far as the origin of State and national Governments is concerned, and with the result of showing, we think with near approach to conclusiveness, that the notion of national sovereignty and State subordination, however inevitable as a constitutional theory later, has in the Revolutionary period only a slender historical foundation. If anything is clear beyong cavil from Professor Van Tyne's imposing array of evidence, it is that the States, throughout the Revolution, were practically independent sovereignties, acting together, it is true, for the attainment of certain common ends, but surrendering none of their sovereign powers in so doing. This is not the place to indicate the bearing of Professor Van Tyne's conclusions on the subsequent constitutional development of the United States. It will certainly be interesting to see how far later writers in the "American Nation" series agree with him. It may be pointed out, however, that his findings have marked significance for the constitutional discussions of the first thirty years of the constitutional period, that they give a new meaning to Webster's great victory over Hayne, and that they afford food for thought in our own day, when the federal powers are undergoing such extraordinary expansion.

In his editorial introduction to Professor McLaughlin's volume, Professor Hart observes that, notwithstanding the familiar designation of the years from 1783 to 1789 as the "critical period" of American history, it nevertheless "seems doubtful whether it was really a time of such danger of national dissolution as people then and since have supposed." We question if a careful reading of this volume will materially dim the impression of the period as one of grave crisis and serious public danger, but there will be general accord with Professor Hart's further observation that the work tends to show "a more orderly, logical, and inevitable march of events than has commonly been described." The book is, indeed, an important contribution to our knowledge of an obscure and little-known period, and may be expected to become the recognized authority, in moderate compass, on the events with which it deals.

The fundamental problem of the period, as Professor McLaughlin views it, was that of imperial organization. Out of the varied elements afforded by thirteen different communities was to be formed, if possible, a national government. Those communities, though forming from north to south a continuous line, were extensively dispersed.

They had had diverse origins, and were still, at the end of a joint war, widely different, not only in natural resources, but also in the character of their people, in their local political institutions, and in their ambitions and hopes. Jealous of one another, they were still more jealous of any central authority that should attempt to control them; for they had fought a long and costly war against imperial authority, and were little disposed to replace one *imperium* by another. Yet it was equally clear that their prosperity, if not, indeed, their independence, hung upon union. The problem was the reconciliation of these opposing forces, the harmonizing of these apparently irreconcilable differences. That the people of the United States should have succeeded, in the short space of seven years, in constructing a "new roof" under which all could eventually gather, and which, with some extensions and alterations, serves to-day better even than it served then, is one of the marvels of modern history.

This is not the place to comment in detail on the numerous points on which Professor McLaughlin's researches throw new light, or in regard to which he has summarized with skill the conclusions of others. The narrative begins with the last military operations of the war, and ends with the ratification of the Constitution by the States. One notices throughout, in the discussion of diplomatic questions, the favorable attitude towards Jay, whose career as a diplomatist has hardly received due appreciation at the hands of scholars. On the much-debated question of the attitude of Vergennes during the peace negotiations, Professor McLaughlin, while recognizing Jay's "admirable boldness" in taking heavy responsibility before the arrival of Adams, reaches also the cautious conclusion that Jay was "somewhat too suspicious of France," that "there is as yet no evidence that [Vergennes] had much at heart the limitation of America's territory," and that Franklin, who had laid the plans for the negotiations, would not "easily" have "surrendered any of the American claims" (pp. 31, 32). A similar friendliness towards Madison appears in the account of the Federal Convention and elsewhere. May it not be that the exceeding value of Madison's 'Notes' has led to some overestimate of his actual influence in shaping the Constitution, and that there were other members of the Convention—for example, Oliver Ellsworth—whose influence has not yet been given due weight?

The diplomatic relations of the United States between 1783 and 1789, especially those with Spain over the navigation of the Mississippi, are skilfully traced, with severe but merited condemnation of Wilkinson for his shady intrigues. There are informing, though brief, chapters on the organization of the Northwest Territory and the founding of new Western commonwealths, though both the Ordinance of 1787 and the public-land system would seem to merit a more extended treatment. The harsh handling of Loyalists after the peace, the disastrous experiments of States and nation with paper money, and Shays's rebellion are other main topics to whose better understanding the volume makes more or less significant contributions. If Professor McLaughlin's work were designed for a text-book, it would quite certainly not find favor in Rhode Island, for in no recent work which has come under our eye have the early financial vagaries of that commonwealth been more roundly scored.

About half of the volume is devoted to the formation and adoption of the Federal Constitution. As a clear and orderly account of events, from the first proposals to alter the Articles of Confederation to the enthronement of the Constitution as the law of the land, the chapters leave little to be desired; for while the detailed story of a constitutional convention can hardly be made entertaining, Professor McLaughlin does write interestingly and handles facts skilfully. At one important point, however, we think his narrative incomplete. No writer, so far as we recall, has yet given an entirely satisfactory explanation of the speedy and marked success of the Constitution and of the government under it. The usual explanation has been, of course, that the Constitution was superior to the Articles of Confederation; and writers have vied with one another in pointing out the defects and weaknesses of the earlier instrument. Professor McLaughlin, it should be said, does not share this view; on the contrary, he is of the opinion that the Articles "were in many respects models of what articles of confederation ought to be, an advance on previous instruments of like kind in the world's history"; and that "their inadequacy arose from the fact that a mere confederacy of sovereign States was not adapted to the social, political, and industrial needs of the time" (p. 49).

A complete answer to the query as to the reasons for the success of the Constitution would take us outside the chronological limits of Professor McLaughlin's book. What, however, the author has not brought out with sufficient clearness is the economic preparation for the Constitution in the revival of trade, manufactures, commerce, agriculture, and the fisheries during the last years of the Confederation. He gives us, to be sure, two chapters on commercial and financial conditions, but the narrative stops with 1786, thus largely dropping out of sight the economic activities of the United States for the three years immediately preceding the inauguration of the government under the Constitution. There seems to be reason for believing that, while the Articles of Confederation became discredited because of the wretched condition of the country in 1781 and immediately thereafter, they might very possibly have worked fairly well for some years after 1787 had not the demand for a "more perfect union" fortunately reached a climax at that time; and that the adoption of the Constitution, coinciding as it did with a return of prosperity, ensured for that instrument a success which otherwise might well have been partial and delayed. Professor McLaughlin's presentation of the political history of the Confederation period is, as a whole, of such merit that we can but regret that he has not ploughed more deeply in the economic field.

Irish History and the Irish Question. By Goldwin Smith. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1905. Pages 270.

A history of Ireland from the earliest times, compressed into less than 200 pages, must necessarily be little more than an imperfect sketch, however skilfully the compression is made. Professor Smith's account is concise to a degree that is actually misleading. Excessive compression may account for his very positive statements of facts not clearly known, for his explicit descriptions of ancient customs, of events shrouded in the mists of ages, of ancient laws which the most learned antiquarians have hesitated to speak of positively. Examples are his description of tribal land tenures; his statement that "there seem to be no remains clearly Druidic in Ireland," though the numerous cromlechs and stone circles for which Ireland is so remarkable are usually held to be Druidic, and Druids are specifically mentioned in ancient legends. Topical nomenclature, too, seems to attest their existence.

The rapid sketch of the chief events of Irish history does not profess to be founded on any original research or independent study. It is a brilliant and lucid recital of well-known facts, of many incidents that are well known not to be true, or that are at any rate doubtful. The story is throughout strongly tinged with Mr. Smith's own views, which are markedly anti-Irish and anti-Catholic, and is plainly used as a peg on which to hang his opinions on the "Irish question," *i. e.*, the present state of Ireland, and the causes of the lamentable decay, poverty, and depopulation we are now witnessing.

With surprising frankness, shall we say? Mr. Smith tells, in his preface, what opportunities he had for forming these opinions. He spent a summer forty-six years ago in Phœnix Park as guest of Chief Secretary Cardwell, and there "had the advantage" of discussing the Irish question with "such friends as Lord Chancellor O'Hagan, Robert Lowe, Sir Alexander MacDonald, and other Irish Liberals of the moderate school"; he visited Maynooth College and "conversed with its excellent principal," and, some years later, when attending the Social Science Congress, was the guest of Lord O'Hagan in Dublin. His confidence in the wisdom of his Irish friends and instructors has remained unshaken, or rather has been strengthened by the course of events.

The view that "the sources of Ireland's sorrows are to be found in natural circumstance and historical fact rather than in the crimes and follies of man," is sufficiently refuted by the grim facts of history as sketched by Professor Smith. That "interest of every kind seems to enjoin the union of the islands" is a somewhat vague statement which suggests the questions, Whose interest? and, What kind of union? The government of Ireland as a subordinated and conquered country by England has never been what could be called a union. After describing the horrors of the famine and accompanying pestilence, the savage clearances and heartless evictions, the consequent dire suffering and misery, Mr. Smith says: "Civilized Europe could show nothing like it. It was enough to break for ever the spirit of the nation, . . . and here the main cause was *misgovernment and bad law.*" According to current English ideas and those of the mild Anglo-Irish reformers of 1860, in whom Mr. Smith places his confidence, Ireland was and is by nature a grazing country; destined to pasture; un-

suited to tillage"; "overpopulated"—"the people priest-ridden"; "early marriages encouraged by the priests, perhaps not without an eye to fees"; the people prone to commit causeless outrages, for which repression by continual Coercion Acts is the only remedy unless Government abdicates. These ideas are still current among some Englishmen, and are apparently held by Mr. Smith. When it is shown that there is much less crime in Ireland than in England, the usual answer is that if there is not overt crime, the country reeks with "sedition," *i. e.*, discontent—a mental crime.

Mr. Smith is very convinced and positive on the subject of overpopulation. It is still a question with him whether Ireland can support her present population of 4.4 millions. Speaking of the early part of last century, he says: "The millions had gone on multiplying with animal recklessness." "Between 1801 and 1841 the population had increased by three millions." Whether such increase is reckless, can be judged only by comparison with other countries. No census was taken in Ireland until 1821, but the accepted estimate of population in 1801 was 5,395,000. In 1841 the population was 8,199,853, an increase of 54 per cent. During the same period in England the increase of population was 77 per cent., and in Scotland 63 per cent. Between 1821 and 1841 the increase in Ireland was 20 per cent., while in England it was 33 per cent. Even before the famine, Ireland showed that tendency to a low birth-rate which has since increased and been the wonder of all vital statisticians. If the Catholic priests have inculcated early marriages, they have been singularly unsuccessful in Ireland, for the marriage-rate has for more than fifty years, during which it has been under observation, been exceptionally low as compared with other countries. Bertillon, in his 'Cours de Statistique,' says: "En Irelande, la proportion des femmes mariées est extrêmement faible, et de plus elles ne sont pas plus fécondes que celles de Suisse."

With regard to the alleged influence of the Catholic priests in politics it may be noted that they have openly opposed every popular movement during the last century, but after a time they had to follow the people; they were led rather than leaders. As a body they opposed the 1848 uprising; they gave information to the Government of the abortive Phœnix conspiracy; they denounced the Fenian and Land League movements. Yet the leaders of these movements have been those whom the people still delight to honor. The convicted rebels John Mitchel and O'Donovan Rossa were elected to Parliament in spite of the priests. "No priest in politics" became a watchword in some districts. "We will take our religion from Rome, not our politics," was the repeated declaration of the National League leaders. In Home Rule elections Protestant Home Rulers defeated Catholic candidates supported by the clergy. In the face of such facts, what meaning is to be attached to the term "priest-ridden"? Equally unsupportable is the allegation that the priest has "discouraged and thwarted the extension of popular education." The Catholic clergy have covered the most desolate parts of the country with schools, nearly all of which are placed under the control of the National Board of Education, on which, in proportion to their numbers, the Catholics are very inadequately represented. Educational experts sent from England to report on the Irish schools have found the most efficient to be those managed and taught by nuns and Christian brothers.

One of the most striking misconceptions is with regard to the objects of the Gaelic League, which Mr. Smith trusts will "hardly carry its patriotism so far as to darken its mind by unlearning English." Again, it is stated that the office of Lord Lieutenant has been retained only in deference to the wish of Ireland. This is a subject on which public opinion has not been expressed for some years, but the published constitution of the National League stated one of its objects to be "the abolition of the office of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland." For a final criticism, Ireland "received," says Mr. Smith, "the boon of national and undenominational education a generation before England." Now the primary schools in Ireland are called National schools, but education is neither universal nor compulsory. It is strictly denominational, to such an extent that where the population of any locality consists of different religious sects, each may have a separate school. Thus, besides a Protestant and a Catholic school, there may be also a Presbyterian and a Methodist school in the same district—four bad schools in mean buildings in place of one good school with efficient teachers and suitable appliances.

Mr. Smith draws a gloomy picture of an independent Ireland, "severed from Great Britain"; but no representative politicians propose, or ever proposed, such a severance as he contemplates. The importance of the Irish question, on the other hand, he recognizes in his concluding sentence: "What far-off object of aggrandizement can be half so important as a contented and loyal Ireland?"

Impressions of Japanese Architecture and the Allied Arts. By Ralph Adams Cram. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co. 1905. Pp. xi, 227.

Arts and Crafts of Old Japan. By Stewart Dick. Edinburgh: T. N. Foulis; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1905. Pp. 153.

Mr. Cram's book contains fifty-two half-tone prints in brown. There are landscape subjects, such as Plate I., "Lord Fuji," that is to say, Fuji-San, or Fujiyama, and Plate LII., "A Vision of Fujiyama." There are also subjects of mingled landscape and human art, as in the distant and nearer views of buildings seen with their surroundings, such as Plate XXVI., "Narita Steps," Plate XLI., "A Farmhouse," with Fuji in the background, and Plate XVIII., "A Torii," with lake and mountain beyond. Then there are views of buildings, selected with special regard to their architectural character, such as Plate VI., the "Yakushiji Pagoda," the same picture as that given in the illustration to this author's article on Japan in the 'Dictionary of Architecture and Building.' The argument as to the supreme excellence of this pagoda is hard to follow without other photographs, taken, moreover, from other points of view for comparison's sake. Other such pictures are those of the Ho-o-do at Uji, Plates VII. and VIII. This building also is given and considered by Mr. Cram in his Dictionary article named above. It is therefore evident that these buildings are selected by our author with special regard to their supreme importance in the history of architectural art in the Far East. For, it must be said here, Mr. Cram's assumption is that the beauty of curve in the overhanging and ribbed roofs of these pagodas is the chief thing in their design, or in the external architecture of Japan. Now such refinements are out of the way in all modern European designing, and are only slightly affected by the great styles of the past—by that of the earlier Renaissance, by Greek art in its prime, by the most advanced period of the Romanesque; while the creators of great building styles, Egyptian and Gothic, for instance, were too busy to care supremely for subtleties of curve and slope. Hence most designers in architecture live and die without any aspiration toward such exquisiteness of curvature as Mr. Cram finds in those early existing wooden towers of Japan. So with the sanctuary at Uji named above, the terms used in connection with it are such as these—"the almost inconceivable grace and dignity of this unique building," "this wonderful building," "exquisite as this building is from without." And if we quote these strong words of praise, it is with the single purpose of explaining to the reader what kind of a book he has before him. It is the work of a man who finds perfected Japanese designs as nearly supreme as any decorative art in the world can be. He says (p. 81) that "Japanese architecture is at first absolutely baffling, ... so utterly foreign, so radically different in its genesis, so aloof in its moods and motives from the standards of the West." It is shown with perfect truth and with suggestive touches that the training of the European mind has been on wholly different lines, and that though we can "think forward in the terms of the West, we can hardly think backward in the terms of the mysterious East."

For good and for evil, then, we have a book of extreme subtlety of thought, which is increased by the strongly religious turn that all Mr. Cram's reasoning is apt to take. In the second page of the text (p. 16) there is reference to divine revelation, and the whole of the first chapter is composed with an overhanging sense of the direct divine inspiration of human enlightenment. The reader may confess to an imperfect understanding of the argument on page 22, as to the small influence of the successive religious creeds or practices upon the immutable civilization of Japan; but the critical tone of that first chapter is faultless, and it is well for every student of the subject to read it over more than once before undertaking the severely abstract reasoning of Chapter II., which deals with the early architecture of Japan.

Chapter III. treats of the later architecture of the country; Chapters IV. and V., of temples and shrines and temple-gardens; Chapter VI., of domestic interiors; three chapters still, of sculpture and portable works of decoration, while the tenth and final chapter is a rather hopeless forecasting of what may perhaps come to replace the presumably dead art of Old Japan by a new art of their own, not to be confound-

ed with that of European origin. In all this the same intelligent sympathy guides the observer, both in what is said (pp. 135-136) of the superior taste and delicacy of the Japanese interior, and in the close examination of pictorial art in the Far East in the chapter devoted to "A Color Print of Yeizan."

The book on 'Arts and Crafts of Old Japan' is confessedly a study of the fine arts of Japan, for although the term "arts and crafts" is generally taken as meaning decorative arts only, and those minor ones, yet it is properly used by Mr. Dick to include painting of landscape, of human character and of incident; and bronze statuary, even of colossal scale. The book has about thirty half-tone plates, each one representing either a single large work of art or a number of smaller objects. Three or four landscape paintings are reproduced from the originals in the British Museum or in private hands, and, in like manner, ancient paintings of legend or of animal character are given, together with a few figure studies in wood-cuts, in black-and-white work, in India ink, or in painting. Three plates are devoted to that wonderful varnish painting which we call lacquer-work (though, or course, there is no *lac* anywhere about it), and these pieces are well chosen, for it was necessary to show a number of designs, and therefore we have in two plates eight *inro*, or portable medicine or perfume-cases, and another plate with one larger piece—the top of a writing-case—which is probably a foot long. Metal work and keramics each have three pictures, and of these it may be said that there is perhaps not such a perfect choice made, as some of the pieces seem to be modern in spirit; but the three illustrations to the chapter on sculpture and carving are admirably chosen.

As for the text, we are impressed with the sincerely sympathetic feeling of the critical examination. The book passes for a small and inexpensive guide to Japanese decorative art, but the descriptions and comments are full of a very delicate perception. The book seems also the best familiar study we have seen of the visible, tangible work of art which we get from Japan, as distinguished from the subtle influences which lie back of it.

Les Deux Frances et leurs Origines Historiques. Par Paul Seippel. Lausanne: Payot & Cie; Paris: Félix Alcan. 1905.

That this work has attracted immediate attention and stirred up lively discussion in central Europe, is in no wise surprising. Its author, a professor in the Federal Polytechnic School at Zurich, aims at establishing a comprehensive psychological thesis as preliminary to the political, and still profounder moral, lesson which he, as a Swiss of the broadest liberal school, would suggest to his French neighbors—his kin in race and speech if not in faith. Dealing with a vast historical generalization (to which ample reference will presently be made), the contention passes with easy strides to a possible application of wholesome and revivifying principles, all but lost sight of amid the rending passions over the struggle for power that has seemed within recent memory not merely to forebode a sundering of the integrity of the republic, but even to threaten national existence itself. The utterance of such deliverances in a tone of philosophical manliness, rising at times to the thrill of polemical ardor, is indeed a triumphant witness to the heritage of political discipline.

By "Les Deux Frances" M. Seippel means the two forces now at death-grips over the settlement of paramountcy in the State in matters ecclesiastical, both of equal intolerance and resolute in defending to the death the right of absolute power and final appeal. The intensity of this contest (which it is all but impossible for the average American to appreciate) is, according to the author, the unmistakable sign of the enduring *mentalité romaine*, the historical origin and implanting of which it is the chief object of this book to set forth, while pointing out at the same time that the initial impress, never obliterated, has ever been the great determinant in the moral and religious movements of *orthodox* France, under every régime. This spirit of absolutism M. Seippel conveys in a singularly bold figure:

"Le virus romain, issu de la décomposition du Bas-Empire, a été inoculé à un organisme jeune et plein de santé; son influence pernicieuse ne s'est fait sentir que graduellement et par des accidents d'une gravité croissante, à mesure que diminuait la force de résistance des tissus cellulaires. Les symptômes très variables de la maladie sont apparus avec une évidence particulière au moment des grandes crises, en particulier aux époques de la Réforme et de la Révolution. Et ce n'est pas seulement la vie politique de la nation qui en a été atteinte, c'est surtout la vie morale et religieuse. De l'ordre temporel, l'esprit césarien s'est communiqué à l'ordre spirituel" (Intr. xxix).

For this sweeping statement the author looks for verification in writers typical of successive periods, in each of whom he finds unswerving dogmatic fidelity to this or that universal creed—Calvin, Bossuet, Voltaire, Rousseau, Robespierre, Sieyès, Joseph de Maistre, and so on down to Comte and Brunetière. The list is a formidable one; every member in turn seeks to impose his ultimatum on the nation, even the professed liberals maintaining the "despotism of liberty" (p. 122): "Il y a toujours en France quelques docteurs de cette école-là" (p. 164). M. Seippel might feel surprised at finding himself here in unison with Paul de Kock, who in a sketch (1844) declared the motto of the boiling reformer to be "Je veux que le monde ait la liberté de faire tout ce que *je voudrai*." When temporary success attends either party, there promptly ensues the endeavor to establish a "delegation of conscience," involving submission to an allegiance strangely akin to the fealty exacted by our own labor unions but recently discussed in these columns; for through the manifold catechisms of what M. Seippel sarcastically calls "L'Église de la Libre Pensée," any reader may detect that its votaries are properly described as merely *inverted clericals*. What the author declares concerning the espionage on the private religious practice of officials (p. 273) has been attested to the present reviewer by immediate sufferers in ample number, who explained the difficulty (in certain communities) for an officer or a schoolmaster to countenance the piety of his own family while seeking to remain *bien vu*. And M. Seippel distributes his strictures impartially.

In the same spirit, he discusses (ch. xxi.) a number of so-called conversions—more properly, defections—to which the literary reputation of the penitents has given unwonted éclat. The resultant professions of faith, he holds, have naught in common with that of the Port-Royal recluses, any more than their noisy conversions can be likened unto that of Pascal: "C'est une religion d'utilité sociale, faite pour contenir les uns et pour rassurer les autres: la religion de la prudence, si ce n'est la religion de la peur" (p. 332). Throughout the recent struggle, M. Seippel professes to see no religious element whatever, while in the great crisis of the Reformation, religion, if not the sole, was the chief contention. On both sides to-day, he says, not a thought is given to it; the arguments adduced are exclusively political, to the obscuring of the one essential fact that, if true religion be still alive, politics will be powerless to eradicate it; while, supposing it to be already more than half extinct, its revival may safely be expected from persecution.

To discuss seriatim the various points raised in a carefully documented work of four hundred pages is well-nigh out of the question in a review. The impression that remains with the reader from M Seippel's work is that of somewhat overcharged pessimism—natural enough, perhaps, in an academically liberal Swiss, who seems to take his conclusions from books rather than from first-hand observations of the actual conditions of French social life, so little interfered with, *for the temperate and judicious*, by the inclemency of personal oppression. There may be lack of earnestness over weighty questions; still more, lack of fervor; but the generous confidence in the future which Frévost-Paradol expressed in 1869 in 'La France Nouvelle,' prevents any one closely familiar with the fundamentally serious character of the nation from apprehending a permanent check to liberal ideas from "cette résignation des gens éclairés et le découragement d'un grand nombre de bons citoyens."

On Ten Plays of Shakespeare. By Stopford A. Brooke. Henry Holt & Co. 1905.

Much criticism would become unnecessary if publishers would agree on some convenient way of indicating the precise public for which a book is intended. Sometimes the title gives a clue, sometimes the repute of the author; or in the preface an explicit statement of aim may be made. But frequently, as in the present instance, all these means fail us. The title, 'On Ten Plays of Shakespeare,' might attract a schoolgirl or a select audience of scholars. Mr. Brooke has written works varying so widely in point of appeal as to afford no definite presumption. And there is no preface. Accordingly, it remains for the reviewer to attempt so to describe the present volume as to define the public who may find satisfaction and profit in it.

The essays, then, take the form of a running comment on the plot, characters, and poetry of five of Shakspere's best-known comedies, three tragedies, and two histories. The author has no theory of the drama, no doctrine of Shakspere's development or secret of his personality to exploit. The ten essays are ten independent studies,

and might be printed or read in any order. There is no pretence of adding to the sum of our knowledge of the facts about these plays; nor, indeed, does the author show a profound knowledge of recent scholarship on the subject. It is clear, then, that the book is not aimed at the special student.

Neither will the general reader who knows his Shakspere, but is careless of monographs and *Jahrbücher*, find much satisfaction here. So much of the space is occupied by what such a reader will feel to be needless repetition of the familiar that, in spite of the author's fluency and ease of style, it will seem tedious. A happy phrase, a fresh point of view, a piece of sympathetic insight—these are indeed to be found not infrequently. But one who is familiar with the plays will usually prefer Shakspere's telling of the story, and will wish Mr. Brooke had taken more for granted, and had either put in more plums or had made his pudding smaller.

There remains the audience of beginners. No one who has had opportunity to test how far astray the young student may wander, not merely in the interpretation of character, but even in the understanding of what happens in a play, will deny the usefulness of a book which is not afraid of the obvious in such discussions as these. Mr. Brooke, at least, says the first things first, even if he seldom says the last word on anything. And to this third class of readers the facile eloquence of the style will give pleasure, without the irritation which the more seasoned student feels under the touch of condescension from which the reverend critic is seldom entirely free. It is significant that the three great tragedies of "Hamlet," "Lear," and "Othello" are not among the plays discussed. Yet the essay on "Macbeth" is perhaps the most satisfactory and substantial in the volume. Here, as elsewhere, the criticism of character is more penetrating than that of construction; and what is said of Macbeth himself is as suggestive as sound. Mr. Brooke emphasizes properly the predominance of imagination, and draws a valuable distinction when he points out that Macbeth's early compunctions were due less to conscience than to the sense of honor. He sums him up thus:

"On such a temperament, naturally brave, supernaturally fearful; weak in resolve, strong in imagination; a rude soldier with a poet's heart; honorable, but not having any moral foundation for his honor, without the conscience which is honor's guard; his honor only the custom of his class—on such a temperament falls the heavy temptation of ambition."

With the fundamental problem of Shaksperian tragedy, the attitude towards human life implied in the terrible catastrophes, Mr. Brooke attempts to grapple only in the essay on "Romeo and Juliet"; but here he suffers from comparison with the recent great work of Professor Bradley. His thought has neither the precision nor the depth of that masterly treatment; and the fact that it is easier to read, only confirms our conclusion that the present volume is primarily *virginibus puerisque*.

Renascence Portraits. By Paul Van Dyke, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

Under the above title, Professor Van Dyke gives in one volume studies of three men nearly contemporary in their activities, and representing different countries as well as different aspects of the Renaissance period. Thomas Cromwell in England, Pietro Aretino in Italy, and the Emperor Maximilian I. in Germany are certainly very striking types of a period fertile in individualities. Dr. Van Dyke's purpose in bringing together in this expanded form the substance of several articles contributed to popular magazines is to interest the general reader in the vivid contrasts of human life presented by each of the subjects he has treated. The transitional character of the age is reflected in the singular personal problem of each person here portrayed. In Cromwell we have a statesman struggling to carry a state through the tortuous ways of a breach with the old religious order and the establishment of a new one on a national basis; in Maximilian, a ruler whose fate it was to find himself the last representative of a theory of universal sovereignty and of the romantic age in a world intensely devoted to the practical problems of national development. In Pietro Aretino we see the literary artist, victim of an æsthetic standard divorced from moral content, compelled to utterance by virtue of his instinctive artistic quality, but without a literary material adequate to his creative powers.

Each of these men was a failure in his line. Cromwell, driven to time-serving, perished with his work undone. Maximilian, swept along for a while by generous ideals of national development, found himself diverted from these, and swamped in the mad race for expansion in Italy. Aretino, admired, feared, and execrated in his day, has left a foul name as his only permanent heritage. It is a grateful subject, and Dr. Van Dyke has done a service in bringing it before English readers. He has read widely and well in the period. His style is pleasant if without distinction. Yet the book as a whole is not convincing. It betrays too clearly its publicistic origin. The general reader, not very familiar with the subject, would hardly feel the elements of unity we have suggested. Even viewed as separate portraits, these studies leave an indistinct impression. The essence of a literary portrait as of a painted one is that it separates its subject from all confusing accessories, and stamps its personality vividly on the mind of the observer. Only in the case of Aretino does Dr. Van Dyke answer to this demand. In the other essays we are let into the workshop a little too intimately. The author has not known how to resist the temptation to wander into much detail that does not bear directly on the impression he wishes to create, and his picture is consequently blurred and inadequate.

An appendix of forty pages discusses the value of Cardinal Pole's 'Apologia ad Carolum Quintum' as a basis for judging the character of Cromwell, and touches incidentally the mooted question whether a certain book which Cromwell offered to lend Pole was Machiavelli's 'Principe.' Dr. Van Dyke offers some plausible reasons for believing that it was not the 'Principle,' but the 'Cortegiano' of Castiglione.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Samuel, The Writings of. Edited by Harry Alonzo Cushing. Vol. II. Putnams. $5.
Andreas and the Fates of the Apostles. Edited by George P. Knapp. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Beha-Ullah. Les Préceptes du Béhaïsme. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Brown, Vincent. The Sacred Cup. Putnams. $1.50.
Channing, Edward. The Jeffersonian System. Harpers. $2 net.
Daniell, Walter V. Collectanea Napoleonica. London: Walter V. Daniell.
Elson, Henry William. School History of the United States. Macmillan Co. 90 cents.
Foster, George Burman. The Finality of the Christian Religion. The University of Chicago Press.
Gallawoy, Julia R. When the Lilacs Bloom. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Henderson, T. F. Mary Queen of Scots. 2 vols. Imported by Scribners. $6 net.
Holland, Lord. Further Memories of the Whig Party, 1807-1821. Dutton. $5 net.
Koones, J. Alexander. Everybody's Law Book. Hitchcock Publishing Co.
Liljencrantz, Ottilie A. Randvar the Songsmith. Harpers. $1.50.
Maartens, Maarten. The Healers. Appleton. $1.50.
Mark Twain's Library of Humor. Harpers. $1.50.
Morse, Margaret. The Spirit of the Pines. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Müller, J. P. My System. G. E. Stechert & Co.
Ober, Frederick A. Columbus the Discoverer. Harpers. $1 net.
Osbourne, Lloyd. Wild Justice. Appleton. $1.50.
Ostwald, Wilhelm. Individuality and Immortality. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Papers of the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts. Vol. I. Petersburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Pritchett, Henry S. What is Religion? Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.
Rhodes, Harrison Garfield. The Lady and the Ladder. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Robie, Virginia. Historic Styles in Furniture. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone.
Roessler, Arthur. Neu-Dachau. Lemcke & Buechner.
Rose, J. Holland. The Development of the European Nations. Vol. II. Putnams. $2.50.
Sankey, Ira D. Sankey's Story of the Gospel Hymns. Philadelphia: The Sunday School Times. 75 cents.
Spargo, John. The Bitter Cry of the Children. Macmillan Co.
Studies in Verse. The Grafton Press.
Sturgis, Howard Overing. All that was Possible. Putnams. $1.50.
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The Week.

A sense of humor is necessary to make public life "tolerable," argued Sir Wilfrid Lawson, the other day, when nominating the Speaker of the House; and it needed a very strong sense of humor to enable the President to maintain his equipoise when he discovered that Senator Tillman had been put in official charge of his pet railway legislation. The step was, to be sure, a logical sequence of the reporting out of the Hepburn bill by a combination of all the Democrats with the radical Republicans of the committee. Yet there appears to have been something like malice in it. Senator Aldrich's fine Italian hand was never more visible than in the substitution of Tillman for Dolliver as Mr. Roosevelt's latest "spokesman." Here is the piece of legislation nearest the President's heart confided to the man who has most violently attacked him. He is a man, furthermore, who has a reputation as a leveller and almost a revolutionary in his political principles. To his tender mercies is confided the bill which Mr. Roosevelt has urged as a means of forestalling the extremists! Yet in such ways do inner and deep political affinities have a way of asserting themselves, in rude disregard of personal wishes or official dignity.

It is clear to us that the only real contest left over the railway-rate bill relates to the right of judicial review of the decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission. On this point, Senator Knox's section, in his personal bill introduced on Thursday, seems admirably drawn. It would doubtless save the law from being declared unconstitutional—a danger to which the unamended Hepburn bill is thought by good lawyers to be manifestly exposed—and promises to be equitable in operation. The provision that the railroads are to give a bond, during the suspension and litigation of any order reducing freight rates, to pay back overcharges to shippers in case the courts decide against them, seems to meet all the ends of justice. Of course, in actual practice, the railroads would have occasion to fight very few orders in the courts; but they ought not to be deprived of the right to do so, under proper safeguards. It is now evident that the final form of the bill will preserve them this right; and if disappointed radicals like Senator Dolliver assert that this will reduce the whole measure to a nullity, they only thereby disclose the fact that they were contemplating a plan impossible under the Constitution.

If the Senate was practically unanimous for the Pure Food bill, as the vote showed on February 21, the only wonder is that it should have taken fifteen years of agitation to pass it. As a matter of fact, the defeat of the bill, once it was brought to a vote, was never among the possibilities. The four Southern Democrats who cast negative votes did so on grounds that had really nothing to do with the actual need for legislation on the subject, or the merits of the particular measure. The history of the Pure Food bill has been used as an example of the way in which special interests can secure the indefinite postponement of good legislation. It might also be taken to show the possibilities of misrepresenting the actual effect of such a measure. Argument after argument has been put forth on the assumption that the Heyburn-Hepburn bill (1) interfered with the right of the States to regulate the standards of food products within their own borders, (2) gave the Secretary of Agriculture power arbitrarily and without a hearing to publicly declare any food product to be injurious, and (3) required the publication of trade secrets in the shape of formulas. Really, it does none of those things. With those misconceptions cleared away, as was promptly done by the able speeches of Senators Heyburn and McCumber and others favoring the bill, there was literally nothing to do but support it.

Meanwhile, those manufacturers whose business would come under the scope of the bill and who yet accepted it as inevitable, have adopted a much franker and more candid attitude toward the public. Since their goods must hereafter be sold on their merits, if at all, they are beginning to argue that they have merits. There has been altogether too much talk about "poisoning" in connection with the pure-food agitation. The real evil has been plain swindling, and the majority of adulterated products are perhaps as innocuous as the historic wooden nutmeg. There are many products, now systematically sold as something they are not, for which there should be a perfectly legitimate demand when they are offered for just what they are and at reasonable prices. There is undoubtedly not a little unreasonable prejudice combined with the very just resentment of the public against the frauds that have been practised in past years. Instead of yielding to the groundless caprice of the consumer, the passage of the Pure Food bill ought to be the first step toward removing it.

"To give America time to think," was the German Government's explanation in the Reichstag of its willingness to make a provisional tariff arrangement with the United States. There is, of course, a veiled threat in the words, though they only follow, after all, what Secretary Root has said of his hope that the Senate may prove less obdurate next winter. But the idea that what we need is time to "think" about the tariff! Thought is the last thing lacking. Take Massachusetts, for example, a very factory of Republican thought. It is about all one way there—except for Lodge. The Democrats to a man want the tariff revised, and the Republican Governor has written to the President urging that something be done at once to preserve the party from disaster. And that is very much the case the country over. As a matter of mere intellectual conviction, the agreement is well-nigh absolute that the present tariff is a burden grievous to be borne, yet bound upon the shoulders of Americans by selfish interests intrenched in political power. But protection simply grins and asks what we are going to do about it. It will never be made to budge by pure thought, we may depend upon it. Some sort of *vis a tergo* will have to be applied—and it may take the form of a Democratic majority in the next House.

There are thirty-seven Representatives whose districts include ports of entry where the expenses exceed the receipts. A fortnight ago, when Chairman Payne of the Ways and Means Committee tried to bring up a bill authorizing the President to rearrange the customs machinery on business lines—not necessarily abolishing all these ports, but consolidating the ones with small reason for existence—just three of those thirty-seven voted favorably. They were William Alden Smith of Michigan, Republican; John Austin Moon of Tennessee, and John Sharp Williams of Mississippi, Democrats; and their names deserved to be registered on the deplorably short roll of legislators willing to apply principles of wider application where any local interest is involved. There voted against considering the bill 16 Republicans and 11 Democrats who had unprofitable custom houses in their districts, while 6 Republicans and 1 Democrat were among those "not voting." Among the "nays" were to be found two members, Allen of Maine and Gardner of New Jersey, who had two of the "fake ports" at home, and six members, Burleigh of Maine, Greene of Mas-

sachusetts, Hermann of Oregon, Lovering of Massachusetts, Patterson of North Carolina, and Thomas of North Carolina, with two each. It was not the vote of these quasi port-wardens that defeated Mr. Payne's manifestly proper bill, to be sure, for, leaving them out of account, the vote would have stood 136 to 84; but we get as nice a glimpse of the almost mathematical completeness of log-rolling methods as we have had in many sessions.

The history of pension order No. 78 will come to an end when Congress has enacted the substance of that famous regulation into law. It has not increased our appropriations by anything like the estimates made by hostile critics, nor even those which Commissioner Ware made the basis for asking a special appropriation. But it did swell by a very considerable sum the pension-roll. Of course, not all of the $3,668,-064 added to the total of pensions, nor all of the 78,800 claims allowed since the order was promulgated, are traceable to its workings. Still, the figures show that the average number of applications granted in a month has increased by nearly 10 per cent. since the order went into effect. A minimum estimate of the cost of the order might be made by reckoning from this additional number alone. There has been an average of 321 more applications granted monthly since April, 1904, than in the fiscal year before that. This would make, up to February 1, some 7,900. Supposing that these averaged $6 per month—the minimum pension for age alone—this would increase the roll by nearly $560,000. It is clear that veterans have not taken advantage to the full of the privilege extended to them. Also, it was not to be expected that the full effects would be manifest at once. It took three years for pension appropriations to reach their maximum after the passage of the sweeping act of 1890.

Francis Hendricks, State Superintendent of Insurance, is unsparingly pilloried in the Armstrong report. He appears, exactly as the evidence taken at the hearing shows him, either grossly incompetent or venal. Gov. Higgins has talked about the "fidelity and integrity" of his personal friend Hendricks; but Gov. Higgins, Superintendent Hendricks, and everybody else knows that fidelity is a virtue in which the head of the Insurance Department is conspicuously deficient. For the last five or six months Higgins has had ample evidence that—to quote the report—"most of the evils disclosed would have been impossible had the Department done its duty." Had the Governor not placed protection of his political crony above protection of the policyholders, he would have driven Hendricks from office early last autumn. Gov. Higgins has for many reasons richly merited public contempt, but nothing that he has done or left undone shows so clearly his feeble conception of duty as his retention of the disgraced Hendricks.

The resignation of Stuyvesant Fish from the directorate of the Mutual Life lays a heavy responsibility upon President Charles A. Peabody and the remaining trustees of the company. Mr. Peabody's explanations have neither obscured nor diverted attention from the fact that Mr. Fish was refused information which is absolutely essential to thorough investigation of the company's affairs. His committee was instructed by the trustees to go to the bottom; but when the probe struck the trustees themselves and perhaps certain others high in the management, his hand was stayed. So far as President Peabody and the Mutual Life are concerned, it is an unfortunate coincidence that Mr. Fish's withdrawal follows close on the publication of the Armstrong report. That document declares explicitly:

> "It does not appear that the board of trustees exercised any effective checks upon the management. . . . The committee on agencies did not supervise the most important of the agency contracts. The committee on expenditures permitted large disbursements without proper vouchers, and the auditing committee failed properly to audit the company's accounts."

We know that certain trustees were interested with the company in syndicate participations. The slackness of the management has thrown a majority of the board under the gravest suspicion. The singular thing is, that the members themselves, regardless of President Peabody and others who may have damaging facts to conceal, do not insist upon such a policy of drastic housecleaning and complete publicity as shall allay the widespread distruct of the Mutual. Under the present policy the management cannot hope for the support of sane and honest men. The revolution has begun, and it will not end, we venture to predict, until the Mutual is in the hands of men who will conduct it for the benefit of the policyholders.

With a single dissenting voice, the members of the National Academy of Design voted last week for union with the Society of American Artists. The plan of merger remains to be presented to a full meeting of the Society, but one need hardly expect opposition from that quarter. It is probable that the plan of federation which a joint committee has had under deliberation for more than a year, may yet be amended. There will remain also difficulties of a technical and legal sort, but on the main issue the late vote assures the union. It will be heartily welcomed by all lovers of art, for the differences between the older and younger organization had pretty well disappeared, and anything like a useful rivalry had ceased to exist. Being essentially one in purpose, further disunion would have been poor economy, while the partnership promises a renewal in authority and in strength. For the first time in more than a generation, we shall have an artists' society that fairly represents all schools and all quarters of the country. Such a body may confidently appeal to the wealth of this city for the larger exhibition quarters that are so much needed if the rejuvenated Academy is to have a public effect commensurate with its professional importance. Great credit is due the joint committee for elaborating out of a difficult situation a practicable scheme of union. Especial praise should fall to the old Academy for an act at once so generous and so expedient. For the sake of art in America it has made no mean contribution of snug endowments, not to mention the even greater sacrifice of the cherished academic right of preëmption of wall space ever too scanty.

The investigation into the public offices of Cincinnati and Hamilton County has begun with vigor. At the very first session of the legislative committee the County Treasurer, R. J. Hynicka, confessed that he had received in "gratuities" between $15,000 and $20,000 from banks which received from him a deposit of public moneys. He carefully explained that he had never asked for anything; the kind-hearted bankers merely realized how inadequate his official salary was and wanted to help him out. In other words, we have again been shown how political corruption finds its strongest supporters in the world of high finance, among the business men of high estate who fill the pews of the churches and so plaintively echo all regrets at the misgovernment of our cities. Behind the boss is ever the conscienceless banker or railroad president of life-insurance manager always so ready to "give up" to any politician who may strike him for this or that purpose. This Cincinnati investigation should make Ohio doubly glad over the Democratic victory last fall—the Republican members of the committee declining to serve. It has already borne out all that Secretary Taft said about the alliance between the Ohio boss and the corporations.

A Southern reader has called our attention to some refreshingly vigorous resolutions passed by the Etowah County Bar Association at Gadsden, Ala., in reference to the lynching of a negro named Richardson at that place on Sunday, February 11. A mob of some 25 or 30 persons broke into the county jail, took out the negro and put him to death because he was accused of the murder of a white woman. The grand jury had

investigated the case, and, failing to find any evidence connecting Richardson with the crime, did not indict him. The mob knew better, and took the opportunity offered by his being held to await the possible discovery of additional evidence. The Bar Association acted within forty-eight hours, and in this wise:

"Whereas, the lynching of a person by a mob is nothing less than murder in its vilest form, and is destructive to all law and order as well as of the great and saving teachings and principles of Christianity, now, therefore, be it resolved that the lynching of Bunk Richardson is greatly deplored and should be condemned by all law-abiding citizens of the county; that the murder of this man be and hereby is condemned in unmeasured terms; that all law-abiding citizens of the county are urged to coöperate with the Bar Association in quenching at once this unlawful and awful spirit of taking the life of a human being without a trial under the forms of law."

The Bar Association also called upon the ministers to instill a better spirit into the youth of the community. Our correspondent remarks with pride, and with truth, that no such ringing resolutions were passed by any association of lawyers when there was a lynching in Belleville, Ill., and that there was no similar public protest in Wilmington, Del., when that town was disgraced by a murderous mob.

The few Unionist members who "viewed with alarm" the Irish declarations in the King's speech were apparently very much alone in their opinion, and the first party division in the new House of Commons brought the handsome majority of 318 for the Government. This barren protest was, however, the occasion of an interesting statement from the Irish Secretary, Mr. James Bryce. He made it clear, while declining to go into details, that the Government would hold itself free to work towards Irish self-government. A rather striking and unexpected feature of his address was the statement that he regarded the mandate of the recent elections as plenary in all Irish matters. This is somewhat at variance with the tone of Liberal arguments during the campaigning; but, obviously, the Unionists are the last people to complain of such an interpretation of the elections. They opposed the Liberals precisely on the ground of the old Home Rule contention, and if the Liberals should actually propose legislation more radical than has been expected, they would merely be taking the Unionists at their word. Mr. Bryce's speech is important, then, because it shows that the Government will use a free hand in dealing with the Irish question. Mr. Redmond's followers are, probably, at best resigned to the prospect of measures which, being planned for their relief, they cannot well oppose, though in the shaping of which they are in no position to claim a leading part.

Naturally, John Morley has reversed the action of his predecessor in placing the military power above the civil in India. The biographer and pupil of Gladstone could not be expected to do otherwise, for he has himself traced the change of view which led the great Premier finally to realize, as he did not at first, the supreme importance of preserving the independence of the civil authority as opposed to the ecclesiastical or the military. When the Balfour Government finally crumbled, a shrewd English observer declared that, whatever else the Liberals might do, they would not dare to stop the importation of coolies into South Africa or to overrule Lord Kitchener, the popular military idol. The Liberals have shown that they possessed the necessary courage to do both these things, in addition to reaffirming Gladstone's Home Rule position, and their boldness must win them many friends, if only by the contrast between their courage and the timidity of Balfour. As for Lord Kitchener, he seems to have bowed to the inevitable with all possible grace; at least he has not asked for his recall, as did Lord Curzon when he was overruled. The closing of the incident leaves Curzon in a stronger position than ever, and will strengthen the belief held in many quarters that, if he has health and strength, a great future is before him.

It is seldom that an English city is hauled up by the courts for municipal trading *ultra vires*. Some years ago the London County Council was forbidden to run omnibuses in competition with private owners. It was held that this was an application of taxes and public funds to unauthorized purposes. A similar decision has recently been made, limiting the powers of the "Manchester Corporation Tramways Parcels Express." That corporation had undertaken to do a general express business, not only within Manchester, but with all parts of the United Kingdom. It quoted rates to Liverpool, held itself out as an agent for all railway companies, and also accepted "traffic for abroad." This business has now been held by Mr. Justice Farwell to exceed the powers of the Corporation. It is not authorized, the court decided, to operate beyond the lines of its own tramways. All this, of course, leaves municipal ownership and municipal operation undisturbed in Manchester; but the suit itself is a sign that, even in England, there is a feeling that the business has been overdone. Ratepayers there are suspecting, too, that the impaired borrowing powers of their cities are not wholly unrelated to municipal ownership.

A bill for old-age pensions has passed the French Chamber of Deputies. This is the first serious step towards fulfilling the promise made by Waldeck-Rousseau, seven years ago, when he organized the famous "Cabinet of Republican defence." The pledge was the price of support from the Socialists of the Chamber; it was probably given in the hope that the debt need never be liquidated. The measure was postponed from time to time, on the ground that the budget would not stand the strain; it has now taken a form by which the Treasury at least seems to be relieved of the greater part of the burden. The laborer and the employer contribute annually a percentage of the wage, and the Government makes up any deficiency in a pension which is to be sixty francs a month, falling due at the age of sixty-five. As a financial proposal, this is evidently open to grave objections. Though nominally outside the Treasury, the contributions of workman and employer are none the less a tax. The engagement of the Treasury is wholly incalculable, because it is very difficult to estimate either the number of pensioners or the extra-budgetary contributions. In fact, the discussion of the bill has been conducted with a fine disregard for mere figures. The other day the provisional pension granted pending the establishment of the permanent fund was raised from 50 to 120 francs, involving an increase on this score from 48,000,000 to at least 115,000,000 francs.

Of course, the establishment of a new department and the entrance of the Government into the business of insurance do not appear to be evils in centralized France. Graver objections are felt in the clashing of the new project with the workingmen's insurance societies and the retiring pensions voluntarily offered by many employers of labor. Some attempt has been made to consider these existing institutions in drafting the bill, but it is clear that the adjustment is a delicate one. Retiring pensions are very common in the better class of French business and manufacturing houses. Obviously, no business concern is going to pay the Government levy without reducing its own insurance reserve. In some cases there will be the temptation to abolish private funds, and simply pay the pension tax as the cheaper. An even weightier objection to the bill is that it burdens the Government with charges readily incurred, but hardly revocable. What popular Government has ever dared shorten the supply of bread and circuses, once granted? All these drawbacks will be carefully considered in the French Senate, for French statesmanship is not above the expedient of hurriedly passing a popular measure through the lower house, in order that the upper house may quietly let it die, and incidentally shoulder any resulting post-mortem unpopularity.

THE INSURANCE REPORT.

In the notable review of its work by the Armstrong insurance committee presented to the Legislature on Thursday, public interest will be divided between the very comprehensive summary of the facts elicited and the committee's proposals for reform. The summary of the evidence—considering the number and complexity of the points brought out in the testimony—is an achievement of extraordinary skill; we commend to every one interested in the insurance question the perusal of every word of it. People who have become somewhat confused as to exactly what was established by the committee's four months of exhaustive inquiry will rise from that reading, not only with interest in the whole situation keenly stimulated, but with a sense of ability to frame intelligent judgment on the propositions of reform.

Throughout the investigation, public attention has converged on five main questions. The problem whether some check could be applied to the portentous expansion of capital resources, under control of a single group of men, possibly stood first. The manner in which insurance surpluses should hereafter be invested was a consideration next in importance; it involved the questions of participation in Wall Street promoting schemes, ownership of other banking institutions, and "syndicate operations" by trustees as individuals, in common with their company. The problems of how control by policyholders might in a mutual company be made effective, of how the "deferred dividend" policy should be dealt with, and of how to abate the evils of life companies' meddling in politics, followed after. The committee's report embodies a thorough discussion of these important matters. The report is also, and most fortunately, as bold and explicit in its recommendations as it is comprehensive in its scope. Perhaps the most unhappy outcome of the insurance episode would have been a feeble or faltering body of recommendations by the committee, which would have left the Legislature to wrangle over a host of crude and conflicting makeshifts proposed from outside quarters. Nor, in our judgment, does the committee err on the side of rash or radical suggestions. Much the greater part of what it recommends will command at once the united support of intelligent public opinion.

The committee properly refers to the stupendous growth of the three largest companies as an evil in itself. In the race for financial size and power, extravagance in management has been increasingly promoted. Wasteful methods, employed to get new business at any cost, have imposed a heavy burden on the legitimate clients of the companies. This very magnitude of business and resources, the committee shows, "makes the question of responsible control and conservative management one of extreme difficulty." The committee recommends that the new business to be annually done by an insurance company be hereafter limited to $150,000,000. This figure is obtained on the basis of reports showing that, in the three great companies, termination of policies in 1904, through death, maturity, lapse, or other causes, ranged from $129,125,280 to $162,326,114. This absolute limitation the committee would apply to companies with more than $1,000,000,000 insurance now in force; with smaller companies, they advise restriction of a year's new business to a fixed percentage of outstanding insurance. We imagine that this part of the report will incur more general criticism than the others. Hitherto plans for restriction of indefinite growth have most commonly evoked the expedient of forbidding, not acceptance of further business after a given limit, but solicitation of business under such conditions. With the limit reached, a company may not seek to place new insurance, but may accept such applications as come spontaneously before it. We are not prepared to say that the committee's plan is inadvisable, but some objections to it certainly occur to us, from the standpoint of the policyholder himself.

The committee's recommendations regarding investment of insurance funds will probably be described as radical. But truly radical treatment of the question was required. If anything was plainly proved by last year's investigation to be a necessary reform, it was that life companies should be prohibited from holding shares in other enterprises. Ownership of subsidiary institutions has been denounced by insurance committees of inquiry during a quarter of a century; the practice, in the Equitable's case, was unqualifiedly censured by the Frick report, and nowhere did the Armstrong investigation prove more objectionable and demoralizing practices to exist. There is, in our judgment, no remedy for the evil other than complete abolition of the practice. The committee's proposal that five years be allowed the companies to dispose of their holdings of these and other stocks, ensures quite sufficiently against disturbance of the markets. The committee very wisely declares that application of the "savings-bank restrictions" to insurance investments would not be advisable; it proposes no restriction whatever on investment in bonds, except the exclusion of the so-called "collateral trust bond"— a recent device whose entire security is stock bought up through the proceeds of the bond. The report's very positive recommendations that all "syndicate participations" by insurance companies be prohibited, and that no officer or director shall be pecuniarily interested in any purchase, sale, or loan of his company, will be approved by every intelligent man who followed last year's testimony.

The practically important part of the committee's proposals regarding control of insurance corporations lies in its plan to authorize independent nominations at the hands of any group of one hundred policyholders, to require the companies to include all such candidates on ballots officially circulated by them, and to require that lists of policyholders be made accessible. It is possible that this plan will be further defined in subsequent discussion; what will at once attract attention is the committee's recommendation that, in order to give full scope to the new plan of voting, all of this year's annual meetings be postponed to November 15, within which time independent campaigns would be practicable. The bearing of this proposition on the present Mutual Life situation is too obvious to need statement.

With the committee's conclusion that issue of the so-called "deferred dividend policies" should hereafter be absolutely forbidden, we are in entire agreement. In common with all disinterested expert opinion with which we have come in contact, we believe these policies, and the virtual non-accountability of a company which writes them, to be very largely the root of past abuses. The committee's proposal that political contributions by the companies be made a penal offence, will equally, we think, meet with the cordial endorsement of right-thinking men. So, too, of the plan to create a body of authorized and duly licensed "legislative counsel," through whose employment, officially declared and described, the lobbyist of the Andrew C. Fields and Andrew Hamilton type will, in insurance legislation, be made a thing of the past.

THE CONFUSION AT WASHINGTON.

Since Hamlet and Laertes changed rapiers, there has been no more dramatic shift than that by which the bill of the Republican President has been put in charge of the Democratic minority in the Senate. The result is to throw parties into confusion, to perplex counsels, and to set political leaders at cross purposes. As if the stories of Aldrich's break with Mr. Roosevelt were not tragic enough, the painful news comes that Lodge's friendly magnanimity in bearing with the President's vagaries has at last been stretched to the breaking-point. The Massachusetts Senator lets it be known that he cannot approve Mr. Roosevelt in the embrace of Senator Tillman. His real grievance, however, goes deeper. The President is reported to have said in his jaunty way that he could go right into Massachusetts and beat Lodge. This, of course, is simply horrible. The supposition that anybody could rival Senator Lodge in the respect and affection of the people of Mas-

sachusetts, must be, as the Greek Grammar says, a "supposition contrary to fact."

Into such sacred personal sorrows we cannot enter. But the party wrangling threatens to make the public interest suffer. There is an unhappy competition for the "credit" of the railway bill, without due inquiry whether it is going to be creditable to anybody to pass it in its present form. The President is said to take the position that the country will recognize the bill as his, in any event, and that he need not care a button if it is passed under Democratic auspices. Meanwhile an acute discussion has sprung up over the question whether a "nationalized" Democratic club ought to speak of Mr. Roosevelt as a "born Democrat." If he is, it must be said that, like the man in the Scriptures who was created upright, he has since "sought out many inventions." But the real Democrats at Washington are pluming themselves, and with reason, on their skilful management. Their opponents were reckoning complacently on a split in the Democratic minority, when, lo! it was the Republicans who suddenly appeared torn into warring factions. The President is naturally blamed for this; but he might well retort that those who are responsible for party divisions are the ones who think that man was made for party, not party for man. Yet it is clear that the tactical advantage rests with the Democrats, who are plainly profiting by the new and skilful leadership of Senator Bailey. They now have a good opportunity to show what they can do in the way of constructive legislation.

Much will depend upon Senator Tillman. His erratic course and tempestuous speech have not concealed his real abilities. Entering the Senate as a sort of "wild man," he has remained to gain the respect of its ablest members for his knowledge, industry, and honesty. If he could be kept from the passionate outburst and violent invective which too often disfigure his public addresses, he might easily make for himself a great reputation. Some of his friends are saying that he will rise to the height of his present opportunity, and by wise and restrained handling of the railway bill, now placed in his charge, will show that he has in him the elements of statesmanship. But his skilled antagonists know perfectly his weak points. They understand his temptation to pose as an extreme radical and to rant as such; they know how to goad him to fury; and it would not be surprising, therefore, if the Senate were to see the effort made to pass the Hepburn bill by a joint brandishing of the Big Stick and the Pitchfork.

Beyond all such considerations lies the unfortunate fact that the clamor and controversy about the dubious parts of the Hepburn bill are diverting public attention from its meritorious features. The latter are acknowledged and uncontested, yet they are almost forgotten in the embittered dispute over the conferring of the rate-making power upon the Interstate Commerce Commission. In his speech in the House, Representative Mann of Illinois enumerated no less than ten great improvements proposed in the bill, irrespective of rate-fixing. These include an enlarged definition of "common carrier" and also of "railroad," so as to bring under the latter all terminal facilities as well as storage, icing, ventilation in transit, etc.; aboltion of the "midnight tariff" by requiring thirty days' public notice of a change; provision that charges for refrigeration shall be separately stated; a plan for uniform accounts and for the rigid prevention of secret rebates. Now, these clauses of the bill represent the real demand of the people for railway legislation by Congress. The actual grievances of shippers—merchants and farmers—are here covered. Railway rates *per se* have not been complained of extensively, but the discriminating rate, the collusive and corrupt rebate, the disguised charge, sharp practices in circumventing the Interstate Commerce law. These abuses are struck at in the Hepburn bill as effectively as they can be by any statute, probably, yet, by an unhappy "Presidential non-sequitur," as Congressman McCall described it, these great reforms, practically non-contentious as they are, have been too much tied up with the fate of a clause which has little to do directly with the wrongs that are mentioned above, and which is in itself so ambiguous and so doubtfully Constitutional that it endangers the whole legislation.

Senator Knox has given it as his opinion that the rate-making section of the Hepburn bill is, as drawn, certain to be held by the Supreme Court unconstitutional. As to its actual working, if legal, two impartial students of railway problems have recently expressed grave doubts. President Hadley thinks that the proposal to make the decision of the Commission final in all questions of fact is "illogical and impractical." And Professor Ripley of Harvard, in the last number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, comes to the conclusion, after an exhaustive study of the natural history of railway ratemaking, that the "American railway practice" is one of "essential soundness"; that there is danger in "arbitrary administrative interference"; and that "the main activity of any Governmental commission should be directed towards settlements out of court, with as little exercise of mandatory power as possible."

A MUSEUM PROGRAMME.

After a year of deliberation, the trustees of the Metropolitan Museum have formulated a comprehensive policy which is embodied in their annual report. This document is likely to have a permanent interest. It has a limited and topical interest also because it is, in effect, what our ancestors would have called a counterblast to the ideas of museum management in favor at Boston. The Metropolitan Museum takes the ground that its function is primarily educational, both as regards artists, artisans, and students of the history of art. To æsthetic considerations it will give all the weight compatible with its main object. It will, however, welcome gifts of reproductions where originals are not available; will copy famous interiors as setting for original exhibits of the period, and, finally, will for the future give more persistent and systematic attention to the industrial arts.

Here is matter that in a column's space can merely be touched upon. For the promise of activity in the field of the applied arts, everybody should be grateful. Museums are still too much under the tyranny of eighteenth-century definitions of the "sublime and the beautiful." Any policy that makes us realize that the standards for the so-called fine and for the industrial arts are identical, is a wholesome policy. In any normally creative period, the difference between decorating a spoon-handle and a cathedral is chiefly quantitative. The chief mission of Japanese art to that of the West has been to prove that the principles of design are universal, and that segregation by material or intention is generally misleading. The important thing is quality, whether conveyed by pewter, pigment, or bricks and mortar. One may fairly rejoice that our accumulations are not so excessive but that all the arts may still be exhibited under one roof.

Of course, devotion to the applied arts has its particular pitfalls. The danger is that of confusing ethnological with artistic values, of seeking what is merely old and curious instead of what is really fine. Already the Metropolitan Museum possesses an old telegraphic instrument, not to mention the swords and medals presented to Gen. Grant in his famous trip around the world. Now, in some museum or another these objects might well find a place; that place is emphatically not an art museum. One can successfully gather a collection in the industrial arts only upon condition of maintaining standards quite as rigorous as those applied to painting and sculpture. That practically such standards will be adopted one may assume, while wishing that, for the sake of the record, the report made more specific statements on this head.

The matter of art reproductions is more contestable. No student of the arts can deny their value when carefully made; on the proper method of exhibiting them a wide diversity of opinion ex-

ists. Undoubtedly, the ideal plan is to segregate them in special museums, like the Trocadéro in Paris. To do this in America would leave whole departments of our museums practically empty. On the other hand, to show reproductions side by side with originals is at best a necessary evil. It is an arrangement confusing to the judgment of the layman and fatiguing to the special student. One may except, perhaps, a few examples of actual facsimiles or copies of high grade. Electrotypes of metal objects, casts of the Herculaneum bronzes, Armand-Durand's extraordinary copies of ancient prints, are surely desirable objects for any museum that cannot secure the corresponding originals. On the other hand, many kinds of copies, especially ordinary plaster casts of originals in finer materials, seem so calculated to blunt the sense of quality in the layman that many consider them suitable only for the special student. Be that as it may, any museum that is growing rapidly should be progressively getting rid of reproductions, and if the Metropolitan Museum accumulates copies in profusion, it will be virtually preparing the way for some American Trocadéro of the future. That goal is by no means an unworthy one, but it is a question whether greater simplicity of aim is not preferable for present purposes.

As for reproducing historic interiors after the example of the National Museum at Munich, we are for going slowly. Surely, the advanced student of art history would find no profit whatever in such examples of stage carpentry. His best materials lie in photographic reproductions and the plates of standard archæological volumes. Of course, the man in the street would gratify a certain curiosity, and the craftsman get a hint from such an interior. But, for the artisan, small models are actually more useful. These are relatively inexpensive and often of great merit. Genuine interior decorations the Museum may be glad to transfer to its home; old woodwork and other decorative fragments may at times be very usefully built into the galleries; but to reproduce whole interiors, when such cheap and superior substitutes as the small model, the photograph, and the lantern slide are available, would, many believe, be the very poorest economy, to raise no larger issue. We should welcome the fullest collections of ancient furniture and fittings, anything that brings home poignantly the sense of times more artistic than our own.

With the spirit of the report, taken broadly, we are in thorough sympathy. This statement of the trustees gives the soundest assurances that the future policy of the Museum will be thorough, cautious, and scholarly. The presence of such connoisseurs as Dr. Robinson and Mr. Fry on the staff is a guarantee that art-historical ideals will be pursued in no narrow spirit, but with proper consideration of æsthetic ideals. On another occasion, we expressed admiration for an ideal of museum management more selective than that which is proposed at Central Park East. We believe that the museum of the future will, as a matter of fact, necessarily become rather anthological in its public exhibits than comprehensive. But the time is not ripe for such an advance in New York. In fact, by the form of its buildings and its traditional policy, the Metropolitan Museum is committed to educational and art-historical ideals. Along these lines there are years of work in sight, before the completion of which any general change of policy would be premature. It would be absurd to apply rigidly æsthetic principles in a museum that is still in process of being brought up to the standards of art history. The present report to the trustees deserves study, not as an ideal programme of museum policy, but as a sober and thoughtful statement of the policy that is practically best, considering the past of the Metropolitan Museum and the present conditions of art in New York.

THE NEW FRENCH ACADEMICIAN.

"They order this matter better in France." What the Englishman does without understanding and the German understands without doing, the Frenchman makes the meeting-ground of thought and action, of literature and life. There is for this reason more than passing significance in the election of Maurice Barrès to the Académie Française. His progress from an individualist to a traditionalist, to use the awkward terms, receives a kind of sanction as expressing a national, indeed, European, movement. With Brunetière and Anatole France he shows how literature in France reflects the desperate efforts of the people to escape from the *impasse* to which the individualism of the Revolution had brought them.

By individualism is not meant the right of each person to develop naturally, without the dwarfing and warping of petrified custom, nor yet the inevitable and wholesome law of competition, but that absence of all higher sense of union between man and man which led to a weary and morbid egotism and to complete moral irresponsibility. This was the kind of individualism which the French, as the most logical of nations, developed into a theory of life and too often practised. This was the *culte du moi* of which Barrès, as a young and brilliant writer, made himself the high priest and won many disciples. He was the accepted psychologist of the *Déracinés*. And it is in this sense that his career may be called, as Paul Bourget points out in the *Figaro*, the tragedy of individualism. As he grew in experience he was more and more impressed by the terrible isolation and impotence into which his logic was dragging him—for it cannot be said too often that in France literature and life move together hand in hand. In one of his earlier monologues, named significantly "Affaissement," he exclaims:

> "Je n'ai plus d'énergie, mais à la sensibilité violente d'un enfant je joins une clairvoyance dès longtemps avertie. . . . *Ce n'est pas de conseils, c'est de force et de fécondité spirituelle que j'ai besoin!*"

And he observed with increasing alarm this paradox of French society, that the more deeply the doctrine of individualism (the false individualism, we must always remember) sank into public consciousness, the smaller became the actual number of vigorous individuals. As M. Bourget expresses it: "This age of extreme 'personalism' thus finds itself an age of personalities more and more incompetent, more and more anæmic."

Thereupon M. Barrès began to examine into the matter. He observed that his personal experience was in conformity with the teachings of history. Both showed that the theory of individualism was directly contrary to the growth of a strong individuality. Something was wrong in his definition of individuality. He had looked upon the individual as a *phénomène premier*, as a thing independent and supported by itself, whereas it turns out to be a *phénomène conditionné*. This *ego* which he proposed to cultivate and pamper, did not spring up of itself beyond the limitations of time and space, but was the result of accumulated hereditary influences, and could develop harmoniously only by following these tendencies implanted in it from an unknown past, and by making itself one with the people and the land which had grown up under similar influences. From being an exemplar of the individualists, M. Barrès thus became the leader of the traditionalists. From the *culte du moi* he passed to the *religion du sol natal*, to a childlike acceptance of the thoughts and sentiments transmitted by the earlier generations who had in turn received them from the land itself, with its physical features and its immemorial history. He felt the appeal of those unconscious sources of energy, drank in a new faith in the mysterious virtues of the race, and learned to reverence that august silence of the heart through which the voices of the dead speak and are heard. He was no longer unrooted, but deep-rooted to the earth.

M. Bourget expounds all this with his customary fineness of analysis. He does not, however, point out the relation of this conversion to the recent defections of Brunetière and Anatole France. All three of these men, who stand at the very head of French literature, have sought, each in his own way, a refuge

from the intolerable oppression of that kind of individualism which grew politically out of the Revolution and literarily out of Romanticism. They all saw that some new bond of union must be found to link men together, that the isolation of utter skepticism and self-worship was but a stage of death. Brunetière, in whom the logical generalizing faculties predominated, turned to the rigid dogmas of Catholicism for relief, his conversion to that faith being more a matter of intellect than of religion. He became a reactionary, and his present aim is to associate men by submission to a common and infallible creed. In Anatole France the spirit of skepticism was too strong to permit such a conversion as had already come to his constant foe in literary criticism. On the contrary, he was swept away by the socialistic movement which undertakes to unite men through the levelling process of economic laws. It is significant that the avowed exponent of intellectual indifferentism should thus have fallen a prey to what is probably the most impracticable theory of social union yet promulgated. How M. Barrès looked to traditionalism for relief, we have already shown.

The attitude of these three leaders of thought is no freakish pose on their part. It represents one of the deepest needs of the age, and shows itself with that logical precision and courage of conviction which are an inherent part of the French character.

FURTHER NOTES ON MEXICO.

JOHN HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
February, 1906.

About the time of the death of Maximilian and the restoration of Mexican independence, a man arose ready for his opportunity—Gabinus Barreda, a Mexican, born in Puebla in 1824, educated in law and medicine in Mexico City, who had been studying under Auguste Comte in Paris. Enthusiastically adopting the Positivist scheme of knowledge, and with it its negative attitude—"positively negative," we should add, as Comtist writers demonstrate fully—towards metaphysics and all the children of the subjective point of view, such as psychology, he was just the man to seize the chance to carry out the Positivist programme in a comprehensive scheme of education. As head of the commission of 1867 he was given a free hand to reorganize the national education, including the curriculum of the Preparatory School. This school had hitherto furnished a typical and intrinsically the most important illustration of the vicissitudes of a private foundation, gradually dying from poverty and maladministration, while occasionally galvanized into life by Government aid. It finally passed over to the national Government, as did so many other institutions whose loss of private autonomy served to swell the tide of nationalization. The Preparatory School became the official embodiment of the policies of national education pursued by the successive ministers. And in Barreda the time was come for the Positivist novelties to have their "innings."

In the result, these novelties did have their "innings." Barreda drew up a curriculum based *in extenso* on Comte's classification of the sciences in a hierarchy of logical comprehension: chemistry based on physics, physiology on chemistry, etc., through all the stages of development now so familiar to us. Beneath all this was the Comtean platform also—the recognition only of those disciplines (the Positive Sciences) which grow up by objective observation and experiment. These studies, thus exclusively recognized, were distributed through a five years' curriculum, each subject running a full year; and the only departures from the strictly logical order, as prescribed by the Positivist rubrics, were the overlapping and lack of consecutiveness due to the limitation to five years. Metaphysics and theology were abolished; with them psychology proper and ethics of the "subjective" or immediate sort; and the only "moral" and humanistic studies were those called by Comte "sociology," viz., history and "objective morals." Crowning all was "logic," a chair in which Barreda himself took his seat—having before this taught law, medicine, and physics. "Logic" was the defence, the justification and amplification of the Comtist thesis of Positivism, worked out in theories of science, history, and education, together with the logic of inductive science as given in J. S. Mill's 'Logic.' Barreda for some years held this structure together, despite the assaults of the humanists and more particularly of the utilitarians, by force of the personal expositions and arguments given in his lectures. The fate of departments previously central in the educational scheme is revealed in the fact that the classical languages were neglected, except the study of "roots," considered likely to be useful to medical men, lawyers, etc.! Such a scheme, apart from the philosophical basis of it, is more or less familiar to us in the courses offered in some of the "scientific" schools of our own country. In Mexico the example was followed more or less closely in many of the confederated States in which schools of the "college" grade were founded. Indeed, higher education in Mexico is to-day decidedly "Comtean," both in theory and in practice.

I may not follow up the fortunes of Barreda's institution. The modifications introduced under succeeding ministries were, however, mostly motived by utility. Dentists and veterinarians could not see the need of spending years in the study of botany, sociology, and the Comtean logic; and the Government had to heed the demand for short-cuts to the professions. The successive reorganizations, however, have not changed the basis of the curriculum, which remains definitely scientific and Comtean. The principal changes were made in the reorganization of 1896, under Minister Baranda, when the present Sub-Secretary, Sr. Chavez, secured the introduction of semestral units in place of the yearly units, and was thus able to correlate and articulate the studies much more rationally. His own ideas, together with a full history of the movement started by Barreda, are to be found in his excellent monograph on 'Mexico, Its Social Evolution.'

Apart from its interest to students of philosophical and educational history, this Comtean incident illustrates the initiative and independence of strong men in Mexico. No "home-products" cry nor protests from vested interests could prevent a Barreda the politician from carrying out the plans of Barreda the philosopher and reformer. And a less superficial examination convinces us that, for the Mexico of to-day, exhibiting the economic and political moments of progress that it does, a Positivistic and scientific, a pragmatic and directly utilitarian, education of the mass of the students is best for the State. The motives of poverty, widespread illiteracy, urgency of competition with outsiders, principally Americans, must be for some time to come controlling, where the problems are those of the development of mining and agricultural resources and the training of men to administer still undeveloped States. One is somewhat surprised when first told that there is in the Government a Ministry of "Fomento," promotion! Yet in California the "promotion bureau" is a familiar fact; and our Government is establishing departments of commerce, labor, immigration, etc., that partake of the "promotion" idea. Mexico may be glad that at a blow Barreda destroyed the plants of classical, linguistic and theological mediævalism—all but the "roots"! Otherwise there would have been the long fight we are still waging to destroy the linguistic fetish that remains enthroned in many of our educational temples.

I have already referred to the reform wrought in finance by the present Government. The part of President Diaz appears in his robust—some say "dictatorial"—use of his judgment; I think "robust" is the better term, because it is part of his judgment to get the best advisers. He entrusted the financial reforms to Limantour, a native Parisian, and he has just constituted the board of "controllers" of finance of nine men, five of them foreigners. Foreigners are called in with remarkable broad-mindedness and wisdom. The director of the School of Fine Arts is none other than the distinguished Spanish painter, Fabres. It is expected that the new university will be equipped with the best men, regardless of nationality.

President Diaz is at present working out a policy of railway control which he himself thinks will anticipate the problems President Roosevelt is now dealing with. The prime idea is to have the Government itself own either a competing line or the controlling interest in a single line wherever combination would be likely to destroy competition. It is in pursuance of this policy that the Mexican National is made to compete with the Mexican Central, and that the charter of the new Tehuantepec Trans-Isthmian Railway reserves to the Government at least one-half of the stock. The President's plans for the further development of railway facilities, particularly in the west-coast direction, are truly fine, and he takes justifiable pride in referring to it. In a conversation on the subject, in answer to my question as to the possible invasion of Mexico by our railway magnates, he pithily remarked.—"They may suck the sugar, but they shall not bite it!"

Among the projects in which he is deeply interested is that of the construction of a great inland harbor, with docking facilities at Salina Cruz, the Pacific outlet of the Tehuantepec Railway. When completed, at enormous expense, it is expected that this line of trade will be a first-rate competitor with the Panama Canal; and it will have the advantage of being established and doing business first. Such schemes show both daring and wisdom, and only a Government of robust judgment and of really dictatorial powers could have compassed them as the Diaz Government has done.

Another line of policy illustrating "robustness" tempered by "moderation" is that adopted in the administration of the religious Reform Laws of 1863. In consequence of the moderation of the policy of suppression of the Catholic orders, there is to-day no strong Conservative opposition party in Mexico; everybody is Liberal. The orders as such are suppressed; no more than three persons bound by religious oaths can live together; no gatherings, processions, religious demonstrations of any kind are allowed in the open air—hence the absence of the Salvation Army from Mexico; but the charitable agencies, the female orders whose work is socially valuable and of merciful intent, still do their work, and their modes of life and system of organization, when motived by such ends, are not too closely inquired into.

The quality of moderation is indeed that which most forcefully strikes the observer of recent happenings. Among the events of great importance of the last year in the internal affairs of Mexico was the abolition of the Free Zone. The Free Zone was a strip of country on the Texas border, in which, by an enactment long in force, the tariff duties on imports from the United States were merely nominal. The economics of this policy was based on the expectation that this strip of territory, having practical free trade with the States to the north, would develop with them in many material ways—manufacturing, mining, etc.; the conditions of import of raw material, manufactured tools, building materials, machinery, etc., being those of free trade. But this expectation failed utterly; I have no space to discuss the reasons why. The policy amounted simply to granting sectional legislation to this zone, with no corresponding advantage to the country at large. Now it has happened this year that President Diaz has voluntarily surrendered a certain prerogative whereby the Executive might decree modifications of the national tariff; but, before surrendering it, his last act under it was the abolition of the Free Zone, by a decree to go into effect the following day! In a certain state paper recently printed it was said, with beautiful directness, that such suddenness and celerity in starting the new order was necessary for urgent reasons of public welfare. One does not have to use much imagination to supply the "reasons." Think what would follow upon a proposal to change preferential legislation of any sort in the United States, be it sectional (such as a change in our Chinese exclusion law), or industrial (such as a change in the sugar schedule). Once decreed, and in effect the following day, this reform marked a robust act of judgment; and it is said that the support of the "Free Zoners" themselves testifies to the moderation that made such an act the last of its kind by voluntary surrender. Only the vested interests of the territory were greatly stirred up.

Reflecting on this sort of government, one may say, "After me the deluge!"—and, of course, on a plane polished by the continuous action of a glacial mass moving in one direction, floods are possible. But one finds that the Mexicans have no such fear. They have now so large, well-chosen, and well-organized a force of able public men that things seem stable. Moreover, had one the chance to do so, certain more profound reasons might be expounded for thinking that things are stable. Diaz has been President, with but four years' intermission, since 1877; his robustnesses have been matched by his moderations; and the political student has a right to expect that a third of a century of such amazing accretion to the "funded contents" of the national life will be not only a monument to a man, but also the permanent body of a great State.

J. Mark Baldwin.

THE ARTS AND CRAFTS IN LONDON.

London, January 20, 1906.

The Arts and Crafts Society opens an exhibition in London only once in every three years. Now that the giving of exhibitions is so overdone in London, as everywhere else, this shows admirable restraint, and the Society should be given the credit it deserves. But the policy is one burdened with responsibilities. In three years craftsmen have time for much good work and many experiments; the longer the interval between exhibitions, the more is to be expected of the exhibitors. "Much may happen in three years," Mr. Walter Crane, President of the Society, writes in his "Foreword" to the Catalogue; "and movements and phases in art seem to quicken their pace in our time, and are more rapid, both in their appearances and disappearances, perhaps, than ever before." From the exhibition that has just opened at the Grafton Gallery, one has therefore every right to expect a great deal in the way of good work, and more in evidence of the present tendencies and manner of development of the arts and crafts in England.

But to go to the Grafton Gallery with this expectation, it must be confessed, is to be grievously disappointed. People who are interested in the subject can hardly deny their disappointment. In finding a reason for it some may regret the arrangement of the exhibition, many good things, they say, having been thrust into corners, sacrificed to the decorative effect of the collection as a whole; others suggest that the Society, in the eighteen years of its existence, has so well fulfilled its mission that the general standard has been raised throughout the country, and we are no longer struck with work we should have thought far above the average at the start. That explanations are made, however, only proves the need of them. But I think when the work is examined, it will be found in itself to account for all the disappointment. If the general average is higher, and I am not by any means sure it is, signs of individuality are fewer; you cannot hide the larger exhibits, like the big pieces of furniture, the cartoons for stained glass, and so on; and if any strong tendency is revealed, it is in the readiness of certain exhibitors to stoop to the popular fads of the moment, and of the Society to grant them a prominence hardly justified by the quality of their performance. Let me explain.

In the beginning, when William Morris was the great power and the leading influence in the Society, much space was devoted to the crafts to which he had paid special attention. There were sure to be carpets, wall-papers, silk and crétonne hangings, stuffs of many kinds, even tapestries on memorable occasions. There might be plenty of reason for criticism—the products even of the Merton workshops were not always above reproach. But at least there was activity, a healthy striving, and often fine accomplishment in some of the most important decorative arts—the very arts that were in sorest straits at the moment of reaction against Victorian insipidity, Victorian vulgarity—the very arts upon which the seemliness of our daily life depends. And how are they now represented? I have discovered only one or two examples of carpet, and they were of no marked character, one way or the other. The wall hangings, save for a few stray examples here and there, are restricted chiefly to the printed cottons and linens by Mr. Lewis F. Day, pleasant in color, sound and simple in design, looking all the better for being well arranged together so that some sort of comparative idea can be had of them, but not of very great distinction. Occasional designs for wall-papers, hung separately, lost in a mess of cartoons and embroidered and decorative panels, have left with me no impression whatever. As for the furniture, there is a fair array of it, but nothing of real note. Tables, chairs, sideboards, desks, either follow old models so precisely as to be little more than copies—and it is then, to be honest, I like them best—or else they rush into exaggerations which I have been told I should not mind because they are without a trace of the swirls and whirligigs and absurdities of *L'Art Nouveau*, but which I find as restless and affected and foolishly self-conscious in their own way, as conducive to nightmare.

There is, for example, a dresser designed on harmless primitive principles by Mr. W. R. Lethaby, simple enough in form, but painted all over by Mr. Alfred H. Powell with a design so violent in its sharp greens, so broken in pattern, that it fairly jumps at you as you go in the gallery, and it is long before you can readjust your vision so as to see anything else. To have it always in the room with you where you eat, would be to suffer from chronic indigestion until the London smoke and the London grime had dulled it. There is also a sideboard, designed by Mr. George Jack, that, though in a much more ambitious way and with much more costly materials, shows something of the same defects of forced color and restless design; curves and twists and inlays wherever there is a chance for them, and the inlays arranged into a large florid pattern with none of the refinement which craftsmen, even in England, once knew how to give to their furniture. The glass is better, though there is not much of it, and it is sent by Messrs.

Powell, the excellence of whose work is not of to-day. The pottery, too, is interesting, or that which comes from the Ruskin Pottery in Birmingham, and, more particularly, from the Pilkington Tile and Pottery Company near Manchester, where recent experiments with glazes by Mr. Joseph Burton and Mr. William Burton have led to some results of genuine technical importance. I wish I could say as much for the brass and metal work. It is extraordinary that the new need for electric fittings, for instance, has so far produced mostly abortions, things one would not be willing to have in one's house. The best attempt I can recall is nothing more nor less than a new version of the beautiful old Dutch lamp, the lines ruined with every variation from the original. However, in all these different sections, the work, good or bad, is at least serious, designed and executed by practical craftsmen. They may be mistaken in their experiments, they may be trivial in their standards, they may be feeble in their workmanship; but they are craftsmen who have been trained in their craft—workmen who are at work and not at play, and who make you realize this in what they do.

It is another matter when you turn to some of the other exhibitors and their exhibits. In the sections which have been contributed to most largely and liberally I seem to be conscious of the amateur everywhere. Take, above all, the jewelry. A few years ago there was seldom more than enough to fill two or three or four cases, and if much of it was affected in its deliberate roughness and rudeness, it was also, as a rule, the work of artists with some sense of the quality and possibilities of their materials, with some feeling for pattern and color. For one reason or another, their jewelry became the fashion. Unfortunately, the roughness they cultivated as a virtue was only too easy to emulate. Besides, they made elaborate use of enamel, and it would be difficult for the merest dabbler in enamels not to get some agreeable passages of color out of his crudest experiments. As a consequence, innumerable people, mostly women, set to work producing jewelry. Enamels blossomed forth in every small studio and every small show; ornaments even a peasant might have thought coarse were supplied in a quantity for which I earnestly hope there was no corresponding demand. The thing grew into a positive nuisance. But now, here also at the Arts and Crafts, there are cases upon cases of necklaces and brooches and combs and rings that make you go back with relief to the ordinary jewelry of commerce as you see it displayed in Bond Street shops. Of course, in such an enormous assortment a great deal reveals technical skill and intelligence and finer qualities still. Mr. Alexander Fisher in his enamels and silver work, Mr. Paul Cooper in his jewelry, are artists both. But there is far more that never should have been produced at all, much less shown; that never would have been, probably, had not the "new" jewelry offered an easy way to the exhibitors who wanted to be in "the movement" and to be paid for it at the same time. I do not know upon what principle this mediocre stuff was accepted by the selecting committee in such excessive quantities that the exhibition looks like nothing so much as a huge bazaar. The worst of it is that an artist like Mr. Harry Wilson, who has really done admirable things, is not represented. Nor is Mr. Nelson Dawson, who is in a great measure responsible for the whole movement, but whose work, though it has never equalled Mr. Wilson's in refinement and delicacy, often has charm and beauty.

The making of books has suffered from the same causes as the making of jewelry. Kelmscott and Birmingham have much to answer for as leaders of mere fashions. There are innumerable examples of printing and illustration and book-binding, among them many of merit and distinction. The work of the Chiswick Press is usually excellent; the type good, the pages well spaced, the titles well balanced, the fact that the chief end of a book is to be read never lost sight of. The Doves Press also turns out good work, though there I fancy the beauty of a book to look at is considered more than the convenience and comfort of the reader. Here and there are interesting illustrations, none more amusing and more technically accomplished than M. Lucien Pissarro's color prints. Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's book-bindings have dignity and sobriety, and never flaunt their originality in your face. But in too many of the exhibits in this section affectation or a feeble amateurishness is a more obvious quality. The trail of Kelmscott is over it all, and the Birmingham conventions, now that Birmingham clings to them less persistently, seem to have set the standard for the illustrations. The shadow of the fad falls too heavily over the beautiful book as it is made to-day; modern conditions and improvements are the last things remembered.

Mr. Crane, referring in his "Foreword" to crafts that are "rather the especial growth of recent years of revival," mentions calligraphy and illumination. But growth seems to me the last word to be used in this connection. Had it not been for William Morris, amusing himself after his own fashion in his leisure hours, there surely never would have been such a revival. For beautiful and splendid as the old illuminated manuscripts were and are, the craft that created them is one that has had its day, that was killed forever by the printing-press. It may be the fad of a few people to-day to add to their libraries modern specimens, but it does not follow that, therefore, this craft will ever again develop into a healthy living one. It cannot as long as conditions are what they are. And yet, in the self-conscious revival of the old arts and crafts, we find even schools like the London County Council Technical Schools, that ought to be of all things practical, running classes of calligraphy and illumination, and sending examples to the present exhibition.

I have said nothing of the cartoons for stained glass, but it is difficult to say anything. The designs cannot be fairly judged until they are executed in the medium for which they are prepared. Two or three by Mr. R. Anning Bell have a feeling of dignity and simplicity, so promising that I should like to see them when carried out. Others, by Mr. Holiday and more particularly by Mr. Christopher Whall, make me feel the wisdom of reserving one's judgment. Mr. Whall's windows, when set up in the billiard-room for which they are intended, may be so fine in color that nothing else will count, but in the cartoons it is hard to see anything but the inappropriateness and childishness of the design, with its little winged Cupids. The embroideries are many, some good, some amateurish. There are bronzes and wood carvings and leather and gesso work—there is too much, really: over six hundred numbers in the catalogue, and (as in the cases of books and jewelry and embroidery) one number often stands for several exhibits. Naturally, the proportion of good work is fair; it would be melancholy if it were not. But it is not possible for me, here, to go into detail. I can only try and give an idea of the general tendencies, of the manner in which the movements and phases Mr. Crane refers to in his "Foreword" are represented. I am afraid I cannot quite believe with him in a steady growth and development. The very countenance given by the Society to amateurish effort and the poses and pretensions of the moment is discouraging. The fact that municipal schools have been allowed to contribute is, I think, a drawback. An exhibition of this kind should be one of the best artists and craftsmen in the country, not of students, who have always a chance to exhibit elsewhere. The inclusion of so much of their work adds to the look of a bazaar which is so distressing and confusing. Besides, too often, their work is a direct concession to the affectations and passing fashions I have been deploring. It may be that, had the selecting committee been strict, had half the exhibits been refused, had the schools been excluded, the exhibition would have suggested a more hopeful outlook. But I doubt it. Artists and craftsmen, less sanguine than Mr. Crane, seem themselves conscious of retrogression rather than advance in the years since the Society was established. Some of the younger men have gone so far as to declare that the revolt from tradition, the original reason for the Society, has been disastrous, and that the one hope is in a return to tradition. But that return will not be by way of a revival of worn-out crafts and deliberate primitiveness.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE DISAPPOINTMENTS OF UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In two recent book reviews in your columns I find considerable food for reflection. Mr. John F. Hume is quoted as saying, in 'The Abolitionists' (Putnams, 1905):

"One of them [the two great political parties of to-day] may pass perfunctory resolutions against the Philippine crime, but dares say nothing about the treatment visited upon the negro. The other may say a few compassionate but meaningless words for the negro, but cannot denounce the oppression of the Filipinos. Both [parties] are fatally handicapped by their connections and committals. Both are in fact pro-slavery, although the one in power, because of its responsibility for existing conditions, is the more criminal of the two" (p. 86).

It is, of course, both false and absurd to say that the people of the United States

are in favor of negro slavery, and it is at least doubtful whether either political party is solely responsible for existing conditions in the South. But the point for reflection is the substantial unanimity of both parties—that is, of the entire people of the United States to-day—in regard to the political status of the negro in the South. There the negro is now practically debarred from voting. This fact is well known to the rest of the nation, and the rest of the nation acquiesces. Forty years ago the negro was given the ballot, legally, by and with the consent of a large majority of the citizens of these United States. To-day he is deprived of that ballot, practically, by and with the consent of a large majority of the citizens of these same United States. Sifted to the last analysis, the reason for the disfranchisement of the negro lies in the popular conviction of his unfitness and incapacity for intelligent political action and coöperation—as a race, with several obvious individual exceptions. In the sixties it was believed, or fondly and rashly hoped, that the negro race, fresh from the wilds of Africa, could at one bound attain the political habits which the Anglo-Saxon race has acquired only by countless experiments, repeated failures, and slow advances. Ignorant of the cardinal principles of anthropology, and unmindful of the patent lessons of human history, our legislators at the close of the war looked for what, had it happened, would have been a miracle. Time has shown that they looked in vain, and if we of to-day are perfectly frank with ourselves, we must acknowledge that the negro race in the South, with numerous individual exceptions, whatever its future development may turn out to be, is not now fit for intelligent participation in representative self-government.

We are, indeed, beginning to learn that there are exceptions to that optimistic rule of our immediate ancestors, which declared that every human being of twenty-one years of age and wearing trousers was *ipso facto* a fit and desirable equal political partner in self-government. More and more exceptions to this rule are presenting themselves to our national consciousness day by day. We are approaching, if we have not already reached, an age of questioning, of doubt, as to the fundamental truth of once firmly believed political dogmas. The public mind moves slowly and tentatively, but an object-lesson of forty years' standing seems to have at length brought conviction, and, whatever may have been the causes, the fact remains that the negro race of the South to-day—with numerous individual exceptions—is not generally regarded as a safe or capable political partner in Anglo-Saxon representative self-government. Neither political party in the United States is willing to acknowledge this in so many words; but, representing, as these two political parties unquestionably do, the views of the vast majority of the people of the United States, there can be no doubt as to the national attitude towards this subject. A political idol has been smashed, but we had rather not say anything about it in public—yet we know it is smashed.

Another lesson of rather an important character, in what might be called the psychology of politics, is afforded by the review in your columns of Paul's 'History of Modern England' (Macmillan, 1905). The psychology of the working class, the mental furniture of the laboring man, seems to have been completely misunderstood by British legislators during the last half century. For reasons not altogether apparent to the historian and anthropologist of to-day, it was the hope and belief of Gladstone, Bright, and Cobden that the British workingman, when granted the ballot, would be solidly opposed to war in any shape; he would concentrate his efforts on useful domestic legislation, would accept the ballot with eagerness and thankfulness, and, above all, would be sympathetic with all those oppressed and mistreated fellow-mortals under other Governments who were striving for those same great political blessings which the British workingman enjoyed. That is what was expected. History shows that results hardly tallied with expectations. The British working class showed no particular desire for the franchise, when granted them, though the theory all along had been that they were fairly aching for it. In the next place, they manifested a most distressing and disappointing fondness for war. They flocked to the Boer war without question; they were ready to fight Russia in 1877, and probably are just as willing now to fight Germany. The struggles of the Boers for liberty and independence excited with the British workingmen just about as much sympathy as our workingmen display for the Filipinos. In short, the British workingman, almost indifferent to the gift of the ballot, showed that he was simply a human being, with the usual passions, prejudices, frailities, and shortcomings of ordinary human nature. The ascription to him of extraordinary virtues and superhuman qualities was both absurd and pernicious. In Great Britain the workingman's vote is to-day probably as intelligent as that of the ordinary clerk, small tradesman, and small professional man—but the point is, that, contrary to expectation, it is no more so.

The half-century's experience of these two kindred countries, Great Britain and the United States, is in some respects quite similar. In both countries the Legislatures, with the consent and support of their constituencies of course, made a practically gratuitous gift of the ballot to a class at that time totally unexperienced in, and probably indifferent to, the problems of self-government. With us the negro has failed to reach the level of average citizenship essential to the successful operation of a self-governing representative country; in Great Britain, the workingman has failed to go above that level. In neither country has either class responded to the original expectations entertained for them. The wonder is, why they were ever expected to.

Mr. Hume's work on 'The Abolitionists' brings clearly to mind the popular misconception and overestimate of the negro's character. The miscalculations of our British doctrinaires and closet philosophers regarding the workingman's actual character are amusing, and not altogether distressing. With us to-day in the United States, the question is whether we shall persist in trying to make human nature conform to a palpably defective political institution, or shall adapt the institution to suit the needs of American human nature.

E. L. C. Morse.

February 22, 1906.

POULTRY RAISING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your note in the *Nation* of February 15 discouraging the keeping of poultry on a large scale seems to me to overlook the fact that any number of small flocks, as kept by the ordinary farmer, does not and cannot keep the market supplied with fresh eggs. The ordinary farmer is altogether too careless in gathering his eggs (frequently only every other day), and in keeping them in a warm place, where they will, inside of a week, acquire the "gunpowder" if not the musty taste. Even if he doesn't hold them for higher prices, the means of getting them to market are irregular and uncertain. Most commonly he takes them to the village store once a week, where they lie till a case is filled, and are then sent to the city. Farmers' eggs may easily be three weeks old before they are consumed.

The larger poultrymen, on the other hand, are much more careful in gathering their eggs, and ship by express at least once a week direct to their customers or jobbers in the city. Personally, I handle hundreds of dozens weekly from the largest farms in Connecticut for New Haven and New York private and hotel trade; and for ten months of the year, since practically all my eggs are not over four days old when delivered, I have almost no complaints; but in October and November when the old hens are moulting and the new pullets have not begun to lay, I have to resort to the small farms, and then my trouble begins. I keep my trade because I make tours all over the State, getting others to pick up eggs for me, but I do not sleep nights. And this condition of things will last until an industry in which there is more money invested than in any other in this country has plants suited to its size. The market for strictly fresh eggs is inexhaustible.

After apprenticeship on the large farms of Petaluma, California, where poultry-keeping is the one industry that supports the town, and on the well-known farms of central New York in addition to my own farm, and acquaintance with conditions here, I also take issue with the statement that poultry-keeping does not pay. Build your houses on the colony plan near a brook, and your hens will need no more fencing or food than if they were always at your back door and in the kitchen, and they will get their water for themselves ten months in the year. Do the work yourself, take infinite pains, and nothing will repay you better in all honest ways, or more fascinate you as a growing science, than the incubation, artificial brooding, and caring of poultry on a large scale.

Yours in sincerity,

Robinson Smith.

Cheshire, Conn., February 19, 1906.

THE FARCE OF MASTER PATELIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your recent review of 'The Farce of Master Pierre Patelin,' regret was expressed that I had not given the entire original text of Patelin along with my translation. Allow me to say that my critical edition, to be out within a year or two, will contain a reproduction in facsimile of

Pierre Levet's whole text. Meanwhile, Mr. Albert Rosset of Lyons is having his unique exemplar of Le Roy's edition, printed about 1485, reproduced in facsimile. This book will be published within a month, and is likely to be eagerly sought by booklovers, for Le Roy's edition of Patelin is almost beyond doubt the first printed book containing the text of a comedy written in a modern tongue.

Whoever is interested in these two ancient books, will find an article on them in *Modern Language Notes* for March, 1906.

Very truly yours,

RICHARD HOLBROOK.

NEW YORK, February 24, 1906.

Notes.

"Édition de luxe" is not exactly a fit designation of Francis D. Tandy Co.'s new and enlarged "Gettysburg Edition" of Nicolay and Hay's 'Speeches and Letters of Abraham Lincoln.' Neither enlargement with new matter, nor the title 'Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln,' nor yet a limitation to 700 numbered and registered sets, ensures a luxurious product. The Nicolay and Hay edition was in two volumes of irreproachable but very condensed typography; the buff paper made some amends to eyesight. The present can be read much more easily because of larger type and wider spacing, but the paper is a dead white. On the other hand, there are numerous portraits, mostly familiar. The first interpolations are four in the period 1832 to 1836, where Nicolay and Hay gleaned nothing. In 1837, a Bank speech before the Illinois Legislature has now been disinterred from a newspaper. Between "de luxe" and additions, these first two volumes (1832-1858) demand more than 700 pages as against the original 240 of Nicolay and Hay's volume i. Some of the accretions may be thought valuable; most are at least characteristic. Mr. Lincoln's early low plane of anti-slavery principle is made renewedly evident.

A number of decidedly unhandy volumes on our table approach the category of books that are no books. Such is the composite quarto, 'The New York Stock Exchange,' of which E. C. Stedman is the general editor (Stock Exchange Historical Co.). It is showily, rather than elegantly got up, and most of the illustrations are familiar antiquarian woodcuts in the text. A second part is yet to appear. In the present, panics and other financial crises are narrated at sufficient length; not always with sufficient reserve, nor always quite accurately. An oblong folio with red sides and white backing is the 'Society of Colonial Wars in the State of Maryland: Genealogies of the Members and Record of Services of Ancestors,' published in Baltimore under the editorial direction of Christopher Johnston, M.A. Each pedigree occupies a page or more, and is neatly displayed. The services are grouped at the end, and here the New England ancestors hold a prominent place. The work has been admirably executed. Finally, the Rhode Island State Society of the Cincinnati puts forth a tall octavo, 'The Order of the Cincinnati in France ('L'Ordre de Cincinnatus'): Its Organization and History,' edited by Dr. Asa Bird Gardiner. It is handsomely printed and freely illustrated with portraits, from Rochambeau's to that of the retiring President Loubet (honorary member). The edition is limited to 350 numbered copies. The French Society was rudely dispersed by the Revolution, and nothing was done to reanimate it till 1887. Then it sought to regain its place in the Order, but we are left to infer that it has not fulfilled the condition—"whenever it shall permanently organize with a membership sufficient for the purpose." This volume may prove to contain the entire history of the Society.

'The Later Work of Titian,' as dealt with in one of the most recent additions to the Newnes-Scribner "Art Library," is that produced after 1540, or, if the traditional date of Titian's birth be accepted, after that artist had reached his sixty-third year and when he and the Renaissance had grown old together. He had still thirty-six years of activity before him, but to see the work of that period assembled and separated from what had gone before is almost to become an Oslerite. There is much in it that one must admire, but the pictures that one loves were nearly all produced earlier. There are imitations of Veronese and Tintoretto, as if our painter felt bound to contest the laurels of his younger rivals; there is a growing pomposity and emphasis in composition; there is increasing technical power coupled with deadness of feeling; there is an almost total absence of the pure joy in beauty which marked the painter of the so-called "Sacred and Profane Love." Finally, there is the evidence of commercialism in more than one canvas, culminating in such an atrocity as "Philip the Second Dedicating his Son, Don Ferdinand, to Victory"—a picture which he certainly acknowledged, and for which he claimed payment, but which it is difficult to believe that he even designed. Occasionally, as in the Borghese "Education of Love," he reverted to his earlier manner, as far as subject and treatment are concerned, but without the old spontaneity. It is in such strange and almost modern and impressionistic compositions as the Madrid "Entombment" that he is at his best. In these one feels the precursor of a new art rather than the belated practitioner of an old one. A remarkable picture of this period, and one of the most powerful if not in all respects one of the most agreeable, is Mrs. Gardner's "Europa." Its absence from this collection of reproductions is to be regretted.

Another issue of the same series is devoted to the 'Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood,' and the plates give a fair notion of the work of Madox Brown, Holman Hunt, Rossetti, and the young Millais. Curiously enough, the earliest works of Rossetti, the only Pre-Raphaelite ones, are omitted. Certain inclusions in the list of illustrations are, however, harder to understand than the exclusions, and the prefatory text, by J. Ernest Phythian, gives us no light. Certain works by Gentile da Fabriano, Fra Angelico, Masaccio, Lippo Lippi, Mantegna, and Botticelli, together with the Ansidei Madonna, seem to answer no purpose here, unless it be to show what English Pre-Raphaelite work was *not* like. What it *was* most like is photography, and there can be little doubt that the Pre-Raphaelites, however unconsciously, were deeply influenced by the new discovery, which was destined to show men how different art is from nature. That the young enthusiasts should have thought the difference a proof of the faultiness of art was natural enough. Nowadays, so far from making art over after the pattern of photography, we are engaged in the equally hopeless task of trying to make photography an art.

Ford Madox Hueffer's 'Holbein,' in "The Popular Library of Art" (Duckworth-Dutton), is agreeably written, gives a good summary of the little that is known of the life, and is justly appreciative of the painter. There is not much detailed criticism or analysis, and one looks over the pages for detachable passages with some surprise at their rarity; but a picture of the man and of his art is somehow conveyed to one, and one rises from the perusal with a clearer notion of what it is that one has always admired. Holbein is eminently reproducible, and the illustrations of the little volume are therefore more successful than ordinary, and come nearer to doing justice to the originals. The book is a worthy successor to its fellows in one of the best of the many series of popular books on art.

A little work on the Philippines which has made no appeal to the general reader, yet which is worth the attention of every one interested in the subject, is a little 'History of the Philippines,' prepared originally for use in the Philippine schools by Dr. David P. Barrows (American Book Co.). Dr. Barrows composed it at intervals while he was superintendent of schools in Manila, and later chief of the Philippine Ethnological Survey; and, now that he is general superintendent of the Government schools, he does not feel like making his own book the textbook. This is really a pity, since it so nearly fills the needs of the Filipino, who has no historical outlook, inasmuch as it deals with Philippine history in relation to that of the world at large. While subordinating the Philippine text and subordinating the events of Philippine history to the broader view, it at the same time affords the best brief survey of the history of the islands and the islanders themselves that has yet appeared in the English language. For this purpose it may be commended to all readers who seek something more than a mere string of chronicled events drawn from sources both authentic and unauthentic.

'Days of the Past,' by Alexander Innes Shand (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is one of the innumerable collections of reminiscences which seem to have become the dominant note of present-day literature. We have reached a point where no self-respecting person who has passed the age of sixty and has mingled to any extent in political, literary, or artistic society can quit the stage with propriety unless he has put on record everything within his recollection that can throw light on the history of his time. Unfortunately for their readers, the writers of these books do not always confine their lucubrations within such beneficent limits. Mr. Shand's peculiar weakness is gastronomic. He delights to record his various experiences in eating and drinking, and is evidently proud of the adaptability of his taste and of his capacity to deal with the different kinds of meat and

drink he has encountered. On the other hand, his chapters on the changes in London and on Old Edinburgh, and his literary recollections, are both interesting and valuable. He was for years on the staff of the London *Times*, and was also a contributor to the leading reviews, so that he made the acquaintance of many well-known people, and what he has to say about them is quite worth reading.

Human nature is ever the same, and the cult of Napoleon has thousands of devotees, while Emerson and Goethe sink into comparative obscurity. From Prince Victor Napoleon with his priceless collection of heirlooms and relics, to the humble but proud possessor of a single and not indubitable Waterloo bayonet, the gradations are numerous; in these gradations Mr. H. M. Broadley occupies an honorable superior position. The catalogue of his collection, 'Collectanea Napoleonica,' compiled and published in London by W. V. Daniell, is well turned out and agreeably illustrated, although his entries, especially of books and pamphlets, decidedly reveal the amateur. His strong point is undoubtedly autographs, in which his collection is about complete. In other respects completion is an impossible ideal; in England alone it is computed that 1,700 caricatures of Napoleon have been published, while of portraits and engravings illustrating his life M. Mayer of Paris believes that some 80,000 have appeared. Mr. Broadley is, however, decidedly strong in caricatures, portraits, maps, etc., and the catalogue will undoubtedly prove useful to collectors and students. It may be of interest to add that probably the finest collection of caricatures of Napoleon at the present day is that of Mr. Latta of Philadelphia, and that our ambassador in Paris, Mr. McCormick, is the owner of one of the best collections of Napoleon portraits.

'Sveriges Bibliografiska Litteratur' is the title of a work of which the first two instalments have accompanied the annual reports of the Royal Library at Stockholm for 1904 and 1905. They embrace the bibliographical literature proper, while the two remaining parts will be devoted to the literature of libraries and archives, and to printing and the book trade. The compiler, Dr. J. A. Almquist, has, of course, had at his disposal a practically complete collection of the literature of Sweden, and has certainly bestowed great care on the preparation; not only bibliographies in the strict meaning of the word, but everything that has any bibliographical bearing at all has been included. Bibliographical publications of Swedes printed in other countries and publications about Swedish literature by foreign writers are enumerated, along with works printed in Sweden. Particularly important is the inclusion of biographical dictionaries of special classes of men, and registers of officers of universities and schools, which quite often contain lists of the publications of the writers they include. The only similar work of the same scope and comprehensiveness which has been published is Ottino and Fumagalli's 'Bibliotheca Bibliographica Italica.'

The December (1905) number of the *Social Tidskrift* is accompanied by an index to the first five volumes of that journal, which depicts in a very succinct way the social movements in modern Sweden. A very large space is occupied by discussions of the various phases of the popular educational movement which has taken such a strong hold on the educated classes within the last ten years—the public-library movement, public lectures, summer extension courses, etc. Other matters which have received attention are: laborers' dwellings, the struggle between employers and employed, emigration, the treatment of the poor, coöperation, the temperance question, social hygiene (*e. g.*, the work against the spread of tuberculosis), etc. Social work has received a new impetus in Sweden since the break with Norway. Many of the younger men especially feel that concentration of efforts on the lines of social progress, and unification of the forces of the country towards a single aim, are more imperatively needed now than ever before, as was pointed out in an editorial in the *Social Tidskrift* last summer.

The *Geographical Journal* for February contains our American mountaineer, Mrs. Fanny Bullock Workman's, account of her and Dr. Hunter Workman's record-breaking ascent of the Himalaya. The main object of their expedition was the exploration of some glaciers near the Kashmir border, in the course of which she climbed a peak 22,568 feet high and her husband one 23,394 feet. A remarkable thing about these great altitudes was the sudden changes from heat to cold. At one camp the sun temperature at 1:30 P. M. was 170 degrees Fahrenheit, and the heat was enervating, while by five it was freezing. Some interesting reproductions of photographs and a map of the region are given. Other articles are upon the bathymetrical survey of the lochs of Scotland, the climatic features of the Pleistocene Ice Age, by Prof. A. Penck, and the English Ordnance Survey maps. In respect of these, Dr. F. J. Haverfield recommends that the ancient remains, earthworks, tumuli, ruins, etc., should be more fully and carefully put upon the maps so as to make them a complete and accurate archæological record.

The material development of Egypt is making remarkable progress, largely through the aid of foreign capital. In the last few years 119 companies with a capital of $166,500,000 have been registered. This means an investment of $17 per head of the population, a figure which would be far larger were the many foreign banks and private companies included. Another indication of this industrial progress is the increased buying capacity of the people. Consul-General Morgan of Cairo says that up to the end of August the general imports were valued at nearly $5,000,000 over and above those of last year, the largest increase being in cotton fabrics.

In the *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 290, a well-known German traveller, Robert Kirnberger, gives, on the basis of his own observations, a very instructive account of the present and prospective French railroad from Algiers to the Sudan. The writer declares this to be a "riesiges Kulturwerk" upon which the French have been for years quietly engaged, and which, when completed, will cope with the Cape to Cairo road in importance for the inner development of the Dark Continent. He compares, also, its value as a factor in civilization with the roads connecting the Atlantic and the Pacific in this country. Supplementary to this, we find in the new series of the *Beilage*, No. 4, a full discussion of the projected and partly completed three great transcontinental telegraph lines of Africa—first and foremost the great Cape to Cairo line; then the line that is to cut through the heart of the Dark Continent from West to East, from the mouth of the Congo to Dar-es-Salam; and, thirdly, the Trans-Sahara line connecting the coasts of Algeria with the West African coasts. The exact status, prospects, and far-reaching importance of all these projects are given by the writer with a wealth of detail.

The turning of temples into school buildings is the latest and in some respects the most interesting manifestation of the progress of education in China. At Hai Cheng, a city in southern Mantchuria, a normal school for the preparation of native teachers under the direction of two Japanese has been established in a famous temple to Confucius. At a recent visit to the city United States Consul-General Sammons was invited by the chief magistrate of the district to address the ninety-nine students, and they were greatly interested in what he told them of the method of conducting primary and grade schools in this country. They are being taught reading, writing, mathematics, and geography as well as physiology, history, and other high-school subjects. A Buddhist temple has been converted into an industrial school for carrying out modern prison-reform methods. Long-time prisoners are being taught to spin and weave, make wire lamp screens and other useful articles, and in addition to improve the roads and build drains. Magistrate Kuan has also organized a commercial club, to which the consul by invitation described American commercial methods; has made arrangements to open a school for Chinese girls in the Confucian temple, and has ordered a memorial to be erected to the late Rev. John McIntyre of the Scotch Presbyterian Church, who served the best years of his life in the Mantchurian mission field.

One of the consequences of the separation of Church and State in France is the fact that the theological faculties of Paris and Montpellier, the ablest representatives of independent and advanced theological scholarship in the country, will lose their income from the State, which has amounted to almost 150,000 francs per annum. A review announces that the project of uniting the two faculties had, for reasons of tradition and local interests, been dropped, but that it had been found necessary to reduce the number of chairs, in the one case from ten to six, and in the other case from eight to five.

Italy has recently lost one of its best scholars by the death of Dr. Severino Ferrari, who died at the age of forty-nine in an insane asylum in Tuscany. As poet and critic Ferrari earned the public applause of Carducci. For a number of years he was a teacher in the women's college in Florence. His reputation as a poet was established some twenty years ago when he published his "Bordatini."

In 1902 the New York University acquired the Hübner collection of Classical Philology from Berlin, embracing 4,000 bound volumes and 3,000 pamphlets. It is proposed now to make a modest addition to it as a memorial to the late Dr. Howard Crosby,

who was Chancellor of the University (1870-81), Professor of Greek, founder of the Greek Club of New York, and one of the company of revisers of the translation of the New Testament. Dr. Crosby was a man of mark among the scholars and philanthropists of the last quarter of the nineteenth century. He would have been eighty years of age on the 27th of February. Contributions, large or small, for the Howard Crosby memorial as above may be made to Prof. E. G. Sihler, or to Prof. Wm. E. Waters, University Heights, New York City.

—The excellences of Mr. Albert H. Smyth's 'Life and Writings of Benjamin Franklin' (Macmillan) begin to appear in the second volume. The carelessness in previous texts is corrected, omitted paragraphs are restored, and the notes are more full and useful. The prefaces to 'Poor Richard' are, with some exceptions, printed, and a number of "characteristic" contributions to the *Pennsylvania Gazette* take the place of certain essays which previous editors have accepted as Franklin's on insufficient evidence. In one instance Mr. Smyth has traced the author of two of these rejected essays, and in other instances he omits them because they are "dull and trivial." Internal evidence of authorship is usually an uncertain guide, and we fear some of the material included by the editor will be rejected by his successor. The omission of a letter to Colden, containing an erroneous theory of the diurnal motion of the earth, because Franklin desired the letter not to be reprinted, offers a dangerous precedent, and would justify the omission of any indiscretion in theory or expression—a fault to which Sparks owes so much of his disrepute as an editor. The "Dissertation on Liberty and Necessity" is also omitted, on the ground that to republish it would be an "injury and an offence to the memory of Franklin." It is certainly more proper to err in this direction than to exhume and to print the worst in the belief that everything may be sacrificed to completeness. The contents of the volume are better reading for the changes and contain more of the real Franklin. The charm of the almanac prefaces is still to be felt, and the earliest known productions of his pen, the 'Do Good Papers,' were well worth recovering, since they prove the strong influence which the form of the *Spectator* essay exerted on the young journalist, persisting even when the frank materialism of the almanac period had intervened. The lively characterization of Harvard College, the satire on elegies, the essay on "Shavers and Trimmers," and the "Apology for Printers" are distinct gains. Franklin's scientific papers and his early ventures in public usefulness occupy a good part of the volume. The editor's notes are excellent, but it is puzzling to know why the name of Jarman should have been explained only on its third appearance, and why a reference to Whitefield (p. 234) is allowed to remain concealed in the initials only. The origin of the Polly Baker paper has baffled the efforts of Mr. Smyth to trace it.

—In this connection may be mentioned some issues incident to Franklin exhibitions in various cities. Boston naturally leads with a list of exhibits and extracts from the Autobiography for use in the public schools—both the work of Lindsay Swift. The New York Public Library Bulletin gives space to Bigelow's theory of the authorship of the Shipley speech, and his account of a new statuette of Franklin; as well as to an excellent list of Franklin material in that library. The latter includes a very valuable list of Franklin portraits "grouped under the various originals on which most of them are based" —a true procedure for scientific iconography—compiled by Mr. Frank Weitenkampf, Curator of the Print Department. It fills nearly thirty-eight pages. Duplessis takes the lead, as might have been expected, but the prints after Cochin, Martin, and Chamberlin are also very numerous. Mr. Weitenkampf disdeserves the praise of a pioneer. The Grolier Club prints a catalogue of the portraits, manuscripts, and medallions brought together by its members. As is usual, the number of good or unique impressions is large.

—The two stately quarto volumes entitled 'Some of the Ancestors and Descendants of Samuel Converse, jr., of Thompson Parish, Killingly, Conn.; Major James Convers of Woburn, Mass.; the Hon. Heman Allen, M.C., of Milton and Burlington, Vt.; Capt. Jonathan Bixby, sr., of Killingly, Conn.' (Boston: Eben Putnam), cannot be regarded as exemplary genealogical editing. The actual compiler, Charles Allen Converse, will doubtless plead freedom from commercial restraint, as private liberality footed the bills of manufacture. This is evidenced as well by the extraordinary number of portraits (sometimes duplicated) in every generation (a very valuable feature), as by illustrations even of a dwelling house, farm buildings, the stock at pasture, and, finally, an old Convers chest. Not only the respective lines mentioned on the title page, but all the collateral, male and female, are liable to be treated with a fulness often surpassing that of the leading families, who are thus so obscured that you cannot see the wood for the trees. Inventories, sheep earmarks, modern notices of weddings, funeral eulogies and lodge resolutions, Sheldon's expedition to Canada, Lamberton's lost ship (1646), are plentifully and often wastefully introduced. In the end you may (if you have not had to pay for it) be thankful for what is thus pitchforked together rather than edited. Edward Convers came over with Winthrop in the *Arbella*, and was ferryman between Charlestown and Boston till 1640, when the privilege was made over to Harvard College. A final *e* was assumed by Major James Converse, of the third generation, a stout Indian fighter. On the other hand, the descendants of Benjamin Converse, implicated in Shays's rebellion, dropped the *e*. Sherman Converse first published Webster's Dictionary. Charles Crozat Converse, still living, has been musician and composer of wide popularity; inventor, lawyer, and manufacturer; proposed the pronoun *thon* (common gender), and got it incorporated in the vocabulary of the Standard Dictionary, which has been amber to it. The Rev. Ambrose Converse, D.D., a Northern man with Southern principles, made his pro-slavery Philadelphia *Christian Observer* so "coppery" during the civil war that Seward suppressed it and arrested him. The Allen, Bixby, and Bishop families, treated in as many different appendixes, derive from Ipswich, Mass. The assortment of queer female names in the Converse line—Cindrella, Lenna, Polina, Celestia, Dulcenia, Celenda, for a few—is unparalleled in our observation.

—Essex County, New Jersey, possesses a park system second perhaps to none, except the metropolitan system of Boston. It was established under a law passed in 1894 for a temporary commission to obtain such information as might be necessary to enable the public to judge of the desirability of such a system for the county. The commission, consisting of five members, of whom Mr. F. W. Kelsey was one, completed their work "in about half a year," instead of the two years allowed, and used less than half the appropriation for the purpose ($10,000). That commission deserves the greatest credit for the promptitude and efficiency with which it fulfilled its trust, and Mr. Kelsey is entitled to his full share as a most active and energetic member of it. A general law providing for a park system under control of a permanent commission passed the Legislature of New Jersey, "not a single vote having been recorded in either house against it," and was approved March 5, 1895. It contained a referendum clause, and was sustained by the people at the general election, April 9, 1895. Mr. Kelsey was appointed on the permanent commission, his term expiring in April, 1897, when Mr. George W. Bramhall was appointed to succeed him. During these two years Mr. Kelsey devoted a large share of his time to the work of the commission, for which he deserves great praise. He now professes to have written 'A Complete History of the Inception and Development of the Essex County Parks of New Jersey' (New York: J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.), but it seems to us neither "complete" nor a "history." He does not give the text of the laws under which the park system was established, nor the details in regard to the acquirement of lands, whether by purchase, condemnation, or gift—there is only one short reference to lands given, not a word about the fine gateway to the northern division of Branch Brook Park, presented by Mr. Robert F. Ballantine. He does not give the history of the Heller litigation, nor the text of the decisions of the Supreme Court and Court of Errors and Appeals, sustaining the constitutionality of the Park act; he bestows no commendation upon Mr. Alonzo Church for his long and faithful service as secretary, nor does he mention the names of the commissioners who have died during their term of office. He gives abundant space to his own correspondence and to criticism of the commission and individual members of it, where their policy and views have not met with his approval. He has, however, gathered together much material which will greatly aid an unbiassed future historian.

—A rather unsatisfactory piece of bookmaking is the edition of 'In Memoriam, Annotated by the Author,' just published by the Macmillan Co. In size and binding the volume simulates the well-beloved Golden Treasury series, from which it is distinguished, however, by the lack of the familiar vignette title-page, as well as by less admirable printing. The look of the page is specially impaired by the use of

Roman numerals to mark the stanzas as well as the sections. In view of the uniform shortness of the sections, this innovation in the text is of doubtful advantage. Of the editorial apparatus very little is new. The "Introduction by the Editor," which occupies some twenty-five pages, is (though there is nothing in the book to indicate it) merely the chapter on 'In Memoriam' in the Memoir of Tennyson by his son, reprinted verbatim with a few omissions. In consequence, it follows that the three sections of the poem which appear in the introduction as "unpublished" have been in print since 1897. On general grounds, there is, of course, no objection to such warming-over of good material, but meticulous readers, at least, would have welcomed some statement of the circumstances.

—The poet's own annotations to his poem, which fill some score of pages at the back, are devoted to pointing out classical and Scriptural sources for specific lines, or to brief prose paraphrases of the more abstract stanzas. We have, for example, on the familiar section beginning:

"If Sleep and Death be truly one,"

this eloquent gloss:

"If the immediate life after death be only sleep and the spirit between this life and the next should be folded like a flower in a night slumber, then the remembrance of the past might remain, as the smell and color do in sleeping flowers; and in that case the memory of our love would last as true, and would live pure and whole within the spirit of my friend until it was unfolded at the breaking of the morn, when the sleep was over."

Along with a few bits of pregnant prose like this are some gratifying *ex-cathedra* explanations of certain puzzling allusions. Thus, the "one clear harp of divers tones" is now discovered beyond a peradventure to be not St. Augustine's, as has been hitherto generally supposed, but Goethe's, "among whose last words," says the note, "were these, 'Von Aenderungen zu höheren Aenderungen.'" And the "horned flood" which has evoked a good deal of fantastic exegesis, is explained as "between two promontories." Yet even the notes of this stamp lack novelty, for the substance of nearly all of them was communicated by Tennyson before his death both to the Rev. Alfred Gatty and to James Knowles, and was used by them in their commentaries on the poem.

GREENSLET'S LOWELL.—I.

James Russell Lowell: His Life and Work. By Ferris Greenslet. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

In preparing this volume, Mr. Greenslet has neglected no source of information and enlightenment, whether from books or from persons. He has vivified his portrait by consulting Lowell's surviving friends—first and foremost, as a matter of course, Mr. Charles Eliot Norton; and has availed himself, also, of all the "oral tradition" which must soon entirely vanish. He has not only possessed himself *au fond* of Lowell's own works, and of biographies such as Mr. Scudder's and the Rev. Edward Everett Hale's, but he has gathered all the stray notices, English and American, and the scattered hints which furnish minute and life-like touches. He has examined, for instance, the annotations in Lowell's own hand of the volumes which he presented to the Harvard Library; and he prints for the first time Emerson's verses read on Lowell's fortieth birthday—a most penetrating and characteristic sketch. From all this embarrassing pile of riches he has extracted what is essential and characteristic with the most delicate skill and judgment. The juice and marrow of Lowell's life and work and character are here decanted into a little volume of 300 pages. In condensing, moreover, the lineaments of life have been neither distorted nor obliterated. On the contrary, even compared with Mr. Scudder's excellent and intimate biography, framed upon a much wider and more leisurely scale, it must be admitted that this little volume is thoroughly alive, and as far as possible from a *hortus siccus*.

Within its limits no one need attempt to revise or improve on it. It will remain, we believe, a definitive and final biography. The reviewer may, if he choose, feel that legitimate resentment which is natural toward the man who has said our say before us, anticipating all our judgments and "conveying" the apposite quotations he may have marked for his own. Or he may feel a reasonable complacency that his conclusions for years are here neatly and perfectly expressed, and his surmises confirmed, by one who must in future be reckoned an authority in his craft. For it is hardly possible to speak too highly of Mr. Greenslet's performance. In addition to an unusually ample literary outfit, he possesses the critic's instinct and insight, and his almost unfailing touchstone.

In glancing over the record of Lowell's life, we are struck by the great variety of his activity, and by the weight and quality of his achievement. It is an extraordinary distinction that a critic and man of letters, who may be compared with some great names in England or France—a poet, also, of genuine gifts—should have lived so close to his fellow-men and to the great currents of the world as to make an ambassador at once brilliant, serviceable, and discreet. In spite of his bookishness, in spite of being tied to a professor's chair for many years, he remained, to use his own phrase, a "real man." "Fine as is his written work," said Mr. Watts-Dunton, "his unwritten work is finer still." Mr. Greenslet appraises with his usual justness and accuracy the value of Lowell's services as a professor. "He was never quite a scholar in the German sense, nor even in the modern academic sense." In spite of multifarious reading and learning, and partly because of his reliance on a facile memory, he was capable here and there of little slips. In his "Shakespeare Once More" he alludes to Orestes's nurse in the "Agamemnon"—an ancient Gamp who belongs solely to the "Choephorœ"; and he does this immediately after a full profession of faith in the standards of the classics. Mr. Greenslet points out also a little nest of errors and inadvertences contained in a footnote to the essay on Spenser. But even such peccadilloes are certainly not characteristic of the learned reviewer of 'The Library of Old Authors'; they are exactly the kind of unpardonable crimes which it is now the first business of the critic or the philologist to hunt down and detect, and which are sufficient to damn an otherwise meritorious piece of work.

Genius is scarcer than scholarship, and the English were quite right when they coveted Lowell for a professorship of English literature at Oxford. A university does well occasionally to catch and cage a genius, who may never be fully broken and harnessed to the work of a plough-horse; for genius fertilizes by contagion, and the best of a student's work is that which he is inspired to do himself. And Lowell certainly impressed the imagination. If you met him in the class-room, you submitted to the charm and *bonhomie* of a manner without pose or affectation, without a trace of the pedant or the pedagogue; if you listened to his lectures, you followed the fascination of their brilliant flights, but had not the heart to stenograph them in cold blood; if you met him on horseback in the street, you were sure that the steed he rode was named Pegasus. In an atmosphere indigo-colored with blue laws, there was a sense of emancipation in sitting under a professor who refused to appraise over-nicely the omnipresent examination paper, and had no "realizing sense" of the impropriety of wearing on Sunday a coat which was not "black, with buttons of the same color." One felt the same thrill when Agassiz violated the laws of the universe by visibly smoking a cigar in the college yard. Lowell never took kindly to the professor's gown; in his letters he frequently fumes and recalcitrates against it, and misdoubts his vocation to the garb. Yet the poet and the man of letters stirred young imaginations and opened wide horizons; for, of all people, young men are the last to live by bread alone.

Two features come out strikingly from the confessional of Lowell's letters—his constant aspirations and yearning for poetic fame, and the constant recurrence of a sense that he is a poet *manqué*. He is always just about to satisfy his own standards, and he never really does. In his youth he could say, "If I have any vocation, it is for verse; if I prose, it is *invita Minerva*." But in later life, even after writing his Commemoration Ode, there is a frequent strain of disappointment: "Like a boy I mistook my excitement for inspiration—I am ashamed of having been tempted into thinking I could write poetry." Lowell was, in the main, an excellent critic—he was sometimes a careful critic of himself, as we may see in his interesting remarks in the Commemoration Ode and in the variants which he furnished, with many wavering codicils, to the little poem entitled "Phœbe." It is wise, then, to listen respectfully to the opinion of such an expert, or even to his instinctive self-distrust; it is possible that these may coincide, measurably, with the judgment of posterity. That he had a highly sensitive and poetic temperament goes without saying. In the fresh days of his youth he confesses "the balancing of a yellow butterfly over a thistle-blossom was spiritual food and longing for a whole forenoon." What is the reason, then, of the failure of this Wordsworthian to reach his ambitions? There are always ingenious explanations which satisfy his own mind—the distractions of his editorial duties, his professor's gown, "which estranges the Muse," or the want of a continuous "diet of bee-bread." The poet, he thinks, should be fed exclusively on poetry; the Muse bears no rival. This is partly true. Keats and Shelley and Tenny-

son were poets, and nothing but poets; they never laid aside their singing-robes. Yet Goethe remained a poet while feeding his mind on many other things besides poetry. Diet will not change a lark or a nightingale into an eagle. No surfeit of nectar and ambrosia would have transformed Gray into a Milton, nor Longfellow into a Shelley. In the firmament of the poets the distinction between satellites and suns is very marked and constant; there is no interchange between the different orders and magnitudes. Mr. Matthew Arnold complained, as Lowell did, that the distractions of his life kept him out of his due heritage with the immortals; and he had much more reason than Lowell—he was an overloaded man, shamefully burdened with the daily drudgery of his examination papers. If he had been freed from this treadmill, he would have written more poems; yet the poems would have been of much the same quality.

Unlike Arnold, whose small and carefully sifted volumes reveal some veins of pure gold, Lowell obscured his gift by permitting himself to print a considerable bulk of verse which has little or no title to the name of poetry. He improvised with a rush, and he published unhesitatingly his improvisation. Hence he is his own chief detractor. Some unquestionable poets have been Rhadamanthine in their self-judgment: Gray, for example, and Tennyson, rejected ruthlessly and fastidiously many gem-like stanzas which did not fit exactly in their place. Lowell did not practise this kind of self-denial; and so the torrent of his fluent verse inundates and almost drowns the dearest object of his ambition. As a matter of self-preservation, he required an anthology. The half (perhaps the third) of what he printed is far better than the whole; and this Mr. Greenslet quite truthfully observes. We should agree, in the main, with the selection which he proposes. Some shorter pieces, such as "Invita Minerva," "Phœbe," and "Turner's Old Téméraire," are the spontaneous offspring of a single mood or idea, and they create felicitously a kindred mood in the reader. They are of one piece, and produce a net impression; they waken an echo in the mind or heart as the music of a song might, or the stroke of a distant bell. The language, too, and the rhythm are as pure and harmonious as the conception. The same thing may be said with some reserves for the "Vision of Sir Launfal," which Mr. Greenslet dissects very prettily and instructively. These are the pieces which we may call Attic, and to which it would be churlish and unreasonable to refuse the name of poetry. They are free from Lowell's foibles, his facile imperfections, his intrusive learning, his over-moralizing, his freakishness, his tendency to dart hither and thither after the will-o'-wisp of his fancy or humor.

As to the Odes, we confess ourselves more dubious, and perhaps heretical. Lowell loved to soar in the ode, and he affected especially that artificial form of it which is remotely Pindaresque. He gives reasons sufficient to his own mind why, if an ode is to be recited, this form should be preferred. In any shape, however, the epideictic ode is a perilous venture. It requires a very high and sustained temperature of the fine frenzy to fuse and inspire it with the poetic glow, to purge it from the dross and slag of learned allusion or prosaic expressions and reminiscence. A very few—Milton, Gray, Shelley, and their select company—reach this fiery ether. They bear us entranced and intoxicated upon a wing so strong and steady that it leaves no fear of falling to the hard, prosaic earth. The remainder provoke trying and invidious comparisons. In the Commemoration Ode, Lowell wrote under the tension of strong feeling for a personal bereavement, he wrote with an afflatus which "left him lean"; yet we believe that certain stanzas might be turned without loss into impassioned prose. On the other hand, the "Biglow Paper" (No. X.) which covers in part the same ground, contains to our mind more genuine poetry; it expresses more simply and poignantly the stress of emotion which charged the atmosphere of that period; compared with this natural and affecting utterance, is it hypercriticism to say that the Ode seems somewhat artificial and academic?

The 'Biglow Papers,' indeed, though Lowell himself would have been loath to own it, were by far the most important asset which he left in verse. In them, he had plenty of elbow-room, and he expressed with freedom and naturalness almost every side of himself. Hosea Biglow was a delicious invention, and, behind his mask, spoke all that was strongest in the endowment of his creator—humor, eloquence, mother-wit, and shrewd sense, the *sæva indignatio*—all the elements of powerful satire, and, when the mood fitted, a strain of genuine pathos or poetry. Hosea's lingo, too, had a tang and piquancy which those who knew it as vernacular could savor most. It was said that Lowell himself dropped into it in moments of abandon. The Papers were, in their way, a felicitous and unique *trouvaille;* nothing more distinctively American was ever written. Add to all this their downright effectiveness, for they condensed and reinforced the highest sentiment and conscience of the time, and became a heavy battery on the side of freedom and public morals. That they are political and expressed in a lingo, dooms them, of course, to eventual decay. They require a glossary and an historical commentary, even now, and must retire sometime to the shelf of the student; but, notwithstanding the fatigue of a vanishing dialect, their humor will long give them salt and savor; their quotable sayings have become proverbs which still "flit upon the lips of men," and will continually lead back readers to the mine from which such brilliants emerged.

TWO STATE HISTORIES.

Rhode Island: A Study in Separatism. By Irving Berdine Richman. (American Commonwealths.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905. Pp. xii., 395.

Louisiana: A Record of Expansion. By Albert Phelps. (American Commonwealths.) Same publishers. 1905. Pp. x., 412.

To write a satisfactory history of an American commonwealth is not, one may suppose, in respect to most of them at least, a task easily performed. In too many cases the particular commonwealth is little more than a geographical expression, and its history is, like its physiography, an indistinguishable part of the history of the whole country, or at best of a large section of it. Commonly, therefore, the author is presented at the outset with the unpalatable alternative of telling a purely local story which is not for the most part of any general importance, or of sketching the history of the nation, with an occasional aside to remind the reader that the commonwealth in question made a part of it. In the former case there are few States which, like the English county, present conditions that enable the author to find consolation in antiquarian research, and none whose story centres in an ancient town with a century or more of vital historic life lying embedded somewhere in the Middle Age. If, on the other hand, the alternative appears to present a comparatively easy solution for the author, the editors are in danger of offering to the public a series in which the duplication is excessive.

The two volumes named above, almost simultaneously issued from the press, may be profitably considered together, inasmuch as they present, each with certain modifications, the opposite methods of meeting the dilemma just now suggested. They are, it may be added, peculiarly adapted to such a consideration, because two more attractive subjects than Rhode Island and Louisiana could not well be found in the whole range of commonwealths, or two that are wider asunder in origin and character. Each had more than a century of life before entering the Union; one finds its origin in Latin Catholic civilization, the other in English Protestant civilization.

Of these two methods Mr. Richman has adopted the first. He has told the story of Rhode Island with the briefest possible excursions into the larger field of national or international affairs. That he has taken this course is doubtless due to the fact that for him Rhode Island embodies a certain principle, the elucidation of which should furnish a unity that would be lacking in the case of another State. What that principle is, is well known to those who are familiar with his previous work on the early history of Rhode Island; and how he has sought to project it into the later period will be clear from the summary which closes the present work:

"The history of Rhode Island has been sketched in three parts: the part Agriculture and Separatism embracing the period 1636 to 1689; the part Commerce and Co-operation embracing the period 1690 to 1763; and the part Unification and Manufactures embracing the period 1764 to the present day. The last two parts are important as indicating the course of industrial development, and as revealing separatism in its deep power of survival. But it is the first part that is most important. It comprehends the time when Rhode Island alone among commonwealths exemplified the two leading ideas of Christianity and the Reformation—the two leading ideas of modern life and progress; the idea of Soul Liberty or Freedom of Conscience in religion; and the idea of the Rights of Man in politics" (p. 342).

To this most important part, Mr. Richman, nevertheless, gives but 65 pages out of a total of 345. His own justification for this course is the fact that he has already treated the early period somewhat elaborately in a work that appeared a few years since, and "it is largely the object of the present work," he tells us, "to point out the influence of separatism in determining the course of events . . . during the

eighteenth and nineteenth centuries." One may suggest, however, that the present volume is intended to appeal to another class of readers than the earlier work on Rhode Island origins; and the reviewer, at least, can hardly resist the conclusion that nothing would have been lost had the later period been shortened to permit of a more extended account of the time when Rhode Island "exemplified the two leading ideas of modern life and progress." Certain it is that the influence of "separatism in determining the course of events during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries" hardly suffices to secure that unity of narrative which is highly desirable in a book addressed to the general public. Further, one frequently feels that the author's general theory is being put to a severe strain, as, for example, where separatism is made responsible for "the politics of the State, both legitimate and debased" (p. 312). For present-day citizens of the State, the idea will doubtless have something of consolation in it, to say the least. But if the general theory is sometimes a little hard pressed, it nevertheless serves to furnish us with a suggestive treatment of many phases of later Rhode Island history.

In his brief sketch of the "Age of Roger Williams" Mr. Richman again emphasizes the proposition that was fundamental in his 'Rhode Island: Its Making and its Meaning,' namely, that Rhode Island, in the seventeenth century, stood for individualism (p. 61). That is well enough, but when it is added, in explanation of individualism, "rights of man as a being responsible primarily to God and not to the community," one is conscious of a certain confusion of thought. If by "individualism" is meant merely a certain extension of the sphere of individual freedom from State control, it is true that modern civilization is characterized by individualism; but in that case the difference between modern civilization and mediæval civilization—if the latter is what Mr. Richman has in mind—is a difference in degree rather than in principle. But if by individualism is meant the abstract principle, then it is not true that modern civilization rests upon individualism; for individualism in this sense means anarchy. The modern State suppresses with a ruthless hand whatever individual action it considers harmful to the State. That the modern State is not endangered by the same amount of individual freedom that would have endangered the Massachusetts theocracy, does not change the principle upon which they both rested. Nor can it be said that modern civilization accepts the idea that man is a being "responsible primarily to God and not to the community." Indeed, if there is one conception that is just now winning its way, we should say that it is precisely the principle that the individual will must be subordinated to the will of the community.

Mr. Phelps, adopting, as we have said, the opposite method, has resolutely seized upon the period previous to the admission of Louisiana into the Union as the important one, and even here he has excluded local history save in so far as it made a part of the general history of the Southwest. More than one-half of the book is given to this period. Here is retold—admirably, indeed—the familiar story of early exploration and settlement, Mississippi Bubble, Spanish control and reorganization, international intrigue, recession and Burr conspiracy. Much of this has already been told in other numbers of the series, much of it will doubtless be told again in future numbers. The remainder of the book is executed on the same plan. From 1815 to 1860 one loses sight of Louisiana almost entirely in the interesting discussion of the political and economic troubles leading to secession, while the three concluding chapters constitute essentially a commentary on the Civil War and Reconstruction from the Southern point of view.

The result is a narrative exhibiting unity and coherence, and dealing with large events in a large way. Partly because of a fortunate subject, partly because of a method to which the subject lends itself admirably, partly because of a first-hand familiarity with his material, Mr. Phelps has given us one of the best of the Commonwealths histories. While the later period is touched upon suggestively, if not with satisfactory detachment, it is the treatment of the earlier period that gives value to the book. The account of the history of Louisiana down to 1731, and of the Spanish reorganization and control, is excellent. On the subject of international intrigue between 1789 and 1800, Mr. Phelps is well informed, and if the story at this point is not altogether clear, the reader should remember that the period presents an exceedingly complex series of events to disentangle. If the constitutional importance of the debates centring about the treaty of 1803 is not set forth as satisfactorily as might have been expected in view of the exhaustive treatment of that question by Henry Adams, there is a certain recompense in the admirable description of conditions in the Territory which Mr. Phelps has given us in this connection. In dealing with the alleged Burr conspiracy, the author has followed, with some needed caution, the excellent work of Mr. McCaleb. With slavery Mr. Phelps has, necessarily, much to do. He has discussed it from what is commonly known as the Southern point of view. That slavery, from the earliest period, was an economic necessity; that slave legislation, originating in the *Code Noir*, was essentially humane; that the evils of slavery were greater for the white race than for the black; that these evils lay in the danger to "racial integrity"; that the South perceived this danger and was more interested in preserving racial integrity than in perpetuating slavery; that there was, after the war, no "negro" problem not made by the discontented mulatto and the white politician which the "white man unhampered and the negro uninfluenced" could not easily have settled—these, we take it, are the main points of Mr. Phelps's discussion. These statements invite comment, but space is wanting.

SUNDRY NOVELS.

A Renegade, and Other Tales. By Martha Wolfenstein. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.

The Bride of a Day. By R. B. and Dorothea Townshend. London: George Allen.

The Purple Land. By W. H. Hudson. Dutton.

The Sage-Brush Parson. By A. B. Ward. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Vrouw Grobelaar and her Leading Cases. By Perceval Gibbon. McClure, Phillips & Co.

On the Field of Glory. By Henryk Sienkiewicz. Translated from the Polish original by Jeremiah Curtin. Little, Brown & Co.

'A Renegade' presents to us a number of Gentile sinners and Jewish saints in the setting of far-away Bohemia. The scene and the subject are beyond the first-hand criticism of most readers, but a comparison with Zangwill's stories makes us wonder whether Martha Wolfenstein does not see the Gass in rather too roseate a light. However, we need not quarrel with the characterization if the stories were only interesting; but they are not. They are of the disappointing kind that begins with spirit and ends tamely, often concluding with a piece of forced pathos that produces actual irritation. The one simple love story, "Dovid and Resel," is the best of a poor bunch.

'The Bride of a Day' introduces us to New Mexico in the fifties, and is a readable story of romance and adventure. The element of love is supplied by the marriage of a Cornish gold-digger with a captive Navajo girl, a marriage primarily suggested by him in order to prevent her compulsory return to the reservation of her tribesmen. The adventure consists in the efforts made by the tribesmen to get and retain possession of her, though it needs no prophet to see from the beginning that their savage cunning will be finally foiled. In style, plot, and character the book is on a respectable level of commonplace.

Mr. Hudson's 'The Purple Land' is primarily a book of natural history. Even if we did not know of the author's other works, 'The Naturalist in La Plata,' 'Birds and Man,' etc., all later in date than the original edition of the volume now before us, we should quickly realize that the chief interests of this would-be novelist lie in the wild flowers and birds of the Uruguay which he describes. The story is constructed out of a series of scenes at different estancias in the course of the hero's journey in search of work. There is in every house a woman, generally a fascinating one, but the writer would have us know that his marked preoccupation with pretty women is only a part of his "great love for the beautiful: sunsets, wild flowers, especially verbenas, and beyond everything the rainbow." This strange concatenation is typical of the whole book, where travels, native stories, flirtations, a revolution, a prisoner's escape, a girl's flight from an unwelcome lover, are all strung so loosely together that sustained interest is impossible. The real point of the volume seems to be in the concluding paragraph of the last chapter but one: "Farewell, beautiful land of sunshine and storm, of virtue, and of crime; . . . may the blight of our superior civilization never fall on your wild flowers or the yoke of our progress be laid on your herdsmen." This sentiment reminds us forcibly of school debating societies, where the superiority of Barbarism over Civilization is apt to be carried by a large majority. But it is sweet, even if somewhat cloying, to read a lover's rhapsodies, and this ardent outpouring of devotion for the Banda Oriental will give pleasure to all unskeptical readers.

It is hard to determine whether the real hero of 'The Sage-Brush Parson' is the parson himself or Jack Perry, the devoted if somewhat blasphemously inclined saloon-keeper. But from the time Clement Vaughan, in his long, clerical coat and Nevada sombrero—a concession to the new country of his adoption—steps from the train into an enveloping cloud of alkali dust, his fortunes and adventures hold one's unflagging interest. A. B. Ward, the non-committal name upon the title-page, might be the person relating his own experiences, or a participant in the scenes depicted, so vivid are the descriptions, so intimate the apparent knowledge of life in a rough mining community, where all is sharply accentuated, and softening gradations of color are not needed in painting social combinations. Three or four tales of equal length, made up with the usual proportions of padding, might have been evolved from the material used in this story so lavishly. Every sentence tells, every chapter is a necessary step toward the consummation, every scene has its inevitable place in that unfolding of motive and character which abounds in the narrative almost as much as constant action. From the arrival of the parson at Eureka, the scene of his devoted attempts at uplifting the heterogeneous inhabitants, until he disappears into the desert in the final chapter, there to regain himself and his poise, the current of the story moves too swiftly to allow of laying the book down until completed. "Gathering a Congregation" and "Charley Davenport's Funeral" must actually have occurred, in some form, somewhere; and hardly less real are "Fairy Fingers," "The Debate," and "Sobering-Off a District Attorney." Katharine Chisholm furnishes the off-setting grace, the refinements of gentle living, in this rough community, and in the beautiful home on Richmond Hill the young preacher finds rest and inspiration. But the touches of humor continually cropping out are still more invigorating to the reader, even casting a relieving gleam upon the sombre chapters relating to the trial, the death-watch, and the reprieve. The style is crisp, virile, incisive; and although there may be suggestions of Bret Harte, perhaps even of 'The Virginian' here and there, this is yet a new story, strongly told, with a character all its own.

In 'Vrouw Grobelaar' lies waiting a genuine sensation for the lover of short stories. Unless the reviewer is at fault, they will recall to the reader the hour wherein he tasted his first Maupassant, and that other hour when the new Kipling swam into his ken. In the Boer Country of Africa there is a field rich in material. If more barbarous material than that of France and more limited than that of India, it still comprises its own folk-lore, its own animal-lore and legend, the savagery of primitive tribes, the tragedies of clashing civilization and barbarism, and, most characteristically of all, the creepy transition from the beast to the human. We have been made familiar with Africa's animal traditions of late, and have perhaps found them more interesting and instructive than entertaining. Stories of African pioneering, agriculture, and war have been freely granted us—good stories, too. But Mr. Gibbon has suddenly developed the African *conte*, masterly in form, in manner, in outcome. There are episodes of great beauty, climaxes of great skill, moments of great horror, but rarely an inartistic moment, never a tedious one.

Vrouw Grobelaar, who tells the stories, has a diction of surprising variety for a woman who could neither read nor write. If blemishes in the book are to be hunted for, here is perhaps one—that the excellent Vrouw at times speaks Stevensonian, and anon practises Hewlettry. Possibly nothing less would have conveyed the full aroma of "her leading cases." The story never suffers; the Vrouw does, a little, as a portrait, yet very little, since her personality is strong, and rises distinct and self-asserting to where beyond these voices of preciosity there is peace, the peace of consistency. "The muscle-rippled skin of him" does not undo the real Vrouw as disclosed in her maxim that "Garlic is a thing you must not play with; like sin, you can never undo it, whatever forgiveness you win"; or her discovery that "when a man meets a rebuff with silence and dignity, he is aging." The Vrouw is a creation. She suggests, possibly, not a person so much as the solidified experience of her world unspotted by knowledge of any other. Marvellous are the stories she tells. The little Katje who hears and flouts them flutters like a red poppy through the pages. She and the Vrouw's weird quips furnish the needed pin-points of light in the prevailing sternness, even awesomeness, of the stories. They make the blood curdle, but it is a legitimate curdle, accompanied by assent and admiration.

Whoever has read and liked Sienkiewicz's trilogy of historical romance is advised to read 'On the Field of Glory.' There is the family likeness of authorship, and there is even an actual echo of the names made familiar in those books. It may also attract new readers to know that this is not a novel of battles, but of the unsettled times preceding the second great siege of Vienna by the Turks. There is the more leisure, therefore, for love-making and home-scenes; there is the author's witty sympathy—his characteristic note—and there are militarism and ferocities enough, Mars knows, to boot. The story treats chiefly of the adventures of certain doughty knights, nobles, and clericals who rescue a fair damsel from perils of the wolf and the wicked human monster, and, having rescued, deliver her over safely to her own true love. Trite as this outline appears, there is nothing trite in the experiences of the pretty Anulka and her devoted friends, of whom one of the foremost is Father Voynoski. A mighty warrior in his day, the comrade of Pan Michael of glorious fame, he has now, after many hard fights and bitter sorrows, turned priest. He believes that war is abhorrent to Heaven—except a war against Turks; for in such case, reasons he, "God put the Polish people on horseback, and turned their breasts eastward; by that same act He showed them His will and their calling." Next in zeal for the beleaguered Anulka and for all Christian conflict come the four brothers, Bukoyemski, of whom the priest truly says, "The Bukoyemskis are the Bukoyemskis." Named for the Evangelists, Mateush, Marek, Lukash, Yan, they go-galloping through the romance in brotherly love and brotherly squabbles, drinking, blubbering, slashing, slaying, praying, clowns of speech, thunderbolts of action. They make themselves derided, feared, and in the end well-liked by their fellow-countrymen, whom the reader follows—at an Anglo-Saxon distance. They are as stirring in their way as the author's immortal Zagloba was in his. Anulka is as charming as Sienkiewicz alone (one is tempted to say) can make the heroine of gory romance. There is a good flash-light portrait of her in the lines, "The whole house was filled with her, and wherever she showed her little confident nose and her young gladsome eyes, delight and smiles followed." The closing scene is a panorama of gorgeous color, when King John Sobieski marshals his troops before his queen, as they are about to move on to Vienna. The pages palpitate with the color, glitter and swing of the great army. The climax is reached when the hussars march by in their steel armor, inlaid with gold, on their shoulders wings, "in which the feathers, even when moving slowly, made that sound heard in forests among the branches." Anulka cries farewell to her newly-wedded husband as he turns his iron-covered head toward her. Gladly would she have changed to a swallow to perch on his shoulder or the flag of his lance, and go with him to the Field of Glory. "She would not have stopped for one twinkle to calculate."

The translation is made with Mr. Curtin's accustomed brilliancy, flecked by an occasional blur like "shady eyelashes," "to milden the pain"—more expressive than idiomatic.

A FLASHLIGHT NATURALIST.

With Flash-Light and Rifle: Photographing by Flash-Light at Night the Wild Animal World of Equatorial Africa. By C. C. Schillings. Translated and abridged by Henry Zick, Ph.D. Harper & Brothers. Pp. xiv., 421. 1905.

Flashlights in the Jungle: A Record of Hunting Adventures and of Studies in Wild Life in Equatorial East Africa. By C. C. Schillings. Translated by Frederic Whyte, with an introduction by Sir H. H. Johnston, G.C.M.G., K.C.B. Illustrated with 302 of the Author's "untouched" photographs taken by day and night. Doubleday, Page & Co. Pp. xxxii., 782, 1906.

Wonderful tales of adventure are not uncommon in the literature pertaining to explorations and exploits in the Dark Continent, and hair-breadth escapes from the very jaws of death are not only pictured in words, but frequently rendered all the more vivid by illustrations. Not a few of those who thus relate their tales of adventure, their lion hunts, their elephant hunts, their tiger hunts, etc., have never seen these animals alive except when safely caged in a passing show or in a zoölogical garden. Now that the camera has come into general use, we usually find half-tones after pictures taken on the spot just at the critical moment, and the unsophisticated public assumes that the camera tells no lie. A careful examination of such pictures usually reveals the fact that a poorly stuffed specimen has been forced to serve the purpose of the ambitious journalist. It is

therefore a decided pleasure to find a graphic account by an explorer and enthusiastic collector, whose persistent efforts have made it possible for him, not only to give a narration of his travels and the wealth of large game met, but also to give to the public the finest series of reproductions of photographs from life of the various animals encountered which have ever been reproduced. Herr Schillings states that he felt the insufficiency of words to depict convincingly the conditions of animal life in Africa as he found them on his first trip, and the need of some mode of representation that would be incontrovertible. Naturally, the camera appealed to him as the one means with which to accomplish this end. After careful experimenting with telephotography and flashlight, he set out for his second expedition. The results of this trip did not altogether satisfy him. A new series of experiments were made on his return, in which not only Capt. Kiesling, an expert military photographer in the German army, but even Mr. Goerz of the Goerz Optical Company, lent a hand. This resulted in the third expedition, and the author tells us he again learned "that theory and practice are two different things." After many disappointments and suffering from an acute heart trouble and malaria, he was compelled to give up the expedition and seek recovery in his native land.

Undaunted by these adverse experiences, he set out for a fourth expedition into German East Africa. The caravan, consisting of the author and (part of the time) Prince Loewenstein and one hundred and seventy native carriers and guards, left Tanga by rail for Korrogwe early in February, 1903, travelling from there on foot by way of Mombo and Masinde toward Mt. Kilimanjaro. The regular caravan route was avoided, the expedition following the Rufu River. In addition to the general account of the journey, the physiography of the land, its people, animals, and vegetation, there are separate chapters devoted to the habits, hunting, and photographing of the noble game of the region. In his chapter, "The Tragedy in the Path of Progress and Civilization," the author points out that the native fauna in Africa is doomed to speedy destruction, even as the buffalo, which once roamed over our Western plains, has passed away to make room for the settler. However, Africa is less hospitable to the European invader, for the tsetse fly soon inoculates his stock with the deadly trypanosome, leaving the settler to till the soil without these necessary aids to agriculture. It is interesting to note what is said regarding the domestication of the zebra. This beautiful "tiger horse" appears to be immune to the dread nagana, and experiments are being carried on in Europe as well as in Africa to domesticate it, so that man may overcome the barriers to civilization placed so effectually by the tsetse fly. The author does not place much hope in these experiments, but states that "the zebra may be made to pull a wagon or carriage when hitched together with ponies, but this is mostly play, and not work; it does not and will not exert its full strength, and will not labor until exhausted as our own horses do." He suggests that it would be much more reasonable and promising to train the native ass for hard work. Aside from these opinions he gives an interesting account of the animal in its native habitat, illustrated with three very striking flashlight pictures, taken at drinking-places. There are seven other plates which show zebras in various poses and under divers conditions.

Thirty-five pages and four plates are devoted to the African elephant. Two chapters deal with the rhinoceros, which is probably the most dangerous animal to hunt in Africa. Many narrow escapes are recounted, and it would almost seem as if enough specimens had been slain to supply the needs of all existing museums. The difficulties of capturing, nursing and transporting a young rhinoceros, are well described. Other chapters deal with the hippopotamus, giraffes, gnus, hyenas, jackals, leopards, baboons, and monkeys, and the diverse species of gazelles, water-bucks, antelopes, and buffaloes, as well as the larger birds of the region. Most interesting are the author's experiences with the lion, which might win him the title of lion-killer, were it not for the fact that he has brought even greater fame upon himself as a lion-photographer. No less than thirteen plates are devoted to the king of beasts; ten of these are flashlight pictures of the wild animal in its native surroundings—clear and sharp, which could not be excelled for detail if they had been made in a specially-constructed cage in some zoölogical garden. Some of these represent the animal in the act of attacking the bait, while others show the lion or lions at the drinking-place. One plate depicts no less than three flashed while peacefully drinking at the brook.

As to their production, we will let the author speak for himself:

"My method of procedure was simple enough, but dangerous. Towards evening I would bind some animal—as a rule an ass—to a tree near the path of the beasts. The animals used as bait are not exposed to any suffering, for the lion kills his prey quickly with one bite in the neck. Taking my stand nearby, and placing the apparatus in position, I waited until I heard and saw the beast approach its prey. It goes without saying that I had to register more failures than successes. These days and nights were full of anxiety, suspense and also disappointments for me. But when I did finally accomplish my purpose—when I caught the king of animals, the mightiest beast of prey, in the act, as it were, and held the documentary evidence on the small sensitive plate—my joy was simply without bounds. Even my stoic blacks became excited and discussed this memorable event for many days."

The other method employed by Herr Schillings was to conceal himself at some frequented water-place in the evening, and lie patiently in wait until the desired object came within the range of the flashlight and lens.

There are one hundred and twenty-one illustrations in the Harper edition mentioned at the head of this article, some of the most striking of which are: "Thomson's gazelles by flashlight," "Male and female rhinoceros bathing," "Zebras scenting a lion," "Three old lionesses at the brook," "Male leopard at the drinking-place," "Gnus approaching the camera through curiosity," "Zebras, white-bearded gnus and impallah antelopes herding together," "Impallah antelopes at the brook," "An old lion in a swamp," the last a veritable masterpiece. The only adverse criticism which we have to offer is that the printer should have bestowed a little more care in the reproduction of the plates, and some one should have noticed that the cut on page forty-six, was upside down.

The delayed edition of Messrs. Doubleday, Page & Co. is an unabridged translation, containing 379 pages and 181 illustrations more than the Harpers'. The appendices, labelled "Volume II.," will be hailed with pleasure by mammalogists and ornithologists, since they give a definite account of the collections which Herr Schillings has brought from Africa. The first of these deals with the mammals, and was prepared by Prof. Paul Matschie, Curator of the Royal Zoölogical Museum of Berlin, who says: "We need only glance at the complete list of the mammals brought home by Schillings, to realize the importance of his collection. He has collected a greater number of different species than any other traveller before him. He has secured three-fourths of the various species which were to be looked for in the districts through which he travelled." These collections have not only aided greatly in understanding the problems of mammalian distribution in East Africa, but have added a number of entirely new forms to that fauna, among them Schillings's giraffe (*Giraffa schillingsi*), Schillings's hyæna (*Hyæna schillingsi*), Schillings's klipspringer (*Oreotragas schillingsi*), and others which await naming. The list embraces 115 species. Appendix B is "A Synopsis of Herr C. C. Schillings's Collection of Birds," compiled by Prof. A. Reichenow. This list is based upon more than a thousand skins belonging to 355 species, of which five are new to science. The list is fully annotated with interesting and useful notes on the habits, distribution, nidification, etc., of the various species by Herr Schillings. The letterpress and the plate printing have been beautifully executed.

FINCK'S GRIEG.

Edvard Grieg. By H. T. Finck. John Lane Co. 1906.

Mr. Finck says truly in his preface that no apology is needed for the appearance of this volume. "The number of Grieg's admirers is legion, yet up to the present time there has been no book in English (or even in German) to which they could go for information regarding his life, his personality, and his works." Even if there had been, there is probably no biographer for Grieg who as amply as this one combines extreme enthusiasm, intimate knowledge of the extent and content of Grieg's creations, the advantage of personal acquaintance with the man, and a style as pellucid as an old ballad and as crisp as a Bach gavotte.

The story of Grieg's life is not one of darkest storm and stress. An invalid, he has lived in seclusion in the Far North; a successful pianist, conductor, and composer almost from the beginning of his career, happily married to a cousin who could not only inspire but interpret his songs—in spite of some dark years and some inevitable shadows, he stands for us in the sun; largely as to his career, wholly and radiantly as to his warm personality. The photographs of him, from the fifteen-year-old boy to the sixty-year-old man, receiving birthday congratulations at his own

door, are full of charm and of a winning quality that fit absolutely into the character of his music. It is interesting to know that Grieg's great-grandfather was an Alexander Greig of Scotland, who, like many of his countrymen, emigrated to Norway in the troublous days succeeding Culloden. Though he changed the spelling of his name to insure its proper pronunciation, he did not wholly change his mind with his skies. So firm was his attachment to the Scotch Reformed Church that once a year he returned to Scotland to partake of the communion. By the time Edvard Grieg was born, however, in 1843, the Scotch strain was well-nigh lost in the Norwegian. Of his fondness for the "drone bass," which is characteristic of all Northern music, Mr. Finck says: "Possibly Grieg's love of it was stimulated also by atavistic reminiscences of his Scotch antecedents."

Grieg inherited from his mother his musical talent, and she was his first teacher, supplying, besides the actual instruction, a musical atmosphere by her own playing and singing, and by gathering about her zealous amateurs whose weekly reunions made happy hours for the small Edvard. It was Ole Bull who, on hearing the boy's compositions, counselled the parents to send him to Leipzig. Mendelssohn was dead and Schumann had gone to Dresden, but there were still at the Conservatory Moscheles, Reinecke, and other famous teachers. Among the students was Arthur Sullivan, in connection with whom Grieg gives a pretty reminiscence of an hour when the two sat and followed a performance of "St. Paul" with a score—Mendelssohn's own manuscript borrowed by Sullivan from the Director of the Conservatory. This foreshadows one of the great charms of the book—the touching of Grieg's life upon those of many interesting men. We find him playing duos and making mountain excursions with Ole Bull; both loving Mozart; Grieg leaning to modern heresies, the elder man saying of Wagner, "He ought to be lodged in prison." We see Grieg submitting his compositions to Gade; we are half-deafened when Björnson breaks wildly through the door upon Grieg giving a music lesson, to cry out that he has thought of the right word for a refrain in the verse he is fitting to Grieg's music. Here is Liszt sending a word of unsolicited praise to the twenty-five-year-old composer, and then follows a delightful account from Grieg's own hand of his visit to Liszt in Rome, of his qualms, his golden hour, the second meeting and the "divine episode" of Liszt's almost dramatic enthusiasm, and his parting admonition to Grieg "not to let himself be intimidated"—words which had for the young composer "an air of sanctification," carrying the promise of "a wonderful power to uphold him in days of adversity." A few years later came the letter from Ibsen to Grieg which resulted in the "Peer Gynt" music for Ibsen's play. For others among the many shining names linked with Grieg's we may go to Cambridge in 1893 and witness the conferring of the degree of Mus. Doc. on him, on Tchaikovsky, Saint-Saëns, Bruch, and Boïto—a stirring occasion, truly, with Grieg alone absent.

Very interesting are the descriptions of the London visits of 1888 and 1889, when Grieg was so popular as composer and pianist that people waited before the doors from eleven in the morning "quite as in the old Rubinstein days," and when, at a Philharmonic concert, "the hero of the evening was Mr. Grieg, the heroine being Mr. Grieg's wife," she singing his songs to his accompaniment. Mrs. Grieg's singing by all accounts must have been singularly appealing, warm, and beautiful. Criticism would have been easy, but none remembered to criticise. They seemed to think (or rather feel) only with the singer. They likened her to Jenny Lind. Tchaikovsky's tears came on listening to the Griegs; Ibsen seized the hands of both after listening to their interpretation of some of his own poems as set to music by Grieg, and whispered "Understood." (There seems to be a portrait of Ibsen as well as of the Griegs in this story.) Another particularly taking chapter is that which records the visit paid to Grieg on his own Northern soil by the author and his wife, who writes a picturesque account of it in an informal letter.

These are but glimpses into a delightful little biography. It will interest lovers of Grieg's music, of all music, of artist tales, of lively musial comment, criticism, and anecdote. The particularly affectionate itinerary through the land of the songs ought to be helpful to amateurs, and perhaps will stir up the hearts of the professionals when they are making their programmes. Considered as a composer, Grieg's fascination, variety, and inventiveness, the beauty of his melodies, the originality of his harmonies, his ingenuity in the development of Norse music, are conceded by all. Opinions differ as to the exact boundaries of his originality, more particularly in his thematic work. How much was his own? How much was folk-song? Writes one critic: "The wealth of harmonic invention of Grieg suggests a wonder whether, after all, much of the purely individual quality of his music has not been mistaken for a national vein." "Quite so," is Mr. Finck's caustic comment. He has already said, as to Grieg's songs, in his earlier volume, that "there is much more of Grieg in them than of Norway"; and this is not only his view, but his creed and passionate, not to say pugnacious, plea. As he puts it, an attempt is made in his book

> "to assign to Grieg the rank which the author is absolutely convinced future generations will give him; in order to do so, it was necessary to destroy several absurd myths that have for decades been handed down from book to book and newspaper to newspaper, like hereditary maladies; notably the delusion that Grieg did little more than transplant to his garden the wild flowers of Norwegian folk-music—a delusion which has shamefully retarded the recognition of his rare originality; for, as a matter of fact, ninety-five hundredths of his music is absolutely and in every detail his own."

To speak, as critics have done, of Grieg's writing "in a dialect" makes Mr. Finck's blood boil. To the German critic who mourned that Grieg had "stuck in the fjord and never got out of it," he retorts that "Grieg in a fjord is much more picturesque and more interesting to the world than he would have been in the Elbe or the Spree." He points out that Haydn in Croatia did precisely what Grieg is called "unoriginal" for doing in Norway. Both borrowed phrases, strains, occasionally melodies, from their life-long surroundings, fashioned them anew, wove them into their compositions. As expressed by a writer in the 'Oxford History of Music,' "they renew with fresh and vigorous life an art that appeared to be growing old before its time." If this be borrowing, make the most of it, says Mr. Finck, practically. It would seem reasonable to allow the most original of composers five transplantings in every hundred melodies. Everything must reflect something. As Tyndall mourned because the Matterhorn was disintegrating, so we may prepare our tears against the day when all possible combinations of tones shall have been exhausted. Meantime it is safe to love the lovely. And meantime, too, our author specifically states that among Grieg's "72 works there are, besides three volumes of pianoforte arrangements of popular tunes, only three in which he has incorporated Norwegian melodies; all the others are his own." Concerning the position of Grieg in the future, neither arithmetic nor personal prepossession nor analogy can authoritatively speak. Mr. Finck thinks that as to songs he will ultimately be ranked second to Schubert only, and he has joy in pointing out which songs will be popular in the music-halls of the future. One of Grieg's most interesting traits is his attitude towards other composers. His appreciation of both dead and living among musicians, his catholicity no less than his sanity, are striking and exemplary. With Bach, Chopin, and Liszt among his idols, he has room in his affections for Mozart, Schumann, Verdi. With the work of Tchaikovsky, Dvorák, and MacDowell he is in admiring sympathy. Of Wagner he is an ardent admirer, but he has scant sympathy with "isms," and calls those who name themselves "Wagnerians" and "Lisztians" "a howling horde." "The great must be great," he writes, "and a comparison with other great ones must always be unsatisfactory." For his fervent biographer, in a task executed with infinite love and spirit, there can have been but one dash of bitterness: Grieg loves Brahms.

Memoirs of Dr. Thomas W. Evans: The Second French Empire. Edited by Edward A. Crane. Appleton & Co. 1905.

Dr. Evans is often unconsciously amusing in these memoirs; his attempts at assuming political importance leave one unconvinced, his judgments on men and things reveal more a mixture of naïveté and self-importance than anything else, and yet there is a residuum that has some claim to attention. For one thing, it is impossible to help admiring the whole-hearted devotion of Dr. Evans to his patrons, the French Emperor and Empress; and, further, his frequent contact with them enables him to throw out in strong relief the undoubtedly kindly and humane side of the character of Napoleon III. Apart from this, the book has little value. There is no serious evidence that Dr. Evans was ever initiated into State secrets; he was merely served with generalities, and so employed. One example of how he flounders in political matters will serve as an example. In the winter of 1868-69 Mr. Burlingame, at one time American minister to China, visited Paris at the head of a Chinese mission. Dr. Evans prides himself on having, at Napoleon's request, drawn up a report on the nature and object of

this mission, [illegible] led the Emperor to deal [illegible] was unaware, both then [illegible] wrote his memoirs, that the [illegible] was little better than a farce, and that its credentials to the European courts were of the most insulting character. And so it is all through. Even in events he witnessed with his own eyes, his imperialist proclivities make him untrustworthy. Thus, he speaks of the "immense enthusiasm" when the army was reviewed after the Crimean war, yet this was the occasion of the pretty well known incident of the cadets of the École Polytechnique absolutely refusing to cheer for the Emperor. The account of Napoleon's attitude towards the North at the time of the Civil War is probably the most misleading chapter of the whole book.

The minor errors are numerous. As against this, one or two of the photographs reproduced are interesting, notably a charming one of Eugénie de Montijo shortly before she became Empress.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Hartley Burr. Poetry and the Individual. Putnams. $1.50.
Burnett, Frances Hodgson. The Dawn of a Tomorrow. Scribners. $1.
Colegrove, William. Hartford: An Epic Poem. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Doyle, A. Conan. The Green Flag. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents net.
Emerson, Henry P., and Ida C. Bender. Modern English Book I. Macmillan Co. 35 cents.
Gensel, Walther. Constantin Meunier. Lemcke & Buechner.
Hay, Alfred. Alternating Currents. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.50 net.
Hope, Laurence. Last Poems. John Lane Co.
Joubert, Carl. The Fall of Tsardom. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $2 net.
Journals of the Continental Congress. 1774-1789. Vol. IV. Washington.
Knowles, Archibald Campbell. The Life of Offering. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co. 50 cents net.
Lane, Mrs. John. The Champagne Standard. John Lane Co.
Macdonald, Ronald. The Sea Maid. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
McKeever, William Arch. Psychology and Higher Life. Topeka, Kan.: Crane & Co.
Merriam, George S. The Negro and the Nation. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75 net.
Naish, Ethel M. Browning and Dogma. Macmillan Co. $1.40.
Olmsted, Stanley. The Nonchalante. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Omond, G. W. T. Bruges and West Flanders. Macmillan Co. $3.
Plato's Theætetus and Philebus. Translated by H. F. Carlill. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Rankin, Carroll Watson. The Girls' Gardenville. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Remington, Frederic. The Way of the Indian. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1.50.
Schouler, James. Americans of 1776. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2 net.
Seaman, Louis Livingston. The Real Triumph of Japan. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Studies in American Trade Unionism. Edited by Jacob H. Hollander and George E. Barnett. Henry Holt & Co. $2.75 net.
Woodcock-Savage, Charles. A Lady in Waiting. Appleton. $1.50.
Woods, Frederick Adams. Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty. Henry Holt & Co. $3 net.
Xenophon's Hellenica. Edited by E. C. Marchant and G. E. Underhill. Henry Frowde.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

On Monday Mr. Roosevelt forgot for a moment the need of more battleships to put in a plea for additional coast defences. Our growing wealth, he explains, makes us really a more and more attractive morsel for foreign nations. There is so much money stored away in our insurance and safety-deposit vaults that some foreign "gobble-un" will certainly get us if we "don't watch out." Fifty millions is the modest sum required to complete in a modernized manner the fortifications projected by the Endicott Board, which have already cost more than a hundred millions. And then there are the insular possessions for whose fortification we are to spend nineteen millions, unless we desire Japan to gobble the Philippines, and England to pounce down on Porto Rico without a moment's notice. Guantánamo, San Juan, Guam, Subig Bay, Manila Bay, Pearl Harbor, and Honolulu are all eligible places in which to sink good money, while to fortify Panama will take five millions. These are some items in Imperialism's little bill Mr. Roosevelt would have us pay. And the worst of it is, as the President admits, the fashions in coast artillery change so rapidly that what is an enormously costly and valuable machinery to-day goes to the junk-heap to-morrow.

All the miserable calculations about how many wretched dollars our tobacco and sugar Senators have saved for their constituents by killing the Philippine bill, are quite beside the mark. Nor is it a question merely of one more Administration measure being slaughtered in the house of its friends. Beyond all these mercenary and political considerations rises the fact that the nation's good faith has been aspersed. There is involved a large matter of public policy, and not, as Senators pettifogging in behalf of their "interests" allege, merely a dispute over tariff schedules. We do not know, and we do not greatly care, whether the adoption of the reduced tariff rates proposed, with free trade three years from now, would enable the Filipinos to make a better living than they can to-day. That is not the real point. The true issue is one of sentiment rather than of trade. By the pledges of our Government, by the personal attitude of Secretary Taft and President Roosevelt, by the urgings of one Governor-General after another and the entire Philippine Commission, the Filipinos had come to think of the bill which the Senate committee throttled on Friday, as a crucial test of the generosity and sincerity of this country. Now they see all their hopes cast down. It is necessary to turn only to the warnings of Secretary Taft to understand how calamitous the effect upon them will be.

Secretary Taft made an important admission at last week's hearing before the Senate Philippines Committee. Hitherto he has insisted that only a few Filipino demagogues and hotheads desired independence. Now he states that a majority of the intelligent Filipinos are for absolute independence, and he would have been within the bounds of the truth if he had added that they want it right away and are as anxious as possible to get the Americans out of the islands. The Secretary, according to one report, then kindly explained that they were "a sentimental people, and that the ideals of independence appeal to them generally and unconditionally"—much, apparently, as they appealed to Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, and a few other American sentimentalists. But Mr. Taft had his warning ready. Without the restraining power of the United States, there would be a reproduction of revolutionary conditions similar to those in South American republics. For that reason the United States, apparently, must continue to do policeman's work among a people who hate and despise us—and at a terrible cost. Senator Hale declared that every American soldier who goes to the Philippines "comes back a physical wreck." The Secretary felt that health conditions there were about the same as in the Southern States, and added that the ill-health of our soldiers was largely due to the drink habit, which is increased by lack of diversion. Surely, an admirable example for the temperate Filipinos! Thus, little by little, do a few truths about the situation in the Philippines leak out. It is admitted, for instance, that the United States does not dare to decrease its present regular-army garrison in the Philippines by more than 5,000 men, in the event of hostilities with China.

Senator Bailey, as a brother-lawyer admiring Mr. Foraker's constitutional argument, is reported to have said: "If that speech cannot be answered, the Hepburn bill ought not to pass." Very likely the Texas Senator believes that he himself can answer it. But there is one part of it which devolves upon the Administration to answer, if it is able. Senator Foraker charged in the most explicit fashion that there has been "no serious attempt" by the Government to enforce the existing law against railway rebates and discriminations. After reciting the drastic provisions of the Elkins act of 1903, which the President at that time stated was all he wanted, the Ohio Senator declared that they had not been invoked as they should have been by the Department of Justice; and concluded that "the fault is not with the existing law, but with the officials who have not enforced it." It would be interesting to hear what the Attorney-General, by direction of the President, might have to say to this. His answer could scarcely be that he was so anxious for a new law that he forgot to exhaust the possibilities of the old.

The movement for consular reform, which was launched during the present session of Congress with high hopes, will clearly need the most earnest support of all its friends. It is one thing for a Congressman or a Senator to express benevolent intentions towards the merit system; it is quite another for him to vote to reduce the consular patronage by a whit. Accordingly, all persons concerned either in the extension of our foreign commerce or in the betterment of our consular system should note the call for a national consular-reform convention to be held at Washington on the 13th and following days of this month. All chambers of commerce, boards of trade, mercantile exchanges, and similar organizations are invited to send accredited delegates. The purpose of the convention will be to effect a permanent national organization, and to keep the cause constantly before Congress. That there is need of such combined effort needs no argument when Congressional committees are industriously engaged in amending nearly all the merit out of the bill which Secretary Root has been urging.

The action of the House Agricultural Committee in eliminating the free-seed item from the regular appropriation bill at least shifts the burden of proof to the advocates of this expenditure. Formerly it was the opponents who had to propose amending the bill, and they were invariably unsuccessful. Fondness for the free-seed distribution is not altogether an unamiable weakness on the part of our lawmakers. Like Sam Weller's crumpets, garden seeds are "so cheap and so wery fillin' at the price." In no other way could the members make little presents to so many constituents with so small a drain upon the Treasury. Of course, the pretence that the practice circulated new and val-

uable varieties of plants in new localities has been pretty largely abandoned. The greater part of the seeds now sent out under the frank have, in fact, been bought by the Government from ordinary commercial seed firms. So far as the distribution is legitimate at all—as it may be in the case of varieties introduced or developed by the Government itself—the Department of Agriculture can attend to it very much more efficiently than Congress.

At a meeting of the Commercial Club of Springfield, O., the recent scene of mob violence and incendiarism against the negro quarter—a meeting attended by the most prominent citizens of the city—it was stated that "the present conditions were due to politicians catering to negroes and low whites, and to the lax police and court methods." This is the reason for nine-tenths of the racial outbreaks the country over. A few years ago we called attention to a number of horrible burnings and inexcusable lynchings near Wetumpka, Alabama. For a time no one paid any attention to them. There was no State constabulary, no local police, and the sheriff was indifferent. But a new sheriff came in who saw that the whites were being degraded by this state of affairs quite as much as the blacks. So he organized a posse and cleaned up the county, sending several white men to the chain gang, and in all driving a round dozen of the offenders out of the county, which has been well-behaved ever since. Professor Royce of Harvard, in a recent address in this city, affirmed from his own study of the question in Jamaica, that the whole negro problem is nine-tenths or more a question of administration. Bad government is responsible for the outbreaks in Springfield, O., in Danville, Ill., in Mississippi, and for the two riots of recent years in this city.

In nominating candidates for Aldermen to be voted on in the April election, Chicago has made its first test of the new Illinois primary law. The result seems to bear out the claims made by its supporters. Not only was there an unusually heavy vote polled by both parties, but the candidates recommended by the Municipal Voters' League were, in all but two instances, successful. In only one ward, the Fifth, was the result undecided; Alderman McCormick and Patrick Carroll, a saloonkeeper, dividing the delegates to the convention exactly. Coming at this juncture, the primary was unusually crucial. In many wards the chief issue was between the high-license and the low-license elements. Chicago's liquor interests, naturally, do not want the saloon license fee raised from $500 to $1,000 a year, and in the wards where that question was raised the fight was bitter. In all, seventeen contests were made in the thirty-five wards. In eleven the issue was definite between the good-government forces and the saloons, and in three other cases there was a choice indicated by the reformers. Nine out of the eleven candidates endorsed by the reformers secured the delegates, and the three "preferred" candidates won.

We think the indignation of the investment community over the manner in which the "traction merger" promoters are treating shareholders, is altogether justified. The dealing with the street-railway investors, in particular, is not far from outright effrontery. The climax is the circular of disinterested advice to Metropolitan Street Railway shareholders, published on February 27 under the signature of three Wall Street Stock Exchange houses. This advice, the signatories declare, is given at the request of the company—"company" evidently meaning the officers who are endeavoring, through the merger, to void the lease of the street-railway system with its 7 per cent. dividend guarantee. This lease, it will be recalled, was the contract closed triumphantly by these very same "insiders" five years ago as a result of the meeting when street-railway shareholders were insolently bidden to "vote for the proposition first and discuss it afterward." The New York City Railway, which thereupon leased the surface lines, and the Metropolitan Securities, which owned the New York City Railway, went into the "deal" with open eyes. Their own lawyers averred in court, in April, 1902, that the 7 per cent. dividend guaranteed on Metropolitan Street Railway was a rental which the property "did not earn last year, does not now earn, and cannot earn for some years." This was their ground for asking the court not to interfere with the lease, since the facts, they urged, showed the good faith of the contractors. The lawyers' prediction has been verified; the 7 per cent. has not been earned, and the promoters of the scheme of 1902 are now laboring to break the lease and reduce the guarantee, through the subterfuge of the "traction merger."

This was a situation calling for the utmost candor. It was incumbent on "insiders," asking surrender of contract rights by the shareholders, to tell them what their company's earnings, assets, and liabilities actually were, and why the financiers who were so eager to pay and to keep on paying an unearned dividend, five years ago, are so alarmed at the prospect now. They have never given this information. Their call for assents of shareholders to the merger stated no particulars; it insisted on blind acquiescence. Finding the shareholders properly resentful of such disingenuous behavior, the same people induce respectable Wall Street houses to look over the company's accounts and publicly give judgment as to the property's deplorable condition. The same thing was done with holders of Metropolitan Securities; in that case a bankers' committee declared that the accounts "are so complicated that it is difficult to gain a clear idea of the financial situation." In advising surrender of the street-railway stock, the present committee remarks that "deficits will be so large as to seriously tax the resources of the lessee." In other words, because the man who insisted on paying a fixed lease for my property, and who would not listen to my objections to the lease, now finds the payment inconvenient, I must reduce the rent. We express no opinion as to the financial condition of the street-railway property. It may be fully as bad as friends of the merger are trying to make out. If it is, however, we submit that the people who have been managing the property since 1902 ought to render a prompt and full account of their stewardship.

Justice Deuel on Thursday accepted service of papers which mark the beginning of the effort to free the bench from his presence. He expressed himself as ready to join issue, and in nowise averse to the publication of the charges. If his attitude means a readiness to have the question of his fitness passed upon by his judicial superiors without delay, it is to be commended. Unless he is absolutely hardened, his present position must be extremely painful. Indeed, had he a delicate and sensitive nature like Mr. McCurdy's, the Justice would probably now be on the high seas or strolling the boulevards with James Hazen Hyde, instead of resuming his seat on the bench. His accusers have not stopped with a recital of his technical violation of the law by accepting other employment, but have boldly charged him with blackmailing—which is the proper designation of his activities in connection with *Town Topics*. The bench cannot be rid of him too quickly; its whole tone is lowered as long as he wears the ermine. If he were guilty of nothing else than aiding Col. Mann by reading the proofs of his filthy sheet, Justice Deuel would have shown that his moral fibre has been as completely eaten away as that of many a poor wretch whom he himself has sent to reformatory, workhouse, or jail.

The unimpeachable advice regarding fair play and the evils of athletic proselyting which Coach Reid of Harvard uttered recently before the Vermont University Alumni, is hardly so interesting or important as the confession which he made incidentally as to the

practices in which he himself has indulged. Deprecating the "encouraging of good athletes coming to Harvard for the sake of the athletic reputation of the institution," he proceeded to give as an example the case of a young Western athlete whom he brought on in order to have his services on the team, paying not only his travelling expenses, but practically his entire tuition and living expenses at the university. It was "with the approval of the athletic committee"—and this at Harvard, which has posed as the champion of pure athletics! Mr. Reid passes no harsher judgment on this than to call it professionalism, "in intent at least." Yet that very thing is the gravest evil of present-day athletics, and, if Mr. Reid has been correctly quoted, his was a barefaced case of hiring. There is no mention of cigarette agency, score-card concession, or even stewardship of a boarding-club. The fact is, that it has not been possible for any institution to join in the ugly scramble of present-day athletics without becoming itself corrupted. As the revelations are extended to take in one after another of the colleges which once boasted of athletic purity, it becomes more and more evident that this is no question of local symptoms, but of underlying and general causes that demand radical treatment.

There are two startling announcements in the annual statement of the First Lord of the British Admiralty published on February 28. After proposing to begin in the coming financial year four armored vessels and seventeen destroyers, the First Lord adds that it has been decided to adopt turbine machinery for all of them. It would appear that the victory of the turbine over the reciprocating engine is nearly complete, for the English navy sets the pace for the rest of the world. Our own Navy Department has finally decided to equip two or three of its new vessels with the turbine, but it is characteristic of the British Admiralty that, when it goes in for a new device, it goes in whole-souled. Sometimes, as in the case of the submarine, it is a long time in making up its mind, but the large number of these boats now built or being constructed—fifty-one—shows how thoroughly it intends to protect its coasts with this craft. The United States, on the other hand, is neglecting its torpedo work in comparison with other countries, and the Holland boat scandal has stopped all submarine construction. America being so great a producer of oil, one would expect the Washington officials to be the first to announce a determination largely to use oil for fuel. But this is the First Lord's second sensational statement: oil installations are to be made on all new vessels, and some of the older battleships are to be refitted with an oil-burning apparatus. For one thing, this must mean the storing of an enormous oil reserve in England for use in wartime.

It appears that the earliest dispatches gave a somewhat misleading account of John Morley's reversal of Gen. Kitchener's policy in Indian military administration. The new Secretary for India left it in no doubt, when a member of the Opposition, that he was in sympathy with Lord Curzon's protests against the attempt to deprive the civil government of India of full control over the military. On that issue, Curzon resigned as Viceroy; and it was naturally expected that Mr. Morley would take steps to restore matters to their former status. It was at first reported that he had done so fully, but it seems that the Secretary's action is in the nature of a compromise. In view of the fact that the new viceroy, Lord Minto, is quite content to let Kitchener have his head, the home Government could not very well order him to assert himself as Lord Curzon did until he was thrown over by Balfour. Accordingly, the decision was simply to strengthen as much as possible the powers of the military secretary in the Indian Council, thus enabling him to resist the commander-in-chief if he wishes to do so. Doubtless, Mr. Morley would have wished to go further; but he needed only to look into his own book on compromise to discover how necessary it sometimes is for a public man to accept accomplished facts and be guided by the combined wisdom of the Cabinet of which he is a member. Meanwhile, the struggle for the full supremacy of civil rule in India has been postponed.

The Rouvier Cabinet met a severe check on a military vote last week. The Socialists had determined to cut the annual training of the reservists and territorial troops in two, and they carried their motion by a plurality of seventy, in the face of the arguments of the Minister of War. But the Ministry had declined to make the vote a matter of confidence, and will not resign. To reduce the drilling time of the two classes of reserves to a mere fortnight and a week, respectively, would be to deviate markedly from the Continental standard of military efficiency. The fact that the French Socialists have taken so advanced a step in an anti-military direction at the very moment when war rumors abound, shows how strongly the anti-military reaction is working. Evidently the time has passed when France is longing for "a man on horseback" and the costly glories of war. The rebuff to the Ministry is an indication as well that the strict discipline by which the Radical-Socialist "bloc" has been held together is relaxing. Long ago M. Jaurès became a dissident, and apparently a large body of the Socialists is held to the Government by a very slender bond. One may imagine that the old-age pension bill was rather hurriedly introduced to warm up a cooling alliance; if so, the military vote shows that the expedient has not provided the requisite measure of *rechauffage*.

If France is subject to a certain suspicion and handicap in all the parleying about Morocco, the fault is that of the exclusive protectionist policy which she has pursued in Madagascar and elsewhere. Should the negotiations take a turn looking to French control and final absorption of Morocco, there would be need of very explicit stipulations guaranteeing the open door. Of course, both Germany and France say they are ready to promise that; but it will be remembered that Lord Salisbury thought he had a similar pledge respecting Madagascar, though the French Foreign Minister, M. Hanotaux, found a means of evading it. It has unfortunately been the fact that international merchants have come to regard territory annexed by France as practically shut up to all but French trade. We have heard one large shipper say that an island or province with the tricolor over it might as well be sponged from the map, so far as equal privileges of trade are concerned. The same might be said of the American flag; and it does not lie in our mouths to reproach the French protectionists and colonial exploiters. We merely remark that they inevitably incline people to suspect their country, as ours do the United States, in intertional arrangements affecting trade.

The Czar's declaration concerning the functions of the Duma is, so far as it goes, reassuring. It promises for the popular assembly the usual legislative powers, where these do not conflict with the Imperial prerogative. In all but dynastic matters, the Duma is to have the attributes of a parliament. If this statement could be taken literally, it would indicate that the Czar has accepted the Liberal programme *in toto*. So bold and sagacious an act could hardly fail to check popular discontent and divert the reform movement into loyal channels. But, unhappily, former statements of the Tsar have been subject to perverse interpretation, or even to sudden reversal, and the worth of the present promise depends clearly upon the practical fulfilment of it when the Duma meets. In the intervening weeks much may happen to change the Tsar's generous sentiments. Meanwhile, the mere admission of the idea of a responsible parliament by a Romanoff has a considerable value.

THE SENATOR AND THE UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT.

Senator Foraker closed his speech on the railway-rate bill on February 28 with a frank statement of the personal difficulty in which he found himself. He disliked exceedingly to differ with the President. To put himself at variance with party colleagues was also distasteful. He knew, too, that he should be "arraigned before the country by unfriendly critics as prompted by unworthy motives." But, he added:

> "No man who allows himself to be controlled against his judgment by considerations of this character can do his duty or maintain his self-respect, or be entitled to retain the respect and confidence of his colleagues and constituents. If we enact this measure and it proves disappointing, as I believe it will, the people will not hear us to say in our defence that we legislated in response to their demands. They expect their representatives, especially in this body, with respect to questions of this character, to act intelligently, patriotically, and in accordance with their judgment and their oath of office, which binds them to disregard public clamor and legislate for the public welfare as they see and understand it."

Saying nothing for the moment of the merits of Mr. Foraker's argument against the Hepburn bill—though all agree that it was powerful—his statement of the duty of a public man to follow the light within his own breast cannot be controverted. It is, however, all the more notable, as coming from a politician, because we have lately had the contrary view upheld by a scholar in politics. President Hadley of Yale University published on February 24 an article on the Hepburn bill, attacking it, in his capacity as a railway expert, as severely as Senator Foraker does in the guise of a lawyer. Yet he wound up by saying that he felt it his duty, as he believed it the duty of Congress, to waive all individual convictions, and accept the Hepburn bill unamended, simply because the country is "in the midst of a great wave of moral sentiment," and it is better to "acquiesce in a measure" which the President approves.

To show how solid is the conviction which President Hadley builds up in order to swallow, we will quote a few of his characterizations of the Hepburn bill. Practically, and judging by English experience as well as our own, he thinks there is "reason to fear that this plan will not work." "I believe that evil and not good will come of the Hepburn bill." "If anybody is much harmed by illusory attempts to limit rights of appeal, it will be the shippers." "The combination of these three functions [advisory, prosecuting, and judicial] in one office is repugnant to the Constitution of the United States, to common law, and to the American sense of fair play." "I cannot concur with the President in believing that the Interstate Commerce Commission is the proper body for judicial determination of rates." There is much more of this, but at the end we get the great act of faith which leads President Hadley to conclude: "The position of many of the Senators and Representatives that they will stand for a bill which has the approval of the President, and not for one which fails to have his approval, is in my judgment a wise one."

We should hate to see the freshman class in logic set to explaining these exercitations of the Yale president. "Let us follow the argument," Socrates was wont to say; but President Hadley's exemplar is apparently that old English divine who thought any logic "wicked" which did not, whatever the premises, make the praise and glory of God come out in the conclusion. But the matter goes deeper than perversity of reasoning. What is to become of us if our leaders of thought deliberately advocate surrendering to what they believe a passing craze? How are we ever going to get wise and matured legislation if the men who clearly point out, as President Hadley does, that the Hepburn bill is "based on bad principles," are yet ready to consent to what they describe as a great evil merely because not to surrender would engender a "spirit of distrust and class antagonism"? Such an attitude as that of President Hadley's is not simply one impossible to defend in itself: it directly invites public evils to which the evils which he foresees from the Hepburn bill are as the small dust in the balance. All that any demagogue would need to do would be to threaten "deep-seated misunderstandings" and "bitter class struggles," in case any nostrum of his were not accepted, and the men of intelligence and character would have to yield in terror. Where can the line be drawn? If we must not oppose a bad railway bill lest Government ownership be next brought forward, how could we withstand Government ownership if its champions talked darkly of worse behind?

President Hadley deprecates a "factious opposition" to the Hepburn bill, or any amendment of it which will not "satisfy" Mr. Roosevelt. But the real question is whether he would deny the principles stated by Senator Foraker. If intelligent men are to hold up their hands at the first demand of the demagogue, what chance is there of resisting his second and third demand? We shall have taught him the trick, and he will not be slow to apply it on every occasion. What need he care for your arguments, your warnings, your law, your precedents, your demonstrations, if you announce in advance that you will abandon them all if he only threatens loudly enough? We can never, in a democracy, get away from the duty of every man standing up stoutly for what he believes to be right and just. If our men of leading are to go hastily with the crowd, such a thing as a led democracy will disappear. President Hadley defends his sinking of his own convictions of justice on the ground of public policy. But he would have done well to have taken counsel of that great political thinker who said: "It is with the greatest difficulty that I am able to separate policy from justice. Justice is itself the great standing policy of civil society; and any eminent departure from it, under any circumstances, lies under the suspicion of being no policy at all."

THE "SQUARE DEAL" WITHOUT DETAILS.

It was a great public service which the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent did last week in giving us an exact account of the railroad-rate bill which the President really wants. Admitting that there has been "considerable haziness" on the subject among even the "ordinarily well-informed members of Congress," the correspondent proceeds to blow away the last vestige of the haze as follows:

> "Among those who have enjoyed the President's confidence, however, in the last few weeks no misapprehension exists. They know plainly what he wants, for he has not at any time disguised his course or his feelings. He wants a rate bill that will be fair to shipper and railroad alike; that will put an end to the present discrimination against individuals, commodities, and localities; one that will go into effect as soon as possible, and one that will hold water in the highest court of the land."

This reduces the whole complex matter to simplicity itself. The recipe is as admirable as the dear old prescription of Republican platforms for framing a protective tariff. Do we not all remember it? "A tariff so adjusted as fully to protect American labor without unfairly burdening the consumer, and levying such a tax upon foreign goods as will not expose American industries to unfair competition from abroad nor permit them to form oppressive combinations at home, etc., etc." It is a very butter-woman's jog-trot of meaningless generalities, which any man could rhyme you on any subject by the hour. We know that tariff "square deal," with details carefully withheld, and it begins to look as if the railway square deal were like unto it. The President's attitude, so bluff, so hearty, so straightforward, has a resemblance to that of the Czar who was consulting with the engineers about the first railroad from St. Petersburg to Moscow. He finally laid a ruler on the map, drew a straight line between the two cities, and said, "Build me that road." Similarly, the President directs Congress, "Pass me a railway bill which shall give a square deal to all concerned."

Now, if Congress could only get on without having actually to study phraseology and legal effect and constitutionality, nothing could be finer than

this. A joint resolution embodying the President's language would pass both houses without a single vote in opposition. The railroad Senators would rise as devoutly as Dolliver and Tillman to vow, with their hands on their hearts, that they favored the squarest of square deals for shipper and carrier alike, the Supreme Court not forgotten, and would then be ready to sing the doxology. But, unluckily, that sort of thing does not "get us forrarder." Somebody, in the end, has got to buckle down to the disagreeable work of examining the language of the bill, balancing its clauses, scrutinizing each provision, mastering railway practice, collating decisions of the Supreme Court, and looking before and after like reasonable beings engaged in crucial legislation. In this business, general principles, even of the most glitteringly platitudinous sort, are not of the slightest help. A young Oxford graduate whom Lord Salisbury was proposing to take into the Foreign Office, expressed the hope that he would not be too much "vexed with details." "My dear sir," said the seasoned statesman, "details are everything." They certainly are in framing a statute to regulate a business capitalized at more than $14,000,000,000.

It is really a sort of French idea of legislation which the President appears to have in mind. An old fashion of the Chamber is to accept a measure *en principe*. This is sometimes done with great effusion and enthusiasm, the Deputies embracing each other with tears of joy. But thereafter the law has to be sent to committee for *rédaction*, and then the miserable "details" get in their work and there is the very devil to pay. Sometimes the bill is never heard of again; it expires in the vain endeavor to disentangle itself from general principles and take on specific and legal form. Still, there has been the great rejoicing over the adoption of the "principe," just as Senator Dolliver said on Thursday the American people were rejoicing over the new rule for legislation by Congress, that is, the "square deal." If the details are awkward, why, just omit them, and pass on to the next occasion for being tremendously square but conveniently vague.

The great distinction of Anglo-Saxon legislation, as contrasted with the French, is, as Sir Samuel Romilly long ago insisted, that it is immersed in the concrete. It does not know how to separate *principe* and *rédaction*. The principle that cannot be reduced to precise terms, does not exist for it. If you are unable to state your grievances in writing, or to propose their remedy in a bill which will hold water, then go your way and hire a hall, but don't come to Parliament or Congress. Those are places only for men who can think in terms of statutes. And these legislators, who actually have to draft bills knowing that the minutest shading of phrase, or even the punctuation, may make all the difference in the world, understand that what they have to do is, not to legislate grace, mercy, and peace, or even the square deal, into existence, but to find the specific legal remedy for specific abuses. If they are stanch in their duty, they will say, "Keep your square deal for outside consumption, but give us the details of your bill. Tell us exactly what form of judicial review will be satisfactory to you." And when Senator Dolliver talks about "a storm brewing" over the fact that "some men in a few years make hundreds of millions of dollars," they will ask him to take the bill and show where anything of that kind is written in it, or what it has to do, anyhow, with the obligation of representatives sworn to uphold a Constitution that forbids taking away any man's property without due process of law.

SHOE PRICES AND FREE HIDES.

The news that the price of shoes will have to be raised in the near future unless something is done about the tariff on hides, was the most important, so far as the general public is concerned, that came from the convention of the National Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association in this city a fortnight ago. The National Shoe Wholesalers' Association meeting in Boston five weeks ago took the same view. The Massachusetts State Board of Trade more optimistically passed on February 27 a resolution stating its belief that removal of the tariff would cheapen "heavy staple shoes worn by farmers and laborers." The helpless consumer, however, though he has grown used to similar experiences, is waiting apprehensively for the new prices to go into effect.

The ready-made shoe is, in fact, something more than a common article of trade. It is at once a social institution and a barometer of the cost of living. Such shoes are made, to be sure, in various qualities and at various prices, but there is a sort of standard middle quality which is advertised so widely and by so many firms that no one can help knowing about it; and it is probably worn by more people than any other grade. This was once the $3 shoe. It is now the $3.50 shoe. One of these days we shall wake to find that it has become the $4 shoe.

Perhaps the most striking thing about the present situation is that there is nowhere apparent any disposition to regard the proposed advance of prices as an extortion, as people do when they have to pay more for meat or oil. Alone among manufacturing interests, the shoe men seem to have been able to convince their customers that higher prices are really a regrettable necessity. In the first place, there is no Shoe Trust. The shoe industry is one of the last footholds of free and general competition. But, besides this, it is an industry which, instead of asking Government favors, is perfectly willing to relinquish the present 25 per cent. duty on its finished product, if it can only be relieved of the 15 per cent. levy on its raw material.

While no one is foolish enough to expect anything to be done by Congress to remedy the present conditions, there has been a good deal said this year on "the state of the Union," in which the price of footwear is not an insignificant factor. Even the Hon. Augustus P. Gardner of Massachusetts admitted that 65 per cent. of the manufacturers in his district would be willing to have the shoe duty abolished, though he insisted that the other 35 per cent. would "concede a reduction, but cannot consent to the entire removal of it." Mr. Perkins of New York, a stanch Republican, combating the idea that the hides question was a local one, affecting only Massachusetts, recalled that the delegations coming to Washington this year to ask the removal of the duty included manufacturers from Rochester, Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Louis, St. Paul, and Minneapolis, besides the Massachusetts towns. This is a national issue even as regards the location of the industry affected, while it is hard to imagine any business move more universally felt than a change in the price of shoes.

As to the precise relation of the hides tariff to the market price, estimates differ. Mr. Perkins argued that even if the tariff added only two cents a pair to the cost of making shoes, it ate up about one fifth of the average profit. Gov. Douglas of Massachusetts, in a letter printed in the *Congressional Record*, said on this point:

> "The hide duty adds about seven cents a pair to the cost of producing the grade of shoes I manufacture. I also wish to make it quite plain to the public that, while an increase of but seven cents in the cost of manufacture of a pair of $3.50 shoes may seem a small and unimportant matter, that amount represents more than the net profit of the average manufacturer. . . . To put $2,250,000 into the Treasury of the United States as the result of the duty upon hides, we put about $7,000,000 of unnecessary tariff profit in the hands of the Beef and Leather Trusts. This puts an iniquitous tax upon the sole-leather industry of about $10,000,000, and disables that industry in its fight for the markets of the world."

And what is the argument on the other side? Apparently, there is none except ridicule of the idea that two or seven cents is worth worrying about, and the assertion that the shoe industry is doing very nicely as it is. Nobody longer has the face to declare that the schedule does the farmer any good. As James G. Blaine said when the McKinley law was being framed: "It will benefit the farmer by adding 5 to 8 per cent. to the price of his children's

shoes. It will yield a profit to the butcher—the last man that needs it." His prediction has been more than verified. The farmer gets no more for his cattle than he did before the duty was clapped on. In this country, cattle are not raised for their hides in any case, and no one seriously supposes that the supply would be reduced by the smallest fraction were the tariff to go. The fact is, this country at present uses up the hides of all its own cattle—raised primarily for food purposes—and then goes abroad for what it needs over and above these. Although only one-fourth of the quantity used is imported, the price of the three-fourths of domestic hides is kept at an artificial figure by that fraction. By far the larger part of the enhanced price goes straight to the great packing houses. As the president of the Boot and Shoe Association affirmed, an increase of 28 per cent. in the cost of raw material had been accompanied in the last three years by a 25 per cent. increase in the cost of labor.

The American shoe is a product in which the country takes a genuine pride. Yankee ingenuity, business methods, and talent for organization have made it what it is. Henry James found it one of the things worthy of inclusion among the impressions of his recent visit here. And just because it is willing—the metaphor forces itself—to stand upon its own feet, because it is not controlled by a monopoly, we must, forsooth, continue taxing it for the benefit of two other Trusts.

DREAMS OF YOUNG SOCIALISTS.

It would be easy to poke fun at the group of social reformers who have been holding a three days' meeting in a home of luxury to denounce wealth. If the Germans have their Socialists of the Chair, we have ours of the Easy Chair. The real fighting Socialists, down in the grime and murk of it, living on $20 a week, organizing in back-rooms and proselytizing through midnight meetings in the streets; knowing exactly what they want and working for it year in and year out, election after election—their sense of brotherhood born of desperate struggle, and poverty with them something burnt into the blood and not a literary material—such Socialists, we say, might well be excused if, at the sight of dilettante writers and inheritors of great fortunes going to discuss Socialism at dainty breakfasts, they should exclaim, "Oh, wonderful, wonderful, and most wonderful wonderful, and yet again wonderful, and after that out of all whooping!"

We feel, however, that though it is impossible to take this combination of magazinists and millionaires very seriously as individuals, we are bound to reckon with the sentiments which vaguely agitate their breasts. Youthful enthusiasms like theirs always signify. The significance is not ordinarily what they think it. As Lowell said of himself, it is easy for boys who know that they are excited to believe that they are inspired. Yet it remains true that young men have often a prophetic sensitiveness to coming ideas and movements. The dreams of their youth sometimes become the realities of their old age. This is why no interested observer of the political ebb and flow can afford to neglect what the young men are reading and thinking and hoping. In this sense, at any rate, the Noroton conference is entitled to the benefit of the saying, *Maxima debetur pueris reverentia.* It is true that some of the conferees would have to seek advantage of the English decision that a man is to be held "young" until he is sixty; but most of them are engaging youths, whose humanitarian impulses we must respect even when we find their reasoning shallow and muddy, and whose attitude and talk are a sort of instructive experiment in the actual working of socialistic notions.

They show us, for one thing, how vain, as a rule, are the attempts to check Socialism by placating it. Some people, of course, in political theory as in theological doctrine, are willing to stop in a convenient half-way house, but with the mass, and in the end, logic will have its way. The amiable young Mr. Patterson of Chicago shows the true inherent tendency. A year ago, he was happy in municipal ownership as precisely the instalment of Socialism with which we ought all to be content. But he has now moved on—much faster than municipal ownership in Chicago—and wants all the means of production to be assumed by the Government. His arguments are innocent-minded in the extreme, but his motives are humane, and he illustrates neatly the natural course of the socialistic disease. To conciliate Socialism by becoming socialistic is an attempt that has often been made, but its invariable result is failure. Germany furnishes the classic example. Her great, intricate and costly scheme of workingmen's insurance was taken up avowedly as a means of staying Socialism; but the Social-Democratic vote has gone on mounting even faster. To expect anything else would be to ignore human nature in the Socialists as much as they ignore it in others. One may, of course, support a measure which is dubbed socialistic, and may do it on grounds of public interest and justice; but let his arguments be directed to those points, and stick to the merits of the particular scheme; for the surest way to provoke and bring on an excess of Socialism is to contend that it will come unless we assent to a modicum of it. What we are to assent to is a business proposition, or a measure of proved public utility, never to Socialism as a means of staving off Socialism.

It is highly probable that we are in for socialistic movements in this country of greater range and vitality than any we have as yet known. The ideas are certainly in the air, are infecting the most unlikely persons, and will doubtless run their course. But Socialism, after all, will find that it has to face the same old problems that have perplexed the framers and operators of government from the cave-man down. These relate chiefly to fundamental human qualities—ability and character. How can we best draw out ability? How can we keep our public servants honest? Any man who can surely and satisfactorily answer those two questions, may be said to have solved both the social problem and the governmental problem. But he will have to begin, if he is honest, by admitting that industrialism and the rewards of wealth have been wonderful developers of able men. Has Socialism any such spur to ability? If it has not, it has no philosophical justification, and will not long be tolerated by men who believe in human progress by individual variation and distinction. And the socialistic régime would be no better than the present, governmentally, unless better men were produced to administer it.

There will be no happy-thought regeneration over-night of that hoary old sinner, the world. It is a vast complex of life, in the coil of which we are all caught; and it is well for none of us to imagine that he has in his keeping the secret of universal happiness. No movement can be so critically important as some movements think themselves to be.

GREAT FORTUNES, OLD AND NEW.

The well-known authority in economic history, Vicomte Georges d'Avenel, has an article in the last *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the millionaires of other days. It is the first instalment of a study which he is making of great fortunes during the past seven hundred years. His aim is to work out, on the basis of the most complete documentation and careful comparison, the actual extent of accumulated wealth in France, century by century, as held by the men who were the richest of their respective generations. His conclusion, after minute inquiry, is that "the very rich of to-day are six times as rich and (of equal fortune) twelve times as numerous as the rich men of the *ancien régime;* and are ten times as rich and twenty times as numerous as the most opulent princes of feudal times."

M. d'Avenel's point of departure is the 1,000 persons in the present French republic who have an income above $40,000. Of these, 350 enjoy a revenue of $100,000 or more; 120 have annual re-

ceipts of more than $200,000; 50 an income of $600,000, while ten or a dozen can count upon $1,000,000 a year. These figures are drawn mainly from court documents having to do with the inheritance tax. Going back to ancient records, and translating their terms into the equivalent of the money-value of today, M. d'Avenel declares that *nobody* in the Middle Ages could be compared in wealth to the 50 richest men in France at present. Nobody, he adds, from the thirteenth to the end of the sixteenth century had as much as $1,000,000 a year. The outlay of Louis IX. in 1251, the year of the crusades, did not exceed $775,000. And we may trace royal and princely budgets down to the Duke of Orleans and Richelieu and Mazarin before we find a personal income of $1,000,000. Louis XIV. had his $4,000,000 a year, and Napoleon his $5,000,000, but those sums were subject to an enormous drain, of the nature of public expense, such as no millionaire of the present day has to reckon in his budget. Among strictly private citizens, asserts M. d'Avenel at the end of his long researches, there was not one Frenchman before the Revolution who had an income of $1,000,000.

But this new wealth differs as much from the old in nature as in extent. The rich men of six or seven centuries ago were mostly landed proprietors. Their property came to them, as a rule, through conquest, or as booty, or through royal gift. Vast estates with an army of retainers and tenants meant a large gross product of the necessaries and comforts of life, but not a business capable of great expansion. Fortunes did not roll up from generation to generation; they usually tended to dwindle. It was not until the modern industrial world was ushered in that the vast new rewards for captains of industry and organizers of commerce gave them such a large share of the wealth which had been created under their hands. This is M. d'Avenel's main point. The rich are so much richer and more numerous today because of the actual creation of new stores of wealth. The large modern fortunes have come contemporaneously with a great improvement in the condition of the laboring classes whose wages in France, M. d'Avenel declares, have doubled during the period he has under review, while the cost of living has sensibly diminished. It is the new wealth that has made the new millionaires. Following hard upon legislation which aimed at absolute equality among citizens, the inrush of wealth-creating facilities has brought about greater inequality of fortune than before.

Such an investigation as that we have barely outlined, shows how little, after all, legislation can do to make head against human nature or against a great scientific and civilizing movement. France is the country above all others in the world where laws are framed with the most passionate devotion to logic; and an avowed goal of French legislation has been, by interference with the right of testamentary disposition of property and by taxation, to render fortunes as equal as possible. But we see what glaring inequalities remain. Law and governmental theories are powerless before the developments of science, the expansion of commerce, the creation and satisfaction of new wants among millions of people. The law did not give these, and it cannot take them away. And we do not believe that there is so formidable a jealousy and hatred of wealth, in itself, as is frequently alleged to exist and to be growing. The sting lies in wealth unjustly acquired. It is ill-gotten gain, flaunting itself, that is the greater breeder of Socialism. Wealth fattening upon special privilege, corruptly obtained—such as the protective tariff—is the thing which inevitably and righteously provokes discontent in a republic; and for the removal of that privilege, for the abolition of all legal discriminations in favor of the rich, lovers of the only real equality among men—equality before the law—may well strive unceasingly.

STAGING SHAKSPERE.

Mr. John Corbin, in the current *Atlantic*, attempts something like a reconstruction and defence of the Elizabethan stage. He shows conclusively that, contrary to the representations of some literary historians, that stage was by no means barren or artless, and that its methods were far from puerile. The costuming, for example, was of the richest sort. There was no lack of properties called for by the action. The playhouses compared favorably in size, and assuredly in architectural propriety, with our own. Since the stage projected into the pit and the actors were, in a sense, among the audience, the scenes were planned for plastic rather than pictorial effect. There was no front curtain, and changes of properties usually took place unobtrusively while a vivacious front-stage scene was in progress. The simplicity of the arrangement, while permitting great lavishness of costuming and decoration, taxed the actor heavily—for he never sank into the picture—and made equal demands upon the dramatist, who had neither the aid of specific back scenes nor that of the curtain drop. His task was to provide a closely knit and practically continuous action—to charm his audience by sheer histrionism.

For a revival of this method of presenting Shakspere, Mr. Corbin makes a very temperate plea. So far as this means abolishing the tedious waits incident upon elaborate setting, and giving the text without serious abridgment or rearrangement, we heartily agree with him. The performances of Mr. Ben Greet's company, in spite of their evident deficiencies, at least proved that Shakspere should be played swiftly and continuously, and that the costly and elaborate mountings of recent times are not only superfluous, but positively detrimental. These confessedly mediocre performances of practically the entire text make the elaborate revamping of Shakspere "acting versions," from Nicholas Rowe's time to our own, seem very like a stupendous sacrilege. Mr. Ben Greet's considerable financial success has also proved that the over-elaborate scenery and consequent mutilation of the book, professedly the sole means of attracting the modern public, are in reality so many concessions to stupid traditions of stage managership.

But it is one thing to say that Shakspere is perverted on our stage, and another to urge the restoration of Elizabethan modes. No one seems to have perceived the paradox that, except as an academic recreation, the return to the Elizabethan stage is the most insincere of all archæological revivals. Mr. Irving's, even Mr. Daly's, archæologizings had the merit of representing Shakspere's imaginary world with some regard for historical propriety, and at least in conformity with nineteenth-century habits of visualization. To reproduce the costuming and setting of Shakspere's time is to assume to see with the mind's eye of his contemporaries—a laudable diversion in a student of the stage, a patent insincerity in the average playgoer. In short, the true imitation of the Elizabethan theatre would require in the pit and on the stage alike a royal indifference as to the exact locality of the scenes and a complete ignorance of the walk and habit of earlier times. One might conceive a genuine Elizabethan revival on the exposed stage of a continuous performance theatre. *Romeo* should attend the Capulet's ball in a claw-hammer coat; *Juliet* should receive him in the white chiffonery of a débutante; *Cæsar* should stalk in the trappings of a lieutenant-general of the United States army; *Hamlet* in the modest frock coat and spats that princes affect in their unofficial visits. That would be as near a genuine Elizabethan performance as our times may hope to compass; to facsimile the Globe, the Swan, or the Fortune is mere archæology, and has little to do with the actual problem of staging Shakspere aright.

The study of the Elizabethan stage has at least shown that the performance of Shakspere should be continuous—Mr. Ben Greet's players, giving nearly the entire text, usually finish an hour earlier than our elaborate revivals, which cut the book severely; and that scenery and properties should be simplified to con-

form to this condition. All this is quite compatible with the structure of the modern stage. A skilful use of front drop scenes, against which modern managers entertain a singular prejudice, will usually give time for the preparation of the necessarily elaborate settings. The main thing is that no changes should be made at the cost of delaying or interrupting the action or of sacrificing the text. If this cardinal principle be adopted, it will follow necessarily that the scenery and properties must be of a simple sort, typical rather than realistic or sumptuous; in short, just about what an Elizabethan playwright would have demanded if he had foreseen the curtained stage and the invention of sliding "flats." Any one who is familiar with the classic stage in France, knows the advantage of what may be called typical scenery—something that is vaguely a palace or a bourgeois interior, a forest or a plain. That Shakspere sacrificed this advantage was due, presumably, not to his conception of the drama, but to the physical limitations of his stage. But there seems to be no good reason why we should deny to his text the facilities he would have welcomed joyfully.

Performances of the sort outlined above might confidently count upon public support if the acting were merely tolerable. Purists will hold that out of this compromise with modern stage conditions might come a further and spontaneous reversion to the Elizabethan mode. One may imagine plays given before a sumptuous but purely generalized background which should stand at will for any local habitation of the dramatist's imagination. With such a fixed decoration, the use of the curtain and of the drop scene might be reduced to the minimum, and we should have what would be in spirit a revival of the Elizabethan manner and, incidentally, perhaps, the ideal setting for all poetic drama. What stands in the way both of the practical compromise and of the not impossible ideal we have suggested is not the absence of good will in the public. The hindrance to both projects lies rather in narrow traditions of stage managership, and, more seriously yet, in the almost complete absence of players who can either assume the carriage, or properly recite the lines, of Shakspere's characters.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 20, 1906.

The political situation in England may be regarded from two different points of view. We may, on the one hand, note two or three striking political facts which are as novel as they are important; we may, on the other hand, turn our attention towards the peculiar position of public opinion with regard to facts of which no one can deny the existence.

Three facts dominate the whole situation. The first is the complete rout of the Unionist party; the followers of Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain, as well as the Unionists who have been mainly guided by the Duke of Devonshire, have suffered an almost unprecedented reverse. It certainly cannot be paralleled by any political disaster which has befallen a political party during the last seventy years. To find anything comparable to the defeat of 1906, we must go back to 1832, and recall the election which followed upon the passing of the Reform Act; the great Tory party, which had ruled the country for some sixty years, was represented in Parliament by less than 200 members. Observers of the day thought for the moment that Toryism was annihilated, and that the Reform Act was only the opening of a sudden and complete democratic revolution. The knowledge that, within two years, Toryism, under the guidance of Peel, had been transformed into Conservatism, and all but balanced the power of the Whigs, conceals from critics of the twentieth century the reasonableness of the belief in 1832 that years must elapse before the classes which had ruled England could recover any authority. The recollection of the revival wrought by Peel may possibly cheer the Unionists of 1906, but it is absolutely necessary that they should in the first place realize the greatness of the disaster they have undergone.

The second fact is the creation of the Labor Party. We may safely say that, even immediately before the general election, no leading statesman had anticipated the triumph of the wage-earners. Acute observers had, no doubt, noticed the growing deference paid by members of Parliament to the wishes of trade unionists. Such observers felt that, by degrees, the artisans of the towns, as also the country laborers, would learn their power and exert an influence far greater than they had hitherto exercised, but few were the men of the middle classes who, whether inside or outside Parliament, anticipated that the Labor members would, after the general election, form a body of at least fifty men, and, as we may safely conjecture, be able to influence the votes of at least fifty members who are neither workingmen themselves nor strictly the special representatives of workingmen.

The appearance in Parliament of the Labor Party shows, it has been said, that democracy has come of age, and, like most persons on obtaining their majority, is determined to take the management of affairs into its own hands. The existence of the Labor Party bears witness, it is true, to the progress of democracy, but it does far more than this—it proves the growth, not exactly of Socialism, but of socialistic ideas; it shows, moreover, and this is the circumstance which most naturally excites alarm, that the body of wage-earners are inclined to form a parliamentary party which shall avowedly and primarily further the interest of a class rather than the interest of the nation as a whole. Let me not be misunderstood. Every class, when it has the power, legislates, though often quite unconsciously, with a view to its own interests. The landowners, who were dominant in the Un-Reform Parliament, undoubtedly showed a strong bias in favor of legislation which was supposed to favor the interest of country gentlemen. The ten-pound householders, who gained power under the Reform Act of 1832, assuredly displayed a tendency to pass laws which promoted the objects dear to the middle classes; but neither the landowners nor the ten-pound householders ever chose representatives whose deliberate object it should be to legislate in favor of the land or trade. The peculiarity of the Labor Party is that it, nominally at least, exists to look after the well-being of a particular class. An optimist may find reason to hope that the working-classes may not in the long run adhere to the idea of legislating for the good of a particular class, and that they will look at national affairs from a national point of view; still, optimism is no very safe guide, nor, it may be added, is pessimism. All one can say is, that at the present moment the Labor Party in its adherence represents the interests of a class in a way in which no English party has ever done before.

The third fact is, the strange want of any political guides to whom the nation can look up with special confidence. Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain are men of talent, and have at times enlisted large bodies of admiring followers, but their following is for the moment all but destroyed. In any case, they are generals who have so conducted their campaign as to lead a huge army to ruin. It is impossible for leaders who have been defeated to claim or receive the trust due to success and victory. At Birmingham they trust Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Balfour has still in Parliament ardent friends; but no impartial critic can pretend that, throughout the nation, there is any feeling of ardent enthusiasm for the two men who were the most conspicuous figures in the cabinet of which Mr. Balfour became the head. Nor is the Liberal Party richer in leaders who excite national enthusiasm than is the Opposition. Campbell-Bannerman is certainly not what you call in America magnetic; he is not a thrilling speaker; one is told that in the House of Commons he reads his speeches. If they are written, they have certainly not the merit of epigrammatic terseness or literary polish. The last quality which any one ascribes to a Scotchman who describes himself as "canny," is the capacity of exciting enthusiasm. He has many respectable and some few eminent colleagues, but it would be idle to pretend that any one of them arouses the kind of enthusiasm which in very different ways was excited by Gladstone or Disraeli; none of them commands the kind of trust which large bodies of men gave, whether rightly or not, to Peel, to Lord John Russell, or to Palmerston. The Government possesses an overwhelming Parliamentary majority, but it does not possess a single man whom we in flattery can call the idol of the nation or even of the Liberal Party.

So much for the political facts; turn now to the condition of public opinion. On all hands one hears about proposals for change. It is certain that the Labor Party, at any rate, hopes for measures which, whether wise or unwise, may certainly be called revolutionary, not because they are likely to be accompanied by violence, but because they touch the very basis of English social life. If any one is inclined to deny this, let him consider the immense effect which,

whether good or bad, must be produced by the attempt to provide the people of England with a system of old-age pensions paid for out of the national taxes. Let him remember at the same time that this system must be most intimately connected with and change the whole character of the Poor Law, and must accustom the whole population of England to build upon help derived from the State. Leading men of both parties, such as Mr. Chamberlain and the present prime minister, have expressed their sympathy, to use the mildest term, with a policy which, on the view of the best known among its advocates, must cost the country at least £17,000,000 a year. This innovation, moreover, is merely one of many. The trade unions, which are already powerful, are demanding not rights, but privileges, and their demand is likely to be granted.

In plain truth, collectivism or Socialism is advancing with rapid strides; its ideas, if not yet carried out in practice, are to a great extent conceded in theory. The victory, indeed, of free traders at the elections gives from one point of view a false impression, abroad at any rate, of the condition of sentiment in England. No sensible man, of course, unless he be a statesman pledged to some doctrine of fiscal reform, can doubt that the electors have by an immense majority condemned as decisively as it is possible any protectionist policy. In so far they have maintained the doctrine of Bentham, of Cobden, and of Bright; but let no one suppose that this condemnation results from adherence to the old school of Liberalism, whose members believed heart and soul in the sacredness of individual freedom and the wisdom of *laissez-faire*. An English elector of to-day will not vote for protectionist members because, naturally enough, he prefers the "Great Loaf" to the "Little Loaf," and dreads any return to a tax on corn; but in other respects the average elector has rejected the dogmas dear to the old Liberals. He assuredly demands State aid and State interference at home. It is not at all certain that he objects to protection against foreign competition with native industry. It is this latent affinity of Socialism to protection which gives more strength to Chamberlain and the new Birmingham school than they are supposed to possess by observers who note nothing but the triumph of the Liberal Party.

However this may be, socialistic ideas have at last obtained full, perhaps excessive, representation in Parliament. This fact is important, but hardly surprising; what excites astonishment is that, among the well-to-do classes, the prospect of revolutionary legislation and revolutionary administration apparently arouses neither enthusiasm nor opposition. It were curious to examine into the causes of this political apathy, but to trace it to its source is a task which certainly cannot be performed at the end of a letter which is already long enough. My only wish is to discharge at this moment the humbler duty of directing the attention of your readers to a singular political phenomenon. All the signs of the day point towards the imminence of attempts, at any rate, to effect fundamental changes in the social life of England. This new Radicalism, with its vague aspirations and only half-formulated creed, touches the foundations on which our whole system of commerce and of property rests. Yet no one is excited, no one as yet avows alarm. Is this the calm of good sense and sound judgment, or the apathy produced by the conviction, imbibed from an experience of, say, a century, that changes which seemed large and revolutionary in their day have never shaken and have hardly modified the basis of English society?

AN OBSERVER.

THE NEW ITALIAN MINISTRY.

FLORENCE, February 15, 1906.

Uninteresting as are the details of ministerial changes in Italy, the late crisis has awakened such unusual excitement throughout the country, and is so seriously commented on by the Continental press, that a succinct account may be welcome to the readers of the *Nation*. The advent of Sydney Sonnino as Premier and Minister of the Interior, in company with Ettore Sacchi, acknowledged leader of the Radical party, and Pantano, a fervent Mazzinian and still a Republican in theory, is a notable event. Eight years ago, Sacchi and Pantano were the most formidable and successful opponents of Sonnino, then the supporter of Pelloux and his coercionary measures growing out of the disorders that occurred in all the great centres from Milan to Bari, from divers causes—here, famine; there, crying oppression of the peasants by the owners of the soil; general discontent with taxation, everywhere heavy and generally unjustly assessed. States of siege, bloodshed in Milan and in other cities, the arrest and imprisonment of the editors of all Liberal papers, were the measures resorted to with the sanction of Sonnino. Coercive laws were introduced in Parliament, and then the Obstructionists, none more determined than Sacchi and Pantano, commenced operations and rendered all discussion impossible. On this, Pelloux obtained the royal decrees which converted the obnoxious bills into law. Again Sonnino stood by Pelloux, and by deeds and words proclaimed the necessity for the intervention of the Crown when it was possible for a minority to hinder the discussion of measures proposed by the Government and likely to receive the sanction of the majority. Naturally, Sonnino was at that time the best-hated man in Italy; all his real services to the country forgotten or reviled. Real services they were, for when he undertook, between the years 1892-96, to reorganize the finances of the country, Italy was on the verge of bankruptcy—the Government discredited by the bank scandals, commercial and industrial depression offering apparently no resource. Setting his shoulders to the wheel, he succeeded in lifting the State coach out of the rut; by economy to the bone and merciless taxation, he restored equilibrium between revenue and expenditure, and gained a signal victory. The country, as a whole, breathed freely; honor was saved, foreign nations applauded. But the taxpayers, bleeding at every pore, hated the hand that had saved their country at their individual cost; and when the hour of vengeance fell, they added their stones to the hailstorm that assailed the unpopular minister! "The skies might fall, but never more could Sydney Sonnino sit on the ministerial benches." Yet, there he is, Prime Minister, Home Minister, acclaimed as a necessity by the country, and feebly opposed by the supporters of Giolitti and Fortis.

The *modus vivendi* with Spain aroused the hostility of all the wine-producers, vendors, and consumers of the country. Fortis declared that he would stand or fall with his colleagues—that, if a hostile vote censured the three real negotiators of the treaty with Spain (Ferraris, Rava, and Tittoni), he would resign. They were censured, but some sixty-four of the hostile voters affirmed their confidence in the general policy of the Ministry, and Fortis, in an evil hour, allowed himself to be persuaded to attempt the re-formation of the Cabinet, well aware that, in losing the three above-mentioned colleagues, he parted with the only men of worth, and would be unable adequately to replace them. His evil genius was, of course, Giolitti, who had used Fortis only as a stop-gap, and who, though restored to "boisterous health," was not yet inclined to return to the helm, as railway affairs were in a worse plight than when he abandoned the Ministry. In fact, no one would join the second Fortis Ministry—no one of any note or value. On which, after a crisis of forty days, he presented himself to the House with seven new and three of the old ministers, including, astounding to relate, Tedesco as Minister of Public Works—Tedesco, who had muddled all from the beginning, reviled and insulted Fortis and Carcano, Minister of the Treasury; moreover, with no solution of the railway problem, and only the promise "that the Government would present a set of measures which would lead to rapid results, and would unhesitatingly face all possible responsibilities."

The scenes of the three days that followed explain the phenomenon of a Sonnino-Sacchi-Pantano Ministry, which is welcomed by the country with as much satisfaction as surprise. On the second day, Fortis attempted a feeble refutation of the arguments brought forward by the chiefs of the Opposition, and at the close challenged Sonnino, "who appears to be the commander-in-chief of these diverse oppositions [cries of yes! yes! yes! from all sides of the House], to expound his and their ideas. My opinions I will explain when I know yours." Sonnino, accepting the double challenge of Fortis and (on the previous day) of Turati, Reform Socialist, did unfold his views, and the House listened to his lucid speech with breathless attention. He reviewed the history of the last five years: reiterated promises of reform, not one fulfilled, and no shame manifest when delinquencies were brought home to the sinners. He dwelt, as an instance of the insincerity of the Fortis Ministry, on the postponement of the railway liquidation. He next depicted the anarchy and chaos of all the administrations of the State; then dwelt on the Government and local administration of the southern provinces, and narrated the electoral scandals of the late bye-elections at Amalfi and Gaeta, where the outrageous interference of the Government and its agents had brought the communes to the verge of revolt, ending in the fortunate defeat of the Ministerial candidate. "The imposing necessities of the southern provinces demand immediate solution; but this can never be attained until we have a clear

idea of the moral and social as well as economic condition of those provinces, which are closely associated with the general, if gradual, reform of our system of taxation." Of his criticisms of the general corruption, of the anarchical condition of elementary instruction and of education in general, of military disorganization, no résumé can give an idea; but his animadversions will be remembered when he puts his hand to the helm, as will also his exposition of the great public services of transportation and communication — railways, trams, post, telegraph, telephone, etc.

He referred briefly to the question of universal suffrage in answer to several questions as to his present opinion, saying that his views remained unchanged, and proposed that, as a step toward the social reforms which universal suffrage is supposed to be alone able to secure, some of the most urgent should be at once initiated, so as to hasten the economic, moral, and intellectual progress of the neediest classes, especially those of the southern provinces and of the islands, which at present are the least represented in the National Assembly. Clearly, he was not going to be drawn into the shadow of a pledge to bring the question within the pale of present urgencies, though theoretically he accepts the principle, and in 1881 made a remarkable speech in its favor. In ecclesiastical policy he maintained his invariable position: neither persecution, provocation, nor petty warfare; respect for all creeds and opinions; loyal observance of the law of guarantees, and at the same time rigorous and vigilant maintenance of all the rights of the State, which ought to be fully able to provide for its own aims and intentions in the fields of justice, morality, and culture. The State, in short, must be capable of carrying out its own policy, and yet allow dissentients to labor freely to attain theirs. This part of the discourse was not at all to the taste of the Radicals or Republicans, the Socialists remaining indifferent. "What," he concluded, "is required of a Government to-day is the immediate initiative of positive reforms, and a severely correct conduct in political and electoral struggles."

Only one Deputy rose to defend the Government. Giolitti's self-defence was weak and continually interrupted and contradicted. The only other speech tending to elucidate the why and wherefore of the presence of Radicals in the present Ministry was Sacchi's, who gave his reasons for voting against the Ministry, while admitting that a Cabinet "all of one color is at present impossible." He had no fear for liberty "conquered and defended by a people imbued with a sense of its rights and duties." It is the practical use of liberty that is now necessary, its application to all the wants and energies of national life, whereas during the government of Giolitti and Fortis lethargy and paralysis of all activity have prevailed. He objected to the methods of military administration, to the application of the enormous funds appropriated, to the utter neglect of the tax reforms promised and possible without disturbing the equilibrium of the budget. A Liberal Government ought to defend its civil rights, maintain the glorious tradition of the State that abolished religious corporations, prohibit the revival of ecclesiastical mortmain, and fortify secular instruction. In the Home Department he demanded the cessation of Governmental interference in administrative elections—the support given to one local party against another; the entire liberty of provincial and communal action, alluding to the late elections at Turin. Any ministry which should succeed in reviving or rather assisting national energies instead of neglecting and putting obstacles in their path, would be welcome to him and to the nation at large.

The House which had, at Sonnino's suggestion, allowed all the chief men to speak, now clamored for the question, and the Minister accepted Flamberti's motion that "The House approves the declarations of the Government and passes to the order of the day." Silence was maintained while the roll of the Deputies was called, with the result—yeas 188, nays 221; a clear majority of 33 votes against the Government. The Ministry resigned at once and the King accepted their resignations and called upon Sonnino to form a new one.

As the total 221 nays belong to all parties—the most numerous, Conservatives and Centre, amounting to not more than fifty—a coalition ministry was necessary. The difficulty in forming one lay in the choice of the representatives of the various non-Conservative parties, exclusive, of course, of the Socialists. Hence Sonnino's appeal, first to Sacchi then to Pantano, both of whom had refused several offers to form part of former ministries headed by Zanardelli, Giolitti, or Fortis. Why have they now accepted? Because they feel certain that, with Sonnino, they will be able to carry out some of the measures which they deem essential to national progress, neither of them imagining that they will be able to execute all or even a considerable part of their projects. They stand two Radicals in company with seven more or less Conservative colleagues. Guicciardini, descendant of the great historian, as Foreign Minister, will but follow the trend of his predecessors, maintain the Triple Alliance, and cultivate the cordial relations with France which already exist. Luzzatti, who has often figured as Minister of Finance, and now becomes Minister of the Treasury, is a stanch supporter of coöperation and popular banks. Paolo Boselli, another ex-Minister of Finance, as well as of Foreign Affairs and of Public Instruction, returns to this last unthankful office. Salandra, who returns to the Ministry of Finance, is recognized as capable and of high integrity; he was one of the stanchest opponents of the divorce bill which was so nearly carried by Zanardelli, and of which Sacchi is the zealous supporter. Carmine, well versed in finance and railway questions, is Minister of Public Works (may his good angel inspire him!). Alfred Baccelli, a young poet, chiefly known as his father's son, will have charge of Posts and Telegraphs. All these Liberal Conservatives are well known and are recognized even by their adversaries as men of worth, talent, culture, and experience.

There remain the Premier; Sacchi, the new Minister of Justice, and Pantano, the new Minister of Agriculture. Sonnino, born in 1847 of a very wealthy family, took his degree in law at Pisa in 1867, competed for and won a post in the Foreign Office, and was attached to the Italian legations of Madrid, Vienna, Berlin, and Versailles, observing and studying. He then returned to Italy, where he and his inseparable friend, Leopoldo Franchetti, devoted themselves to social questions, in company with Pasquale Villari, whose supreme merit is that of having been the pioneer in Italy of the study of distress and its remedies. The two volumes published by the friends after a diligent personal inspection of Sicily are treasures of accurate details, photographs of the awful conditions of the island, sapient suggestions of the remedies which the State, proprietors, and the people themselves might attempt with benefit. Sonnino and Franchetti published and edited a model weekly review, the *Rassegna Settimanale*, which had then no rival and has never had a successor. Assuredly both he and Carmine, the new Minister of Public Works, have assured themselves that the solution of the railway problem is possible; also that they are capable of performing what has now become a herculean task.

They will find no more active, ardent colleagues than the two Radicals, Sacchi and Pantano. Ettore Sacchi, fifty-seven years of age, entered the House in 1882 and enrolled himself under the banners of Bertani and Cavallotti, but, though inclined to the Republican faith, he has gradually grown to believe that all necessary reforms and measures are attainable under monarchy if its administrators are honest, active, and capable. His ideas of social and economic reforms are by no means inferior to those of Sonnino; and the fact that he has refused to enter former and so-called Liberal cabinets because he did not see his way clear to get in the thin end of the wedge, and that he did accept the offer made at once by the new Premier, proves that he believes in Sonnino's intentions and possibilities. The demand of some of his confrères that he should at once press the divorce question on the Cabinet is absurd. A coalition ministry must work out the questions on which they agree to agree, leaving for the time being those on which they differ.

The same remarks apply to Edward Pantano, whose acceptance of office has astonished many and utterly scandalized the holders of antediluvian prejudices who still survive in Italy. Born in 1843, he took his degree as surgeon and physician, but at once devoted himself to the study of sociology, in which he is an acknowledged proficient. A Garibaldian on the Volturno, he also followed the Duce in his pilgrimage through Sicily to the "bitter mount," where the hero's blood, shed by the King to whom he had given Sicily and Naples, so revolted his whole nature that during that King's life the very name of monarchy was repugnant to him. A believer in Mazzini and his doctrines Pantano was and is, but the absurdities and pretensions of the Republican party often disgusted him. Still, for liberty he always fought to the last ditch. In 1898 he and Sonnino fought as man to man. But, the fight over and victory won, Pantano returned to his garret study and elaborated his projects for emigration, taking part in all the discussions on agricultural and economic questions, showing real competency in tariff matters. Often selected as reporter on commercial and industrial questions, he was chosen to regulate several negotia-

tions with Switzerland and Austria. Some five years since, the Republicans at the congress of Ancona carried some absurd rules for the conduct of electors and elected, on which he quietly but publicly withdrew from the association and from all official contact with his party. Ousted from his old college of Terni in 1904, chiefly through the hostility of his late comrades, he was elected for Giarre in his native Sicily. Bent on the passage of certain pet measures on emigration and other financial and social measures, he, who had refused all former offers, accepted after one night's reflection the invitation made by Sonnino in person at his beside, as he was ill.

The House is to be reopened on the first of March. Meanwhile, Sonnino has given orders for the cessation of the sequestration of telegrams; Sacchi has ordered the authorities to sequestrate no more newspapers save for violation of actual law, and never unless the cases are followed up by immediate trial. Six millions have been added to the ten already voted for the urgent necessities of Calabria.

J. W. M.

MADAME DE PRIE.

PARIS, February 17, 1906.

The history of the Regency which followed the reign of Louis XIV. will always be read in the Memoirs of Saint-Simon. There are no historical documents of equal importance on the Regency which followed the sudden death of the Duke d'Orléans, the Regent. At seven o'clock in the evening the Duke was at Versailles; he had just received a visit from the Duchess de Phalarso and the Marquise de Prie, but they had hardly entered the room when he called for help. A moment afterwards he fell, and he died at eight o'clock without having recovered consciousness. The young King was only thirteen years old. He had, on the advice of his preceptor, the Bishop of Fréjus, chosen the Duke de Bourbon, commonly called Monsieur le Duc, as his prime minister. He conferred the Regency immediately on the Duke de Bourbon. The Venetian ambassador wrote to his Government:

"The Duke de Bourbon loses no time in assuring himself of authority. He has laid hold on all the papers of the Regent and received the compliments of the ministers. I opine that this prince has not the talent or fertility of intrigue of the Duke d'Orléans. . . . If something is to be feared from this prince, it is his too condescending friendship for the Marquise de Prie, a lady of quality, but intriguing and grasping, who for three or four days has not left him for an instant and advises him on all matters."

This Madame de Prie has just been made the subject of a biography by H. Thirion. As she for some years enjoyed extraordinary influence with Monsieur le Duc, it may be said that her life belongs to history. She has not been treated indulgently by the historians, but all are unanimous on the chapter of her beauty. President Hénault says of her: "There could have been nothing prettier at the time she joined her husband, the King's ambassador at Turin." Saint-Simon says of her: "Madame de Prie was handsome, shapely, possessing an indefinable charm, of an extremely cultivated mind, with memory and the wisdom not to show it."

The Marchioness de Prie was not of noble origin. The Rioults were among the financiers who added the name of some estate to their family name. Her mother, Agnes Rioult, was the daughter of a receiver of finances in Poitou. She married Berthelot de Pléneuf, a powder-director of France, a financier who was already a widower and was thirty-five years old. As army contractor he had increased a fortune already very large. Madame de Pléneuf became one of the queens of Paris, and was notorious for her light conduct. Her daughter at the age of fifteen was married to the Marquis de Prie, colonel of a regiment and ambassador at the Court of Turin. He was allied to the first families of the kingdom. The Marquis had no fortune, and in 1717 he found himself in difficulties and remained alone in Turin. Madame de Prie returned to Paris without him. She had learned much during the five years she had spent in Italy; she had become acquainted with many diplomatic intrigues. She had, according to her husband's instructions, to pay court to the Regent, to the Abbé Dubois, to Torcy, to Rohan, to all the powers of the day. She made accidentally the acquaintance of the Duke de Bourbon at a fancy ball at the Opéra—at least, such was the version of the time; what is certain is that he immediately fell under her sway, and remained so to the end. She flattered his artistic tastes; she had herself painted for him by Van Loo; she patronized Rosalba. She was fond of Correggio, and induced the Duke to have good copies made of the famous pictures, "Io," Danaë," "Leda." She was a good singer, and propagated the taste for Italian music; she founded concerts; she helped the Duke in his embellishment of Chantilly. The Duke de Bourbon sunk a part of his gains at the time of the South Sea Bubble in Chantilly; he constructed the palatial stables which are one of the features of this princely domain. Madame de Prie was the soul of the great fêtes which were given at Chantilly.

Madame de Prie was of an ambitious nature; she was not occupied solely with trifles and amusements. She understood that there was something strange in her fortune; she was the daughter of a somewhat despised financier and of a woman without reputation; she had many enemies—those of her own family and those of the Duke de Bourbon; her own mother had taken a place among her bitterest adversaries. Her strength lay in the weakness of the Duke de Bourbon. The death of the Duchess, which took place in March, 1720, made her task easier; but she had to conquer the neutrality of the Dowager Duchess, a daughter of Louis XIV. and of Madame de Montespan. This Duchess, according to Walpole, did not cease to entertain a great aversion for the favorite of Monsieur le Duc, but for the public eye they preserved the semblance of friendship. The brothers and sisters of Monsieur le Duc were not of much account. After the death of the Duke d'Orléans, when the Duke de Bourbon seized the power, the first object of Madame de Prie was to separate the young King from his preceptor, Fleury, the Bishop of Fréjus. Louis XV. wept copiously when the separation took place, but he was soon afterwards taken to Chantilly, where he remained about two months.

"To gain the good graces of the young monarch, there was nothing to do but to exploit his love of hunting. Nobody could do this better than Monsieur le Duc. His forests at Chantilly and Hallatte abounded in big game, which was beginning to be scarce at Versailles. . . . Monsieur le Duc's packs had a quasi-European reputation. He was himself one of the first huntsmen of the kingdom. In proposing to the young King to devote two months to Chantilly, he satisfied his most ardent desires."

Meanwhile, the enemies of Monsieur le Duc, the ex-minister Le Blanc, Belle-Isle, and their friends, were shut up in the Bastille, and their trials began. We need not go into the details of this. Monsieur le Duc and Madame did not, however, feel quite assured of their power; they were still afraid of Fleury's influence, and set over against it the Marshal of Villeroy, who was eighty-three years old and was living in retirement in his Lyons domain. Villeroy's return to favor was of very short duration. Madame de Prie had all the ministers in hand—Maurepas, La Vrillière, Breteuil; she centralized everything, had two secretaries, and treated herself all the more arduous questions. She was the fountain of favor, gave to her husband the government of Brittany, sent Richelieu as ambassador to Vienna; she made all the lists for the King's journeys, especially for the visits to Chantilly.

The time came when a wife was to be found for the King. It was resolved between Monsieur le Duc, Madame de Prie, Villars, and a very small number of friends that the young Infanta, who was destined at first to become the wife of Louis XV., should be sent back to Madrid. The Spanish marriage had been the Regent's project; it had been accepted by Philip V. in the secret hope of bringing himself nearer to the throne of France. The Duc du Maine, the Count de Toulouse, were in favor of it, out of hostility to the house of Condé. The situation of the young Infanta was ill defined; she had been enthusiastically received in 1723, a household had been formed for her; but she had no regular, recognized title to the hand of the King. Monsieur le Duc was the enemy of the House of Orléans, and consequently disliked the Spanish marriage; he looked in vain in Germany, in England, for a princess; in the end his choice fell on Maria Leczinska, whose dethroned father was living quietly in Lorraine. Madame de Prie did not think her dangerous to her influence. On the 27th of May, 1725, the King announced publicly after dinner his marriage with the Princess Maria, almost unknown at the time. Madame de Prie took care to be represented to her as the instrument of her fortune, the devoted friend in whom she could have perfect confidence, and who would help her in all her difficulties. She named all the ladies of the Queen, herself at the head of them, Mesdames de Nesle, de Ruppelmonde, de Matignon, the Duchesses of Egmont and of Villars. Madame de Mailly was chosen for the important post of *dame d'atours*. Madame de Prie accompanied Maria Leczinska in her triumphant journey through Metz, Verdun, Sainte-Ménehould, Châlons, and Fontainebleau.

The King and Queen of Spain were highly offended at the treatment accorded the Infanta; they had been brutally offended in their hopes and their pride. All the enemies of Madame de Prie and of Monsieur le Duc took advantage of it; the people re-

gretted the Infanta and did not approve of the marriage of the King with a penniless Polish noblewoman. Monsieur le Duc was unpopular, the treasury was empty. He was accused of speculating and enriching Madame de Prie. His enormous fortune might have placed him above the accusations of his enemies; it was not the same for her and her friends, the Brothers Pâris, the great financiers of the time. M. Thirion, however, takes her part, and tries to exonerate her.

The Duke decided to abandon the ministry. He left Versailles and went to Chantilly, where Madame de Prie followed him, as well as the Dowager Duchess of Bourbon. He received there a letter from Fleury, the Bishop of Fréjus, who had returned to favor, informing him that the King had taken the resolution to govern "by himself." Madame de Prie's position at Chantilly became untenable, as the Dowager Duchess would not see her. The disgrace of the Duke was complete; his mother accused him of having lost every thing by following the advice of Madame de Prie—"une gueuse," says Barbier in his Journal, "to whom she had taken the liberty to say *ses petites vérités*." The favorite left Chantilly and returned to Paris; by order of the King, she was exiled to the château of Courbépine, near Bernay. The Duke de Bourbon was ordered to remain at Chantilly. Madame de Prie did not survive her downfall a single year; she died at the age of twenty-eight years. Some people would have it that she poisoned herself slowly. The Venetian Ambassador, Morisini, announced to the Senate of Venice the death of Madame de Prie "nel fior di gioventù e di bellezza." M. Thirion does not seem to us to have exculpated his heroine from the accusation brought against her; she was really an adventuress. She was intelligent, clever, and had the perilous advantage of ruling for several years a prince of a feeble mind, who had nothing left in him of the qualities of his illustrious ancestors.

Correspondence.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH'S VIEWS ON IRELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of my 'Irish History and the Irish Question,' you say that my views are "markedly anti-Irish and anti-Catholic." You do me a great wrong.

My first essay, 'Irish History and Irish Character,' to which the present is a sequel, was written specially in defence of Irish character, showing that its supposed faults were not native, but the effects of a calamitous history. That essay, I am assured, had its effect at the time on the tone of the discussion, even in the House of Commons. This second essay has a not less friendly object, though, in common with Bright and many other hearty friends of justice to Ireland, I dissented, in the interest of both kingdoms, from a policy which would break their union.

To the conduct of the Irish priesthood in Ireland's dark hour I have tried to do full justice; and I believe you would hardly find stronger language than that which I have used in condemning the Penal Code.

To the aims of Philip II., Jesuitism, the Inquisition, and the *dragonnades* I have no doubt shown myself markedly opposed. To Catholics, in any sense save that of difference of conviction, I never have. Nobody could more heartily advocate Disestablishment than I did. I have numbered among Catholics some of my most valued friends, among them a principal of Maynooth.

Is a writer disqualified from dealing with the Irish question because, though he has closely followed the discussion and been in communication with those engaged, he has not been constantly resident in Ireland? Is not the question British as well as Irish? Slips on minor points there might be. To guard against these, my manuscript was sent to Ireland for revision.

Yours faithfully,

Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, February 26, 1906.

[In self-extenuation we may say that we adopted a similar precaution, and that we procured our review from an Irish Protestant in Ireland.—Ed. Nation.]

ENGLAND'S LABOR PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I trust you will allow me a few words of protest against the exceedingly one-sided article on "England's Peril" by your London correspondent, "An Observer" (issue of February 8). The "pauperization of the poor" is not the great danger of England. Pauperization is always a great evil, but a far greater and deeper-rooted evil than a temporary more or less of pauperism is the chief underlying cause of pauperism, a cause which is also largely responsible for many other evils often treated as independent moral phenomena—as intemperance, the shirking of hard work, and the low grade of civilization among our working classes—viz., the inequitable distribution of wealth, of the rewards of social service. Do American readers know how large a proportion of our working people—not of the "unemployable" class, but decent, hard-working men, without whose services society could not go on for a day—have to provide for a family, and for many "rainy days," on eighteen to twenty-five shillings a week, often with several weeks' deficit through enforced unemployment? Is it not a mockery, a pharisaism, to harp upon the want of that "self-respect," that "energy and independence," which will shun the contamination of poor relief, in men—and their wives—who, underfed and ill-housed, find no place in their domestic budget for clothes decent enough to visit any public assembly on Sunday but the public-house, or for the expense of giving to their children any better influences than those of the gutter? Yet this independence is often found among them, even when other civic virtues are starved out. Is the efficient and willing and sober American workman produced under conditions like these? The English workman is intrinsically in no respect inferior to him, as his American employers testify.

If Americans wish to know the truth about English social conditions—or those under which pauperism is bred—let them read the sober and careful statements of investigators like Mr. Alfred Booth or Mr. Rowntree, let them read Mr. Chiozza Money's recent work on 'Riches and Poverty,' or Mr. J. A. Hobson's 'Problem of the Unemployed,' or any one of a number of other books lately written, not by Socialists or labor partisans, but by educated economists and sociologists. They will find a growing consensus of opinion that the problem of problems, that which includes in its larger scope almost all other pressing social problems, is just this: how by gradual reform so to modify and adapt our social organization, including the organization of industry, as to ensure to all who are born into our citizenship the training and opportunity to become self-supporting and independent, as civilized and self-respecting men, by efficient social service. That large numbers are at present without them, through no original fault of their own, is patent to all who have eyes to see and a heart to understand.

Most social factors are both causes and effects, and he is the wise man who can lay his fingers on the true causes. And the moral causes of pauperism are themselves to a large extent the result of removable economic causes. I admit that some of the remedies proposed for newly realized and pressing evils are but doubtful palliatives, often fraught with risk of even worse evils, at least for a time. But I have not the heart to raise the voice of the economist or the moralist—as it no doubt should be raised—without at the same time emphasizing the urgent necessity for that disinterested and energetic social reform which is the only effectual remedy. And, happily, there never was more serious thought and earnest effort in this direction than at present. We are living under new and still changing conditions, and are beginning to realize that an active and intelligent social evolution is the only safeguard against an eventual and truly perilous revolution.

Yours truly, H. J. Wolstenholme.

Christ's College, Cambridge,
February 22, 1906.

SWIFTIANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Very Rev. J. H. Bernard, Dean of St. Patrick's, delivered here in Dublin, a few days ago, a brilliant lecture on Jonathan Swift. In the course of it he mentioned two facts connected with the great Dean of St. Patrick's previously unknown to me, and a third previously unremarked. It may be of interest to some of your readers to note them.

The weak point in the evidence in favor of Swift's marriage with Esther Johnson has hitherto been that there was no written statement concerning it until very many years after his death in 1745. A few months ago, amongst Archbishop Wake's letters preserved in the Library of Christ Church, Oxford, one was found to the Archbishop from Dr. Evans, Bishop of Meath. It is dated July 27, 1723. In it he refers to Vanessa's discovery of the Dean's marriage to Stella, and Vanessa's death. This contemporary reference strengthens previous evidence of a marriage, which no one supposes was ever more than one by word of mouth.

Until last November it was presumed the name of Lemuel Gulliver, "author" of the

'Travels,' was an invention of Swift's. There has been discovered in the muniment room of Westminster Abbey a bundle of law papers relating to an action during Swift's lifetime by one Lemuel Gulliver of Westminster, against a certain Peter Swift of Longdon in Worcestershire. Longdon is less than twenty miles from Goodwich, of which parish Swift's grandfather was vicar.

Swift's guess concerning the planet Mars is very curious. In 'Gulliver's Travels,' *Laputa*, Chapter III., occurs the following passage:

"They [the Laputans] have likewise discovered two lesser stars, or satellites, which revolve about Mars, whereof the innermost is distant from the centre of the primary planet exactly three of his diameters, and the outermost five; the former revolves in the space of ten hours, and the latter in twenty-one and a half."

This was written in 1726. The existence of two satellites to Mars was not discovered until 1877, by an observer at Washington. Swift's imagination as to the periods of their revolution is strangely near the truth —10 and 21.5 hours; they revolve in 7.5 and 30 hours. His guess as to their distance from the centre of Mars is not so near—3 and 5 of the diameters of Mars. Their actual distance is 1.3 and 3.4 of the planet's diameter.—Very truly, ALFRED WEBB.

DUBLIN, February 20, 1906.

AN INNOVATION IN HARVARD ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An interesting change in the matter of the admission examinations has just been announced at Harvard. In future, instead of consolidating these at the close of the last two years before entrance, and granting no credit unless six or eight points are made, candidates will be free to take their examinations when they please, and will be credited with them as they are passed, regardless of the number. A candidate may then enter whenever the requisite points are registered in his favor.

This new departure will permit an intending Harvard student to be examined for college in a subject in the same year in which the subject is completed in the secondary school, and will avoid the necessity of warming over or keeping warm subjects in which lingering destroys interest, produces mental nausea, and thus prohibits a genuine advance. Besides, by stimulating an early decision in selecting a college, and obviating the prolonged final "cram," it will tend to give greater continuity and purpose to education. Hitherto, boys and parents have been rather encouraged to postpone a decision, because, as they see it, nothing is lost by waiting; and when at last a decision is made and quick results are needed, there are effective agencies in abundance through which they can be obtained. The boy who henceforth elects to go to Harvard will, if he makes up his mind betimes, get his reward in being allowed to carry forward his work naturally without congestion at the close.

An objection may be urged on the ground of the importance of the final review in mathematics, of which the elements need to be fresh in mind, in case the subject is included in the boy's college course; but this is a detail which the self-interest of the secondary schools may be trusted to provide for.

The full practical benefit of the improvement cannot, however, be realized until other institutions adopt the same plan. Secondary schools do not devote themselves to preparation for any one institution; every class contains boys destined for Harvard, Yale, Princeton, etc., side by side, and the schools are for the most part organized on the class basis. The requirements of the less enlightened institutions therefore determine the curriculum. If Columbia and Bryn Mawr insist on concentrating the examinations in the final two years or less, then the secondary schools face the alternative of chaos or congestion. A pretty situation may arise a few years hence when a boy or a girl with a Harvard entrance certificate applies for admission to some college that has hitherto gladly accepted this evidence of fitness: will inquiry be made as to the date when the respective credits were earned, and reëxamination in part or whole required? There is no telling; in the matter of college entrance you must never call a thing impossible just because it is irrational or absurd. At Vassar a ruling was recently made that a girl who may have passed the matriculation examinations of Johns Hopkins must demonstrate her fitness anew by undergoing the tests as applied by the college entrance examination board!

The Harvard move interests me, however, especially in its ultimate possibilities, for it may betoken a tendency on the part of the colleges to get off the neck of the secondary schools. The hopelessness of genuine progress lies, to my thinking, in the deadly fixity which the colleges have imposed on preparatory training. To be quite outspoken, I hold that a committee of college professors is not a proper body to exercise unlimited authority over secondary education. They are, as a rule, men of academic prepossessions and limitations, who do not, for the most part, come in contact with boys at all until their wretched prescriptions have materially harmed them; and, even then, their contact is largely at long range, through certain imperfect and precarious "feelers" called Instructors or Assistants. Fixity of the kind now insisted on is an effectual bar to progress; the situation has crystallized far too quickly. In recent years there has been a genuine and unmistakable improvement in elementary education: would it have occurred, if, to return to my cervical figure, a committee of secondary schoolmen had forged a tight collar for the submissive elementary school neck?

Let it not be supposed that I urge mutual independence of the several educational units; just the reverse! Our need is for intimate, vital, organic connection. But the so-called coöperation that we now have begins only after the colleges have prejudged the whole situation!

ABRAHAM FLEXNER.

17 BUCKINGHAM STREET, CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 3, 1906.

POULTRY-RAISING, ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The prescription for success with poultry, given by Mr. Robinson Smith in the last issue of the *Nation*, is, "Do the work yourself and take infinite pains." Is not that a rule for success applicable to any and every business?

As a side issue and as a diversion, poultry-keeping has been a study with me for the last eight years. The old adage about counting chickens before they are hatched seems to be as applicable nowadays as it was presumably in other days. A great many people, ignorant of the work, get the idea that, having kept a few hens successfully, they can keep a larger number with correspondingly larger profits. This is a mistake, and I have seen at least a dozen instances where city people have bought a small piece of land in the country, have invested money lavishly (on a small scale), and have been much surprised to find that their poultry did not pay.

Poultry can be made to pay, but in order to do this the owner must have a peculiar aptitude for the business, and must devote his personal, unremitting attention to it. He must also be a very careful student of the conditions under which he works: nearness to market, demands of that market, appropriate season for putting his wares on the market, advertising, exhibiting at shows, economy in feeding, and utilization of waste products. A hawk, a weasel, a neglected case of roup, a colony of rats, a smoking brooder lamp, or a thief at night may ruin a season's work. Somebody—an expert—must be on the premises all the time. It is true that the owner can hire a poultryman to take care of the plant, but his wages and keep will cost so much that the plant must be pretty large to make it a profitable investment. In order to pass on the qualifications of a good poultryman, the owner must be an expert himself. If the employee should happen to leave in a "huff"—and such things do occur —the owner must be capable of running the concern himself, or suffer great loss.

The ordinary hen will lay about $2 worth of eggs a year, and it will cost about one dollar a year to feed her. When her season of usefulness as a layer is past, she may be put on the market, and she will fetch about enough to pay for her keep from hatch to laying period—about one year with most breeds. Properly to house and yard 100 hens will involve an original outlay of about $100. This does not include the cost of breeders and incubators.

It would seem, then, that 100 hens, one year old, should yield a profit of $100, and 1,000 hens should yield a profit of $1,000, and 10,000 hens should bring in $10,000, and so on. But the fallacy lies in applying mathematics to hens. In mathematics there are no accidents, all the conditions of the problem are known and accounted for; while poultry-keeping is full of accidents and conditions which are constantly arising and which cannot be foreseen or calculated on in advance. Application of mathematics to keeping hens has caused many a broken heart and broken bank account. Poultry can be kept profitably and on a large scale by an adept in the art, who is willing to devote his time vigilantly and unremittingly to that business. The reason why so many people fail to make poultry profitable is because they don't know how and because they have not the patience.

On the other hand, perhaps my experience with a small flock of about fifty birds may be interesting. I selected one breed and bought the best that money could buy. I laid out about $300 for house, yards, incubators, brooders, etc. I kept an accurate account of receipts and expenditures, not counting, however, chickens for table use or eggs consumed by the family of five persons. At the end of three years the flock had repaid me for my original expenditure. During the following four years they gave me a profit of about $500 in all.

Later, I sold the place, shipped my flock to a friend in the East, and stored my brooders and incubators. But the points for consideration are, in my opinion, that I did all the work myself; I selected one breed and exhibited at shows successfully and advertised. I sold eggs for hatching at $4.00 per setting, and I sold single birds as high as $35.

I took the thing up as a hobby and as an amusement, and also for the improvement of my health in outdoor work. The hobby paid me at the rate of about a hundred dollars a year; it furnished me an agreeable and healthful diversion from other work of a different character. To any person having a portion of the day at his disposal, who loves animals and outdoor life, I can confidently recommend poultry-keeping—on a small scale.

E. L. C. MORSE.

CHICAGO, March 3, 1906.

A LAPSE CORRECTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of my 'Washington and the West' (containing Washington's Diary of 1784), printed in your issue of November 30, 1905, the reviewer stated: "The diary was printed by Sparks, but not in full." I have a letter from the reviewer in question which reads: "Sparks did not publish it, and I was therefore at fault in so asserting. It was a case where I depended upon memory, and my memory misled me. I owe you an apology."

I think you owe it to all concerned to give this statement as wide a circulation as you gave the error. Had the remark been true, there would have been little reason for the book.

Faithfully yours,

ARCHER B. HULBERT.

MARIETTA, O., February 26, 1906.

Notes.

Fox, Duffield & Co. have in press 'The Book of Tea,' an interpretation of Japanese life by Okakura-Kakuzo, and 'Reminiscences of My Childhood and Youth,' by Georg Brandes.

From Macmillan we are to have 'The Blackmore Country,' illustrated, by F. J. Snell; and a new edition, with supplementary essays, of E. G. Hardy's 'Christianity and the Roman Government,' under the title, 'Studies in Roman History.'

Messrs. Putnam have in preparation 'Studies in Socialism,' by Jean Jaurès; 'A Short History of Freethought, Ancient and Modern,' by John M. Robertson; and 'Notes on the History and Political Institutions of the Old World,' by Edward Preissig.

'Personal Recollections of Johannes Brahms,' by George Henschel; 'Alterations and Adaptations of Shakspere,' by Frederick W. Kilbourne, and 'Our Common Wildflowers,' by Alice M. Dowd, are announced by Richard G. Badger, Boston.

The Oxford University Press (H. Frowde) has nearly ready Matthew Arnold's 'Merope,' edited by J. Churton Collins; to which is appended R. Whitelaw's translation of the "Electra" of Sophocles. If favorably received, this popularizing volume will be followed by others "containing some leading Greek tragedy in an acknowledged masterpiece of translation, edited in the same manner."

By inadvertence, in noticing last week the two latest issues of the Newnes "Art Library," we misnamed the American publishers, who are Messrs. Frederick Warne & Co.

The Graphical Society, which solicits subscribers at 30 marks annually, will reprint woodcuts and engravings, small books with their texts, especially blockbooks and the oldest illustrated books, series of sheets having historical or artistic connection, and works of individual masters. Each separate publication will appear in book form and be complete in itself. The editorial committee is made up of such connoisseurs as Dr. Max Lehrs, Dr. Max J. Friedländer, and Dr. Paul Kristeller. The honorary committee also abounds in the names of European museum directors and patrons of art. Evidently the new society starts under learned and distinguished auspices. For immediate publication are proposed, among many titles: 'Biblia Pauperum,' the unique Heidelberg example of this fine blockbook; the Lübeck Dance of Death, 1498 (also unique at Nürnberg); the works of Giulio and Domenico Campagnola; Boccaccio's 'Ninfale Fiesolano,' Florence, fifteenth century; the oldest illustrations of the 'Trionfi' of Petrarch, on wood and on copper; Beham's Bible woodcuts, and Adam Elsheimer's etchings. The Society's business will be transacted through the publishing firm of Bruno Cassirer, Derfflinger Strasse 16, Berlin, W., to whom application for membership and subscriptions should be sent by April 15, proximo.

The paintings of old masters in possession of the German Emperor and King of Prussia are to be published for the first time under the direction of Wilhelm Bode, Max J. Friedländer, and Paul Seidel (Berlin: Richard Bong; New York: Lemcke & Büchner). There will be 72 large photogravures, 130 illustrations in the text, and 200 pages of letterpress. The issue will be in twenty-four parts at five marks each.

Another one-volume edition of 'The Poetical Works of Lord Byron' (Scribners) follows close upon that in the "Cambridge Edition" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), edited by Paul E. More. The later, "the only complete and copyright text in one volume," proceeds from Ernest Hartley Coleridge, and differs from the American in arrangement, as in some other particulars, one being the index to first lines, which is alphabetized for *A*, *I*, and *O* in a manner somewhat old-fashioned, and makes an indexical comparison for fulness between the two collections by no means simple. The American index of titles, likewise, must be collated with Mr. Coleridge's classified table of contents. Finally, the newer letterpress is rather faintly, though very clearly, printed. The English type page is slightly shorter than the American, as well as narrower, but the number of folios is nearly identical; as the English margins are larger, it follows that the type employed is slightly smaller. The text is authoritative.

It seemed timely, amid the great free-trade electoral campaign just closed across the water, to bring out on behalf of the losing side a new edition of Disraeli's political biography of Lord George Bentinck (London: Constable; New York: Dutton). It opens on the eve of the repeal of the Corn Laws, of which it gives the Tory view. Bentinck forestalled Chamberlain in thinking that England's commercial policy should be not free trade, but reciprocity. Mr. Charles Whibley, in his introduction, now looks to see Chamberlain "play the part then played by Lord George Bentinck. . . . He too will fight the battle of the manufacturers and the Colonial farmers. . . . Once again the Free Traders will rest their case not upon facts, but upon sentiments. Once again we shall hear an echo of Disraeli's saying: 'Protection is not a principle, it is an expedient.' " Mr. Whibley further quotes a speech of Lord John Manners in 1846 presenting the Chamberlain scheme, and congratulates the present Duke of Rutland on witnessing "the approaching triumph of a cause which has been neglected for more than half a century." This prophecy is now a little blighted.

Mr. S. M. Crothers's 'The Pardoner's Wallet' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a collection of semi-humorous moralizing essays. The title is derived, as the reader will surmise, from Chaucer's "gentil Pardoner," who, in the fourteenth century, rode straight from the court of Rome, "his walet . . . in his lappe Bretful of pardoun." A title that needs a note of explanation is, in our eyes, one of the minor unpardonable sins. Even after Mr. Crothers has explained that he intends to offer "suggestions concerning things pardonable," his essays cannot all be said to have any relation to their general title. Those on Saint Francis and on Hawthorne, for instance, would be in place in any volume of serious papers. All the essays are well written, and the pardonable sins, the prejudices, the unseasonable virtues, the fallacies of the peacemakers, who, according to Mr. Crothers, are always middle-aged or elderly and forget the ever recurrent militant temper of youth, are treated with a light hand. This sort of essay is not at all easy to write. Few readers can stand more than a few pages of humorous moralizing; and to turn out a perfect example of this kind of writing, one must have the genius and temperament of a Stevenson. But Mr. Crothers is always readable, and peculiarly ready with those apt illustrations which are usually the most attractive ingredient in this sort of literature.

Joel Benton has gathered together, under the title of 'Persons and Places' (The Broadway Publishing Co.), a group of short essays, several of which have been in print before, in the *Bookman*, the *Unitarian Review*, and other periodicals. Most of the papers are not of serious importance, but Mr. Benton has evidently devoted much

care to the one which deals with the poetry of William Cullen Bryant. The burden of his thought is a complaint that Bryant dwelt excessively on the theme of death. "The question which obtrudes itself is whether so much of the charnel-house at all times and seasons is not a serious defect in poetry. . . . Will the noblest thought, even, and the perfection of rhythm and rhyme, make the atmosphere of the graveyard permanently dear and popular?" Unquestionably Bryant did not write for all classes of readers, and in all moods. He can sing "Omnes eodem cogimur" with Horace, but the playful badinage with Lyde or Lydia, Pyrrha or Chloe, did not fall within his chosen field, and he had a right to choose his field. The question for the critic is his skill in cultivating it after it was once chosen, and, therefore, we think that the general tone of Mr. Benton's paper does the poet injustice. In large measure, however, he counteracts his own criticism with the question, "Who has not, indeed, been deeply indebted to him, if he reads poetry at all, for an immense contribution to his pleasure?" The gloom and odor of the charnel-house cannot be a peculiarly distinctive feature of any body of poetry of which such a question can appropriately be asked. Two other papers are marked by a very kindly feeling towards Thoreau, an attitude which we take to be far more prevalent than the author seems to suppose.

Miss M. Louise Greene's 'Development of Religious Liberty in Connecticut' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a welcome and creditable addition to the small list of valuable works on American ecclesiastical history. In so far as it seeks to show the connection between religious movements in Connecticut and similar movements elsewhere, particularly in Massachusetts, the work is constructed on broad lines, though we think that the development of dissent in England and the transplantation of it to Holland and America receive rather more than proportionate notice. The chief bones of contention in Connecticut were, of course, the Half-way Covenant and the Saybrook Platform; and to the development of these great statements, and of the controversies which centred round them, Miss Greene pays detailed and patient attention. One marvels, indeed, at the structure of injustice and oppression which the oligarchy of the orthodox built up and long maintained; at the harsh and cruel treatment of dissenters, from Episcopalians to Quakers and Baptists; and at the slow spread of toleration. We must confess to not finding Miss Greene's treatment everywhere sympathetic: she does not always make one feel that the controversies which she is tracing were really worth while, or enable us to understand why the men who engaged in them thought them, as they did, so supremely important. Her account of the "Great Awakening," for example, is distinctly cold, and that of the work and influence of Jonathan Edwards a bit superficial. On the other hand, Miss Greene is neither partial nor hostile, and her work, if it errs somewhat in feeling, is well stored with facts. The bibliography lists the principal authorities, including much contemporary material hitherto little used. It is rather inconvenient, however, to have the references to authorities massed at the end of the volume, with only those classed as "explanatory" given at the foot of the page.

'A Canadian Girl in South Africa' (Toronto: W. Briggs), by E. Maud Graham, is a bright and interesting account of life in the Orange River Colony during what may be termed the reconstruction period. The author was one of the forty Canadian ladies who volunteered in 1902 to teach the children in the Concentration Camps. Her first station was at Norval's Pont, where there were some thirteen hundred children, all of whom but the babies went to school. Her pictures of these Boer children, their brightness and affection for their teachers, are very attractive, while the account of the teachers' relations with the parents shows that, during the year after the close of the war, a kindly feeling between Dutch and English prevailed. The divisions of the present day are largely due, in her opinion, to the unavoidable delays in paying the war claims, the inefficiency of many of the English officials, and the educational crusade of the *predikants*, disgruntled because of the gradual stoppage of the Government grant for their support. The teachers themselves were instrumental in promoting and deepening this good feeling through their games and entertainments; the hostile factions at Kroonstad, for instance, where Miss Graham closed her service of twenty-five months, were brought together by means of field hockey contests. In the closing chapters, she treats briefly of Kafirs and labor, education and farming. Her style is simple and unaffected, and the narrative is brightened with frequent humorous touches. Many reproductions of the author's photographs add to the attractiveness of the volume.

Volume XVI. of the "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology" has two papers of rather more than the usual importance. The first of these, by Chandler R. Post, deals with the dramatic art of Æschylus, and has won for its author the distinction of the Charles Eliot Norton fellowship in Greek studies. While the purpose of the thesis is to trace the development of the dramatic art of Æschylus in the strictly technical sense of the term, it is still a paper which any intelligent student of the drama from a more purely literary point of view may read with ease and profit, even though he may not grasp the meaning of the few Greek lines interspersed here and there. The paper might well have sought a more popular channel of publication. The second of the papers referred to is a very searching discussion of the nature and origin of Indo-European inflection. No one but the specialist would be able to follow the discussion as a whole. Suffice it to say that it manifests a commendable lack of that "cock-sureness" in matters beyond the range of direct historic evidence which sometimes mars philological investigation. In view of recent recriminations in the more important field of athletics, it is refreshing to note that this contribution to a Harvard publication is the work of two Yale scholars, Professors Hanns Oertel and Edward P. Morris.

Students of Shakspere and his Italian sources will be interested in a tiny volume published by Sansoni in Florence, with the title 'Romeo e Giulietta.' It contains, after a brief and scholarly introduction by Cino Chiarini, the *novelle* of Luigi da Porto and Bandello, and Professor Chiarini's prose translation of "Romeo and Juliet," followed by a few notes. This version, which seems to be the fourth made in Italy in the last half-century, is a careful piece of work, and reads surprisingly well, except in some of the speeches of *Mercutio*, where an adequate rendering is impossible. Professor Chiarini had previously made himself known as a translator by his version of the Tale of the Oxford Scholar, from Chaucer, and of Carlyle's 'Dante and Shakspere.' The dainty but inexpensive little book is dedicated to Dr. Furnivall.

"Winning the West" is the felicitous title of an account of Government irrigation work, in the *National Geographic Magazine* for February, by C. J. Blanchard, engineer United States Reclamation Service. He describes the most important of the thirteen projects now under construction, and summarizes the three years' work of the Service. Seventy-seven miles of main canals, some of which are the size of small rivers, fifty-four miles of distributing canals, and 186 miles of ditches have been built, together with 125 miles of road and 150 miles of telephone. The remarkable transformation of the country resulting from this work is illustrated by the fact that a small tract in southern Idaho, which two years ago was absolute desert, has now three towns with 120 business houses, three newspapers, one private and two State banks. On the other hand, Roosevelt, in the Salt River reservoir site, a city with electric lights, waterworks, school-houses, stores, and churches, and a population of nearly 2,000, will be submerged more than 200 feet when the dam is completed. It is estimated that the reclamation of the irrigable desert land in the West will add to the taxable property of the nation $2,350,000,000, and provide farm homes for 600,000 families. The address of Chairman Theodore P. Shonts on the Panama Canal contains little that is new or of value, being largely taken up with a general denial of the charges of jobbery, immorality, and inefficiency on the part of those engaged in its construction. More interesting is the account, by Capt. Geo. S. Gibbs of the Coast Survey, of transportation methods in Alaska, in the course of which he remarks that while the introduction of the reindeer has improved the deplorable condition of the Indians, these animals will never become an important addition to the transportation facilities of the country. But the dog plays a part in the Alaskan life that is indispensable, and for which there is no substitute. This number is illustrated, profusely and beautifully, with reproductions of most interesting photographs.

An entirely new move in the secondary-school world of Germany is the establishment of a semi-scientific Realgymnasium for girls in Berlin. The City Council has accepted a curriculum for such a school in range corresponding to the so-called "Reform" gymnasium, from the Lower Tertia to the Upper Prima. Hitherto only classical gymnasia have been established for girls in Germany, and of these there are said to be now twenty-five in all.

Tempora mutantur. The Sultan, who has

rather stubbornly resisted the introduction of electrical appliances in the empire, has recently granted the concession for the electrical lighting of the city of Jerusalem, and for a trolley system in the sacred precincts, which is to be practically an interurban road, extending to Bethlehem, Bethany, and probably even to Jericho and the sacred sites that mark the tomb of Moses. The plans include even a further extension to Amman, where connection will be made with the railroad that is being built from Damascus to Mecca. Damascus also is to receive a complete system of electrical street cars, the power to be supplied by the historic Abana River, generally known by the name of Barada. Beirut, the most progressive and modern city in Syria, is now also moving to get concessions for electric lighting and cars. A number of religious journals on the Continent are protesting against this "desecration" of sacred places, deploring, *e. g.*, that the Jerusalem-Jericho track must go directly over the Mount of Olives. This last-mentioned road, and probably the others, too, at any rate will be built by a German company.

—The illustrated magazines for March signalize "the first and dubious signs of spring," as Livy would put it, by a copious supply of out-door literature. *Scribner's* opens with the record of an automobile tour of 1,300 miles "through five countries, across twelve frontiers, and over five Alpine passes," from the pen of Henry Norman, M.P., and copiously illustrated by the author's own camera. Incidentally, the photograph of the winding road up the Stelvio pass demonstrates with unusual force the possible mendacity of the camera, exactly reversing, to the eye, the direction of the incline. Following Mr. Norman, Frederick Van Beuren, jr., essays with fair success to put into verse the geologic birth and growth of the Red Cañon. We must object, however, to "the shriek of the grinding ice." Ice may grind and ice may shriek on due occasion, but the conditions precedent and the audible consequences are essentially separate. N. C. Wyeth comes next, describing "A Day with the Round-up," with his own drawings, several of which are reproduced in the vivid colors so familiar to readers (or should we say *spectators?*) of the descriptive literature of the Southwest. Even the stories, for the most part, have a distinctive out-door flavor. In separate titles, if not in comparative space, *Harper's* is not far behind as an open-air number. "A Night's Ride with Arab Bandits," "In Western Camps," "Ibex Shooting in the Mountains of Baltistan," and "A Colorado Glacier" are among the titles. Philip Verrill Mighels offers a poetic conceit on "The Desert," which the Creator, weary of the sins and carnage of the life filling all other parts of his creation, has made "as a place to be alone." Evidently the poet has not read the chapter by John C. Van Dyke on "The Life of the Desert." There are few places, if any, where the struggle for existence is more cruel and unceasing. The *Century*, too, opens with a paper in the same general field, route notes in Sicily, "The Garden of the Sun," by William Sharp. The illustrations are from drawings by Jay Hambidge, and picture chiefly incidents in the life of the natives (mostly out-door life) rather than the scenery.

—The *Century* has a paper of practical suggestions, by Sylvester Baxter, on "Art in the Street," with drawings by Jules Guérin and Malcolm Fraser. Guide-boards, lamp-posts, telephone poles, fire-alarm and police-signal boxes, letter-boxes, watering-troughs and drinking-fountains are among the various utilities, now generally a source of odious disfigurement to village and city streets, which might, as the writer contends, be so designed as to be a source of pleasure and satisfaction to the eye and an elevating æsthetic influence upon the community. In the same number Charles De Kay gives a general description of the architecture and decoration of the new New York Custom House. The feeling so universal among lovers of things artistic crops out in his comment that the architect has not seen fit to express, even in some allegorical manner, the position of free-born Americans in allowing themselves to be treated as slaves by the collectors of customs, for the alleged good of the country. Perhaps a typical trunk-searching scene might yet be depicted on one of those wall spaces upon which Mr. De Kay thinks that the art of painting should have some worthy recognition. The general result he regards as highly creditable to the architect, chosen by competition under the provisions of the Tarsney act, and as a full justification of the abandonment of the old method, "when Government buildings were designed at Washington by the gross, and carried out without a thought of adaptability to the climate or surroundings, not to speak of beauty as objects of æsthetic pleasure."

—Students of comparative religion will be interested in Professor Bloomfield's account in *Harper's* of the recent discovery of portions of the long-lost Manichean Bible. These fragments were a part of the rich archæological treasure unearthed by Dr. Alfred Grünwedel at Turfan, in the extreme east of Chinese Turkestan, under the auspices of the German Government. They are over eight hundred in number, and are the sole known remnants of the literature to which they belong. During the past summer, Professor Bloomfield spent several weeks in Berlin, and had an admirable opportunity to examine the fragments with the constant assistance of Dr. Grünwedel himself and of Dr. F. W. K. Müller, of the Berlin Ethnological Museum, an eminent Orientalist of the younger generation. Biblical scholars will be interested to see the large Christian element which appears in these fragments. Indeed, in some passages Mani seems to be wholly identified with Christ, though elsewhere Christianity is vigorously assailed. Dr. Grünwedel has returned to Turfan to continue his quest, carrying with him a grant of 83,000 marks, and it is confidently to be hoped that large additions may be made to his already remarkable discovery.

—Prof. F. W. Taussig takes the leading place in the *Atlantic* with a paper on "Love of Wealth and the Public Service." He finds several motives which tend to hold capable men of business steadily to the work of money-making, regardless of need. Any man of energetic temperament feels that he must be doing something, and the man who is once inured to business habits really finds little else that he can do successfully. Again, there is the natural joy of accomplished ends, or the stimulus of success, as a recent educational writer has called it. But the play of these motives is crippled in the public service by the short tenure of office and the numerous checks and balances by which a jealous democracy insists upon guarding against possible abuse of delegated power. Professor Taussig recognizes that these checks are in large degree inseparable from democratic government, but still hopes that more leeway may in time be given for the exercise of unhampered individual initiative in executive positions, so as to make public service more tempting to men of great business capacity. Considered in the abstract, his position is plausible, but the removal of restrictions upon men in positions of trust will proceed somewhat slowly until the insurance scandals are forgotten. A. Maurice Low presents a glowing defence of the German Emperor against what he conceives to be the most cruel misinterpretation of motives, misconstruction of actions, and ridicule of purposes to which any great historical character has ever been subjected Mr. John Corbin's plea against the extravagantly pictorial stage of modern times as a vehicle for the presentation of Elizabethan drama, we have discussed elsewhere.

—In the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for February, Prof. Adam Shortt contributes a paper on Canada's anti-dumping policy, which throws unexpected light on the true inwardness of that unique piece of legislation. Canada is the only country which has actually legislated against dumping. Her tariff act contains a clause by which articles that are sold in Canada at less than the market price in the country of exportation, are subjected to a special duty, equal to the difference between the market value and the selling price. This affects, of course, chiefly the United States, and especially such articles as pig iron, steel rails, girders, and the like. But other articles also, including some that come from Germany, are affected by the provision. Now the natural explanation of this sort of thing is that it is a protectionist device, meant to prevent the wicked foreigner from underselling. In fact, however, it is in Canada a device not of the protectionists, but of the free traders. It appears from Professor Shortt's account that the protectionists had set up the practice of dumping as justification for demanding a general increase of duties. The liberals, as a means of stealing the protectionist thunder, adopted the anti-dumping duty—but stopped there, having a plausible ground for saying the only real difficulty had been met. At all events, Canada gets a tidy revenue out of extra duties imposed on articles that are sold in Canada at what our monopolists euphemistically call "export rates." The administration of this system calls for the maintenance of special agents to keep watch of prices in American cities, and seems to be carried on with a good deal of discretion. Information is treated as confidential; and when the Government of Australia applied to the Canadian Government for points as to dumping, the Canadian Government refused to comply with the request. We note also, in the same issue, Professor Ripley's article on the trunk-line rate system, which he de-

scribes as a distance tariff, and adduces as indicating the principle on which railway rates in general should be adjusted. The instructive map which accompanies his article certainly makes it plain that the trunk lines have in fact worked out their competitive problems on the principle of distance.

—In the interest of economic government in the Philippines, a scheme of consolidation of bureaus has lately been carried into effect. One of its results is to incorporate the Mining Bureau with the Bureau of Government Laboratories, the new organization to be known as the Bureau of Science, of which Dr. Paul C. Freer, formerly of the University of Michigan, is director. Hitherto, there has been some confusion and tendency to duplication in scientific work and publications at Manila (though far less than at Washington). Henceforth, separate bulletins will not be issued at irregular intervals, but all scientific papers will be published in a new journal to be known as the *Philippine Journal of Science*. The agricultural, forestry, and health branches of the Government service will, of course, continue the separate publication of bulletins for popular circulation. The subjects covered by the new organization of the Bureau of Science and to be especially treated in the new journal are: researches on biological subjects, including bacteriology, pathology, and allied branches of the science relating to medicine, botany, and zoölogy; on chemistry, including topics relating to the natural products of the Philippine Islands, to analytical and synthetical work, and to physiological and biological chemistry; researches relating to the fields of serums and prophylactics and on mineralogy, geology, and palæontology, including investigations of the mineral resources and mining operations of the Philippines. Ten numbers a year will probably be the minimum of issues of the *Journal*. The subscription price will be $5 per year, single numbers 75 cents, and reprints of papers 25 cents, remittances to be made to the Director of Printing, Manila, P. I. The publications by the Philippine Bureau of Government Laboratories during 1902-1905 number thirty-six bulletins, the majority of them biological or pathological studies of tropical diseases affecting the human family or of the animal plagues which have wrought so much disaster in the Philippines. There are also some noteworthy additions to the knowledge of Philippine botany by Elmer D. Merrill, various chemical researches into Philippine products, and studies in Philippine ornithology. These bulletins have heretofore been sent free on application, and some copies of them are still available.

—The title, 'Negro Humour,' of Mr. J. Graham Cruickshank's trim little volume issued at Demerara from the *Argosy* press would lead a North American to expect something more comic than he will find. These "sketches in the market, on the road, and at my back-door" are "impressions," a term which the author himself applies to the chapter on Bridgetown, Barbados. They are delicate vignettes, little studies artistically rendered; and the humor is more in the writer's sympathy and insight than in the sayings and doings of the people of color. Indeed, this class is so intermingled in action and conversation with two others—the "Sammies" (East Indian coolies) and the "Potagee"—that one does not readily differentiate them by the test of humor alone. This, however, is a small matter, and anybody may profit by reading these glimpses of British Guiana, Barbados, and Jamaica. One character, "Old Gordon," has a sketch to himself, of some historical value; and the chapter on Wakenaam is economically instructive, as it makes a faithful but not unkind comparison of the negro's status before and since emancipation. Mr. Cruickshank furnishes a glossary, which is needed. His text is pleasantly interspersed with colloquialisms, used to heighten the local color, like "upperside the potato field," "face well and wrinkled," "middle-day," "in the crop." One will not laugh over this book, but it is none the less agreeable.

—The annual art competition of the leading newspapers of Tokio and Osaka shows the results of the war and what are the thoughts uppermost in the minds of the people, though rather to the detriment of pure art. In the bundle of newspapers published on New Year's Day in these two great cities, imperial and commercial, we find that, in ten of the multiple editions of forty or fifty pages each, five of the illustrated supplements are mechanical rather than artistic. The Emperor in one and Togo and Oyama in another appear in colors and gold. There is a sheet of portraits in half-tones, of twenty-two princes, generals, admirals, and statesmen, while another is occupied with views of the chief palaces or Government buildings of the world. The *Illustrated Nippon* contains pictures of pretty women and notable landscapes, one of these being the great double or twin rocks, linked together with the ceremonial rice-straw rope, and the larger crowned with a *torii*, to see the sun rise between which tens of thousands of people, gathering at New Year's Eve, assemble on the seashore and neighboring hills near Isé. One journal issues the sign-manual of a famous calligrapher, of slight interest indeed to an Occidental, but as full of suggestion to a Japanese as a new fishbone would be to Agassiz. This finishes the inventory of black and white. A map of Tokio in colors and a sheet of pictorial postal cards with mirth-provoking suggestions of the funny situations caused by the jostling of old and new, foreign and native customs and notions, add variety to the New Year's gifts of enterprising newspaper publishers. The color sheets are gems of artistic skill, and each one is signed by the artist's name. One, a glory in deep purple, with a spring-like background of flower-decked meadow and blossoming trees, shows a young girl, holding in one hand a white dove and in the other a sprig of pink blossoms. Another piece, twenty by twelve inches, representing a noble matron with her two young daughters in the coiffure and costume of five centuries ago, is a glory of harmonious coloring. The sprig of plum blossoms suggests the spring, for, according to the old chronology, New Year's Dav came in February. One sees how difficult it is for art traditions to change with the almanac, for now the Japanese New Year's is that which the Western world keeps. Inferior to none in drawing, expression, and pose of the figures, though with appropriate moderation in tint, is another piece in color, depicting two lads on horses caparisoned in the olden style. The bamboo and plum tree in the background tell, by their symbolism, of life that has not yet reached the stadium which the pine tree always suggests. This exhibition of pictures set against a wall gives a true index of the national taste, temperament, and power of the art-loving Japanese.

RAILROAD PROBLEMS.

American Railroad Rates. By Walter Chadwick Noyes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

Restrictive Railway Legislation. By Henry S. Haines. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Government Regulation of Railway Rates: A Study of the Experience of the United States, Germany, France, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Australia. By Hugo Richard Meyer. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

These three volumes contain the weightiest contributions made in the last calendar year towards elucidating our vexatious problem of railroad transportation. While unequal in value, they each contain material which we could ill afford to lose. The author of 'American Railroad Rates' is at the same time a judge of the Court of Common Pleas in Connecticut and president of the New London Northern Railroad Company. The very juxtaposition of titles will probably affront the Grangerite, but an impartial survey of the book will demonstrate that this conjunction has not been without its happy influence. It has blended the knowledge of practical railroad administration with a judicial insight into the duties which common carriers owe to the public. Mr. Haines's book comprises the substance of a course of lectures delivered at the Boston University School of Law, and abundantly bespeaks the experienced railway expert. Mr. Meyer is assistant professor of political economy in the University of Chicago. His book sweeps a wider geographical horizon than the other two, and is fortified with a wealth of annotative footnotes. Unfortunately, the scientific detachment which might be expected from an academic investigator is sometimes conspicuously absent, and the strong brief which Mr. Meyer files in favor of the railroads betrays an unmistakable *parti pris*.

Judge Noyes gives at the outset an admirable exposition of the fundamental principles of railway economics. A student of transportation fresh from the perusal of Acworth's 'Elements of Railway Economics' would inevitably be tempted to draw "the deadly parallel" against Judge Noyes's introductory chapter on "Underlying Principles." But, in a footnote on page 20, and once again on page 66 in a similar reference, the tree from which the golden apples were shaken is indicated as "an admirable little book of high authority." In a court of literary ethics it is questionable whether this bare acknowledgment would constitute a *pretium justum*. If, however, his theoretical outline was appropriated from another, Judge Noyes has given it a dress even more suitable for American readers than the original. Those who believe on *à priori* grounds that railroad

charges should be based on cost of service, equal mileage rates, or on postal principles, will find the refutation of these proposed systems unanswerable. Equally excellent is the description of the actual process of rate-making, while chapter iv., on Classification and Tariffs, is the best account in short compass of that perplexing subject available for the general reader. The author has refused to allow his immediate business interests to blind him to the real evils inherent in our present transportation system. He frankly avows (p. 103) that "Rebates and other personal discriminations too often have driven the small manufacturer from the field and left it free for the corporate combination." On the other hand, he thinks that the present law, with such changes as are necessary "to bring within its provisions . . . private cars and terminals, . . . seems to go as far as any law can go to stop personal discriminations" (p. 121). But he further acknowledges that the existing law "does not effectively reach preferences created by the tariff [railroad], or discriminations which the published rates are formed to carry out" (p. 123). Conservative as Judge Noyes is in his plan for remedying the evils of the situation, his discussion of the problem is without any unfair bias. Or if any bias is evident, it is rather the misgivings of the jurist scrupulously fearful of any departure from the letter of constitutionality than of the railroad man willing to gain a doubtful advantage for his own profit. Of 'American Railroad Rates' it may be said that it is as a whole the best balanced book on the subject that the present controversy has evoked. Its comparative brevity—it contains only 260 pages—should commend it to the busy man who wants something more than a mere superficial presentation of the railroad problem.

'Restrictive Railway Legislation,' the title of Mr. Haines's book, is somewhat misleading. It indicates rather the goal to which his argument is directed, or the impulse from which his discussion took its rise. It is not fairly descriptive of the book's contents. Indeed, no name short of Essays on Railroad Transportation would cover the variety of topics with which it deals, for railroad construction, operation, organization, finance, rate-making, and legislation all come under review. On all these subjects Mr. Haines has something to say, although his discussions are very unequal in merit. Where he speaks as a technical expert, he is surest of his ground. Where he essays a theory of reasonable rates, he is weakest. Where, finally, he attempts a philosophic résumé of the underlying forces which have been operative in our railroad history, he attains a very high degree of success.

It will probably surprise many to learn that "the region westward from Massachusetts to the Mississippi River and southward to the Potomac and Ohio Rivers is now better supplied with railroad lines per square mile than Great Britain is" (p. 103), but Mr. Haines speaks here with the word of authority. So, too, his judgment is weighty where he concludes that "the provisions for safety upon our railroad system are not up to the standards abroad, and that they have not kept pace with the increasing speed of trains and density of traffic" (p. 132). Almost equally illuminating is his comparison of English and American methods of railroad financiering, especially his unfavorable contrast of our judge-made receiverships with the English procedure for the protection of debenture holders. The practical railroad man is equally in evidence in his history of the formation of rate-sheets and in his significant disclosure of methods of according disguised rebates, as, for instance, by recognizing the switching tracks of an industrial concern as an independent railroad company, and by allowing large arbitrary percentages of an alleged joint rate (pp. 151, 152) to this pseudo-carrier.

His most unsatisfactory chapter is the one in which the question is raised, What is a reasonable rate *per se*? Instead of taking Judge Noyes's wary though indefeasible position that reasonableness is always a comparative matter, and that it is about as easy to demonstrate that a certain river is deep *per se* as that a specific rate is reasonable *per se*, Mr. Haines attempts a solution of the question. He shows in the first place that *à priori* contentions for basing rates on the value of railroad property or on the cost of affording transportation service are simply inapplicable to the fixing of specific rates. His negative contention is undeniable. He proceeds to find the essence of reasonableness in a compromise rate which affords a margin of profit both to shipper and to carrier. If all traffic were non-competitive, he thinks this test would be all-sufficient. When, however, shippers at competitive points obtain relatively lower rates than are exacted from the shippers at non-competitive points, the further question arises whether the low competitive rates are reasonable from the standpoint of the shippers who pay the higher rates. Here Mr. Haines, in his economic casuistry, distinguishes between natural and artificial competitive points. Where the shipper has a choice of water or rail routes, the low rate he obtains is no injustice to the shipper who must pay high non-competitive rates. But where the shipper at a junction point of competing roads obtains a disproportionately lower rate than the local shipper served by a single carrier, the rate is unreasonable, so Mr. Haines thinks, and should be adjusted by pooling or statute to the higher level of local rates. It may be observed that the distinction here drawn by the author has been disallowed as a proper construction of "the long and short-haul" clause of the Interstate Commerce Act by the Supreme Court in the Alabama Midland case (168 U. S. Rep., 144). But the chief fault to be found with Mr. Haines's criterion is that it really fails to determine anything with precision. If any rate, with the exception noted above, that affords a margin of profit to carrier and shipper is reasonable, there is an infinite number of rates reasonable *per se* for any given railroad service. Even this fails to indicate adequately the looseness of the criterion suggested. If ten shippers at a given point continuously ship the same commodity over a certain line, the rate is presumptively reasonable. A lower rate might enable fifteen shippers to forward the same commodity over the same line. Now if the increase in the volume of traffic makes the new rate a paying rate to the carrier, this again will be a reasonable rate. Or, the carrier might double the original rate so that five of the original ten shippers might be no longer able to stand it, and yet the lessened service required of the carrier might make the new high rate a profitable and hence a reasonable rate conformably to Mr. Haines's specifications. Where such latitude is possible, the rule proposed becomes practically useless. One might as well define a reasonably pleasant day as one unattended by a blizzard or a cloud-burst. Having attempted a profitless task, Mr. Haines makes a bad matter worse by a futile attempt to allocate particular railroad earnings to specific transportation services. This culminates in the allegation that, in 1902, permanent improvements ($42,000,000) and the reserve fund ($105,000,000) were provided from "other sources" than "receipts from passenger and freight service" (p. 191).

For his lapses in the discussion of reasonable rates, Mr. Haines amply atones in his two concluding chapters. Here his tone is philosophical, and the breadth of his handling of the historical factors which have controlled our public policy in railroad matters, is most admirable. Particularly significant is his showing that the legal prohibition of pooling has had for its result the very consequences the legislators were so anxious to avoid—namely, the consolidation of great lines into greater "systems." Apprehension is now aroused over "the anticipated consequences of unrestricted combination, and it is mainly to remedy abuses of this character that there is now a popular demand for the further regulation of railroad affairs by legislation" (p. 329).

Professor Meyer's book contains in Part I. an analysis of Government fixing of railroad rates in Europe and Australia, and in Part II. an historical exposition of the setting of railroad rates in the United States. He narrows the railroad problem in this country to the question whether the Government should prescribe rates for the purpose of guaranteeing their relative reasonableness. Extortionate rates, he contends, are out of the question when the returns on actual investments in our railroads do not exceed 5.5 per cent. even in times of abounding prosperity. And secret rebates, he asserts, are in no wise rendered less likely, but rather more likely, when the rates are set by the Government instead of by the carrier. In general, this author concludes that Government-made rates arrest the decline in transportation charges, and, by gravitating towards a mileage basis, prevent the development of a volume of traffic sufficient to secure the highest attainable efficiency in railroad service. In Germany, for example, the uniform haulage charge per ton-mile apportions trade, he thinks, in a mechanical way, and actually discriminates unjustly in favor of those districts with waterways as against those without this means of relief (p. 47). The comparative rigidity of the rates on Prussian state railways he illustrates by showing that while general prices in Germany fell between 1880 and 1899 by 17.6 per cent., railway charges fell in the same period only 14.7 per cent., while in the United States the corresponding decline was 24.3 and 41.7 per cent., respectively (p. 93). The mileage basis which Governments adopt in the setting of rates is due not so much to considerations of cost as to the necessity of having

some hard-and-fast rule of action admitting the exercise of no discretion. The significant utterance of Von Miquel (p. 456), regarding the necessity of having "the stone wall of a system" if effectual refuge was to be had from the jealousies and conflicts of local and sectional interests, points to the reason why Government-made rates must be inelastic. This same rigidity in rates is found by Professor Meyer to exist in republican France and in socialistic Australasia. In the latter country he finds the absence of the "basing-point system" responsible for the undue concentration of population and trade in Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney. To the same cause he attributes "the ridiculously low average of the train load in Australia—seventy-four tons in New South Wales" (p. 198).

Part II. recounts the experience of the United States in the matter of railroad rates. Professor Meyer is an uncompromising protagonist for the railroads. But if one makes allowance for this personal bias, there is much to be found in the volume of the first order of importance. Abundant illustration is afforded of the danger in every country that railway rates may become the football of sectional politics. Professor Meyer is undoubtedly right when he says (p. 278) that "in every large country there is a constant tendency toward interprovincial protection, which is effectually counteracted only by the absence of opportunity for its realization." He is also interesting, if not absolutely conclusive, in his description and defence of the "basing-point system." The contention set up—that it creates a multitude of interior distributing points, and thus curtails what would otherwise be a monopoly of seaboard cities—is ingeniously developed. In his latter chapters, where he turns his artillery on the decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission, it must be admitted that his fire is very damaging to that body's prestige.

Notwithstanding the hard work which the volume embodies, the final verdict must be that it is the plea of the advocate, not the deliverance of the impartial judge. With all his abhorrence of Socialism, the author's temperament is emphatically that of the typical Socialist. He can see only one side of the case. He cannot always resist the temptation to fling mud. A decision as to milk rates, he remarks *obiter*, "decided how much milk from cows fed on brewery swill the people of New York must consume" (p. 385). His unfortunate allegation that the absence in Germany of group rates on milk accounted for the 14,000 cows stabled by the Von Bolle firm within the city limits of Berlin (p. 387) has proved to be wholly untrue. Moreover, one can but suspect something like chauvinism in his virtual plea for non-interference with rate-fixing when a railroad president like Judge Noyes explicitly asserts that "existing remedies afford the shipper inadequate relief from unreasonable charges"; and that "it *is* important that the shipper should have an opportunity of presenting the justice of the charge complained of, in an expeditious way, to a disinterested tribunal."

In the matter of remedial legislation, Judge Noyes and Mr. Haines seem to agree in upholding what may fairly be called the railroad position. This is, in brief, that the separation of legislative and executive functions decreed by the Constitution makes it legally impossible that one and the same body shall exercise both the power to pass on the reasonableness of existing rates, and the power to set rates for the future. The former is alleged to be an exclusively judicial function; the latter, an exclusively executive or administrative function. If this contention be valid, the courts must be entrusted with some part of the work connected with rate-fixing, over and above their right to take cognizance of any rate alleged to be confiscatory. It behooves a layman to tread warily in this maze of constitutional law, but we may venture to suggest that when the Board of General Appraisers is given the power to determine the value of any import, and when no appeal may be taken from their decision to the courts, it looks very much as though what the railroad men describe as an exclusively judicial function, to wit, the determining the reasonableness of appraisal, were being performed by an administrative body. It may also be suggested that when the courts enjoin upon a carrier conformity to a certain published rate-schedule, the courts seem to be doing something akin to setting future rates. Whatever the validity of the railroads' contention in this particular matter, the ultimate settlement of our transportation problem must depend on the recognition of several cardinal truths. These are: that the same tribunal cannot act successfully in the dual rôle of inquisitor and judge; that public opinion will not rest in a system of legal appeals that so protract litigation as to defeat the ends of justice in the matter of railroad charges; and that nothing is to be gained in the long run by attempting to shelter the administrative fixation of carriers' charges from judicial review in the cold clear light of reason and of law.

GREENSLET'S LOWELL.—II.

James Russell Lowell: His Life and Work. By Ferris Greenslet. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

In the course of a microscopic examination, aided, one might say, by the Röntgen rays, Mr. Greenslet shows that Mr. Lowell's prose was akin to his conversation and his letters—"struck off," as he himself says of Dryden, "at a heat, in the best mood of his talk." Many of the essays were, in fact, primarily lectures, or talks, with all the *négligé* of expression which in conversation is rather a virtue and a charm. Hence, various blemishes—looseness of structure, discursiveness at will, imperfectly coherent paragraphs, an occasional ragged or ill-sounding phrase, an occasional ebullience of metaphor. Lowell wrote too often in haste and with impatience, and he did not use the file. He permits himself to dart off in pursuit of the whim or suggestion of the moment or in search of a purple patch which he had stored from his wide reading. All these blemishes may, in fact, be detected and may bar Lowell's style from the title of Attic; but they are blemishes rather for the eye of the literary expert, and it is surprising how little they detract from the gusto and allurement of his manner for the unprofessional reader and the layman.

An old friend of Lowell's tells us that he was "as indifferent about style as a man ought to be." On the other hand, in one of his own letters, Lowell regrets that his style is becoming old-fashioned; that it is already a thing of the last century. This does not look like indifference, though the regret is certainly superfluous. There are many varieties of good prose, and Lowell's had the supreme merit of sincerity. It expressed and fitted perfectly his rich personality and many-sided endowment. If his style was not Attic (and why, indeed, should we all atticize?), it was certainly not Asiatic—nothing was there for mere decoration. His teeming metaphor and illustrations were his natural and inevitable expression. He opened his mouth, and that kind of jewels simply fell from his lips. But this easy opulence does not in the least imply entire want of discipline or indifference to his art. No one understood better than he wherein consisted the hidden harmonies of rhythmical prose—he gives a perfect definition of it in his essay on Milton's 'Areopagitica'—and no one could better illustrate these harmonies when the mood and the occasion fitted. He knew perfectly well that the diction of elevated thought and emotion is naturally rhythmical, moulding itself upon the inner waves of feeling and of thought; and the best of his later public addresses exhibit a very noble style, worthy of the weight and dignity of the matter which it clothes. The address on Democracy and the Harvard Anniversary address, which reach quite beyond the range of the mere man of letters and enshrine the ripe wisdom of the thinker and the statesman, contain sentences that remind one of the music of Sir Thomas Browne or the large discourse of Burke. They have the same grand air, and are engendered of a similar mood of reflection and lofty imagination. Such cloth of gold is not ordinarily "tailor-made" for everyday wear; but it will never go out of fashion when worn by kings. Shall we forget Bach and Beethoven and Haydn because Wagner is now all the rage?

There is another feature which is noticeable in the addresses, and, to a less extent, in the essays on literature. In his witty and amusing account of a meeting with Landor Lowell mentions an epigram which that explosive personage once hurled at Wordsworth: "One may mix as much poetry with prose as one likes—it will exhilarate the whole; but the moment one mixes a drop of prose with poetry, it precipitates the whole." This is, in the main, strikingly true. Lowell often mixed the fatal drop of disillusion with his verse; and, on the other hand, he most felicitously exhilarated his prose not only with the colors of fancy and humor, but with the gleam of poetry. In the address given before the Wordsworth Society, he speaks of Wordsworth's poetry as "the Chartreuse," dedicated to the "Genius of Solitude," to which pious souls retreat at intervals for "communion with things that are heavenly." As criticism, the thought is absolutely just and felicitous, while the paragraph which enshrines the comparison contains the material of a sonnet expressed in rhythms more exquisite than the mechanic grind of many a sonneteer. Thus does Lowell take unfair advantage of the more pedestrian

essayist, and handicap him by the charm of his genius as well as by his humor. He allures and compels the attention of his reader, whatever may be the intrinsic merits or defects of his conclusions.

As to the final value of his criticism, it must be admitted that it was in some slight measure amateurish—that it lacked a little in system, in method, and completeness; he did not always verify his memories or weigh his judgments. He was not exactly the painstaking analyst, bent on reaching the heart of his subject and reporting the *vérité vraie* in its totality. He gives us rather a series of impressions, views and observations as they come into his mind. But when all is said about method, the worth of the critic depends largely on his own mental furniture—his knowledge of art, of books, of history, of mankind, the quality of his insight and divination. We listen to him for what he has in himself. He carries away from his author no more than he brings. If we are to see things through his eyes, he must be much more than a mere cicerone. He may have all the method you please, and yet be as unprofitable as a stamp-mill without ore and water, or a ship without freight. He may be as jejune and unprofitable as the forced green fruit of many a Ph.D. in literature, constrained, poor fellow, to bring his wares prematurely to market. *He* has method—fresh from the laboratory, modelled on Ste.-Beuve's, and he lacks only matter and manner.

Lowell, on the contrary, carried an enormous freight of learning, of observation, and ideas, and he applied it, as a rule, with taste, good sense, keenness, and penetration. His resources were exuberant, and spent with a brilliant prodigality. His range of illustration covered nearly all that was most precious in the great literatures. Even his Greek, in which he was too modest, enabled him to divine what M. Bréal, with the wider sweep and *netteté* of his learning, has lately been enforcing—that Homer *archaizes*, and that we must not take too literally his pictures of manners and customs. All this wide realm of gold he levies on with the lightning dart of Ariel. Whatever he appropriated, he lit with the sparkle and colors of wit and fancy and imagination. Hence, if he digresses, we can follow him with cheerful resignation. The more pedestrian essayist may lead you along a straight path under a dull sky. Lowell is a companion who gives you the effect of travelling in the morning sunlight when the dew is on the grass. If you ramble a little, it is in the edifying and delectable society of a man of genius.

Notwithstanding the breadth of his culture, he had his blind sides, as Mr. Greenslet remarks, and he nursed some hearty prejudices. The superfluous heat of these makes itself felt, for example, in the essay on Carlyle and "On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners." He professed not to understand Browning; and Swinburne, for other reasons, was a pet aversion. With the French people and with a certain school of French literature he had very imperfect sympathies. Zola formed a convenient nadir of comparison—a standard dweller in the bottomless pit. For the great qualities of his genius, as well as for Swinburne's, he had really no eyes. It is easy to discern the root of this severity. He had fixed his mind exclusively on a certain side of their defects, and, as he says in one of his letters, "A man should never write what his daughter may not read." A good rule, perhaps, if we remember that daughters are of various ages, and that in time they grow to reach years of discretion. Mrs. Browning shed tears for "la Dame aux Camélias," and Thackeray felt obliged, as an editor, to decline one of her sonnets in the interest of English *virgines puerique*. Yet one can hardly distrust Mrs. Browning's instincts in these matters. Hence we must occasionally make allowance for Lowell's chromatic aberration and for his personal equation. The Puritans did not exactly see life whole.

In his own fashion and generation, Lowell was a preacher, and kept up the traditions of his father's family; all his life long, as he himself confesses, he "could not get out of the pulpit." He keeps to the pulpit often in his poetry. It fitted his mystical tendency to profess his faith in the unanswerable formula, "I have felt"—which is, indeed, the summary of his creed nobly uttered in the closing verses of "The Cathedral." Though capable of admirable generalizations and comprehensive views in politics and social questions, he had no taste for metaphysics. The mystic in him was afraid of Darwinism and of modern Science, and so he pictured it as the black demon in the poem of "The Old Téméraire"—not imagining that the true theologian might meet the scientist halfway in the tunnel where they search and dig for a comprehensible cause of things. "I am a conservative (warranted to wash), and keep on the safe side—with God as against Evolution"—a declaration as whimsical in substance as in manner to all whose fascinating task it is to disentangle the web that is woven on the loom of Time, as well as to those who hope to find a Weaver. With this attitude it is worth while to contrast the lofty resignation of Matthew Arnold's psalm, "In utrumque paratus." So conservative was Lowell as an editor, Mr. Greenslet informs us, that he struck out of an article of Thoreau's the following sentence referring to a pine-tree: "It is as immortal as I am, and perchance will go to as high a heaven, there to tower above me still." This act of editorial despotism drove Thoreau to open rebellion, and to secession from the *Atlantic Monthly*.

Mr. Greenslet weighs accurately in his delicate balance the merits of Lowell's letters as literature. They bear comparison with the very best, though "we shall never find in them quite the edge, the unity and distinction of Gray's, of FitzGerald's, of Stevenson's." From another point of view, they are an unusually complete revelation of an engaging and many-sided personality—an unreserved confessional which discloses only virtues and charms. For Lowell had in his soul no dark chambers and skeletons to conceal. There are some people who outstay their welcome in this world, and whose persistent survival adds inscrutableness to the mysterious ways of Providence. There are others whom we should wish to live to the age of Methuselah so that their graces and virtues may hasten the millennium; and Lowell was one of these—one who could never have been in danger of degenerating to a Struldbrug. Ariel, with a spice of Puck, adjusted to the conscience and the backbone of a line of Puritan ancestors; a sincere democrat who was never more at home than in the society of grandees; a poet who had an abnormal passion for paying his debts; a contented bookworm and a successful statesman—these are some of the fascinating opposites which emerge and blend together in Lowell's character. He had the gifts that dazzle, the traits that allure and win, the powers that command respect and admiration. All these show in his correspondence, and account for his friendships. You find there the winking, beaded bubbles of his effervescent, irresponsible talk; you light on a letter which, for its whimsicality, might have been written by Lamb, or, again, upon a masculine declaration like this: "My opinions do not live from hand to mouth; and so long as I live, I shall be no writer of birthday odes to King Demos any more than I would to King Log; nor shall I think *our* cant any more sacred than any other." And so the reader, when he has finished the last letter, feels that he has parted from a friend; he renews that old sense of bewilderment at the wastefulness of Nature, which carelessly deflowers and unmakes a growth so rare and beautiful and strong. In this feeling, stranger though he be, he will have rendered precisely that tribute which Lowell always craved: "I would rather be loved than anything else in the world."

FURNITURE OF WINDSOR CASTLE.

The Furniture of Windsor Castle. By Guy Francis Laking, M.V.O., F.S.A., Keeper of the King's Armory. Published by Command of his Majesty King Edward VII. London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.; New York: Dutton. 1905. Pp. xx., 200; also 47 plates.

This book is a very handsome quarto, and there are certain indications that it forms part of a series, proposed or already begun. Thus, on the bastard title is printed in red "The Royal Collection," this being quite separate from the title of the book proper. In another place there is mention, as if it already existed, of a book on the armor of the royal collection. Again, it is announced in the introduction that the "splendid clocks, the interesting series of bronzes, the fine porcelain, and the decorative objects generally will be dealt with in forthcoming volumes." It would seem, then, that everything in the Windsor collection, except the paintings and statuary, is to be described in the series of books which will be of value for their plates at least, if for no other reason. It is quite well known that there is much magnificent porcelain at Windsor, and also well known that it is almost impossible to get sight of it—wholly impossible to study it with any thoroughness. The castle is essentially a residence. No pains have been taken to separate from the private apartments those halls and corridors which must of necessity contain the greater part of the splendid royal collections. You can get admission to the private dining-room of the sovereign almost as easily as you can to the great corridors lighted from the court, in which are arranged cabinets full of as fine portable objects of decorative design as there are in the world.

Now we have in the book under considera-

tion nearly fifty separate pieces of furniture of very great beauty, and presented in excellent photogravures of delicate tint. With this presentation the only not favorable comment that one can make is that nearly every piece is presented so exactly in front face that appearance of thickness, depth, solidity—what you will—has been taken from them. Once in a while, as in Plate 28, the sideboard is so open, with its supporting feet and braces so plainly visible in perspective, that we understand the piece to be thirty inches deep, more or less; but that plate is immediately followed by a great wardrobe of seventeenth-century French work—a splendid piece of the early style of Louis XIV., as to which there is no such certainty. It might be a mere pair of doors pinned against the wall but for the suggestion of a retreating member at the top. The purpose of this choice of a straight front view is undoubtedly to show in great perfection the minute detail of these pieces; and in the case of that very wardrobe, Plate 20, it is so that the author and publishers would proceed in the case of a book prepared for the daily use of the workshop. Books are made in great abundance and at great cost for the obvious and confessed purpose of furnishing designs which can be readily appropriated, and these designs are given as much "in elevation" as possible, in order that the dividers and the scale of the draughtsman may be applied directly to the piece, and the act of "conveying" the design may be simplified. But why the compiler of such a stately publication as this should have failed to see, in his magnificent armoires and commodes, objects having thickness or depth, as well as height and width, it is hard to understand. It is only fair to say, however, that the magnificent French book dealing with the furniture in the Louvre and published about 1901 gives the greater number of its splendid specimens in this same precise and non-descriptive way.

The plates and the text of the Windsor book are divided into groups. Thus, furniture, English and Continental, is kept apart from French furniture, and the first division is of this non-French work from 1640 to 1700, the second of English furniture of the eighteenth century; the third, of that of the nineteenth. One chapter with three plates is devoted to tapestried hangings, four chapters are devoted to French furniture of the times of Louis XIV., XV., XVI., the nineteenth century, and so on. There is, however, no very exact classification. Thus, Plate 13 (inserted curiously out of its numerical order) is devoted to the throne of the King of Kandy, which, although said to be partly Dutch in its conception, is yet wholly Oriental in the enrichment. It is covered with plates of pure gold and of silver-gilt, embossed and chiselled in the most elaborate fashion; the arms are wrought into the semblance of grotesque lions, and a prodigious frieze of amethyst "crystals" and white sapphires adorns the back, while other amethysts serve as eyes for the savage creatures, and "a large pear-shaped white sapphire" is set in the back just above the head of the occupant of the throne. These explanations come from the description at page 14, where also the dimensions are given, the place of manufacture, and the time and place of seizure by the British forces. And in the way of further study of Oriental art, though of a more grave and significant character, Plates 17, 18, and 21 present three very fine Japanese lacquer cabinets, which are mounted on very respectable and even appropriate stands of European make. These Oriental pieces have escaped the destructive repair which other parts of the collection have undergone, as the text confesses.

Plates 31 and 42 represent a class well known to those who have studied French furniture of the eighteenth century as made up in Europe from panels and planks adorned with Japanese lacquer-work of the richest sort, and much good taste is shown in such pieces—more than would have been thought possible—in an accommodation of the black and gold or dull green and gold landscape decoration of the surface to the less refined European adornment. Plate 39 is a beautiful sideboard of the style of Louis XVI., with lacquered panels of exquisite character. We note three other pieces of similar character, in which what are more probably Chinese panels are inserted in a European-made frame.

Of European design unmodified by strange influences the most important piece would seem to be the ebony cabinet in Plate 1, and the most historical piece King William the Third's writing-table shown in Plate 8; though one learns with regret that this table had almost gone to pieces from neglect and careless handling, and that a very complete overhauling was necessary not long ago. Its whole surface is inlaid with marquetry of a very delicate sort, and it bears a cipher of the combined initials of William III. and Mary II., though this is not seen in the plate. There are several pieces of silver furniture presented to William and Mary by the citizens of London or by special bodies of merchants and the like, and some of them are of great beauty. Then there are Boulle cabinets and sideboards, some of them announced as of English work made under the influence of André Charles Boulle and his associates; and one piece at least, a really splendid object, from the great master's workshop. A sideboard announced as English is itself a wonderfully delicate specimen of the famous inlay, introduced by Boulle, of tortoise shell and sheet metal. There are two or three pieces of Louis Sixteenth furniture, in addition to those with Japanese ornamentation, as explained above. A writing table, Plate 35, is a beautiful piece of marquetry; a cabinet, Plate 45, is one of the more pompous pieces of the revived classic style, and another cabinet, Plate 40, is as fine in detail, and contains magnificent plaques of painted porcelain from Sèvres. A similar piece is shown in Plate 41, and the long description of this includes the statement that it was purchased in 1827 for two hundred and ten pounds sterling. It would be a pleasure to see it at auction in Paris to-day; and it would be dangerous betting that it would reach a lower price than a hundred thousand francs; so incredibly great has been the increase in money value of fine pieces of this epoch.

Only three tapestries are given, but those three are fine, and finely reproduced in the photogravures. One is Flemish, one is English of the seventeenth century and of the Mortlake works, and the third is a really splendid piece of Gobelins, "Jason Sowing the Dragon's Teeth," one of a set of six.

In this way the book affords a museum of splendid furniture which, even without printed descriptions or other assistance to the student, would have its unquestioned value. The text exists, however, and, although it claims no great learning and displays no great acumen in the description of the pieces, it still gives information that is worth having. The author, not of necessity and because of his post a judge of works of decorative art, goes afield sometimes to gather information concerning the pieces in his charge, and is often right and instructive to his readers, though again he makes odd mistakes. On page 104 there is an effort made to explain Boulle work, that is, the famous inlay process, and the puzzling terms connected with it are explained without error and with sufficient fulness. Of the mistakes, it is hardly worth while treating at length. What is really noticeable in the text is the description of the extraordinary wastefulness that has marked the treatment of the precious contents of Windsor Castle from the first, almost down to the present day. This need surprise no one. What has been said of the very domestic character of the English royal residence accounts for much of it. The succeeding sovereigns or their lord chamberlains, or their mistresses of the robes, or their stewards, have felt free to refurnish in the newest style, and the older pieces have been stored away in cellars or garrets; or, in a thousand unrecorded cases, have been simply carried off. It is probably considered no theft to appropriate a disused and perhaps defaced piece of furniture found in a royal store-room. Accordingly, it appears that not one piece of furniture, of hangings, metal-work, or the like, which was mentioned in the inventory of 1547, in the reign of Edward VI., is now to be found. Again, we are told in the introduction, that "no true Jacobean furniture" exists in Windsor Castle, and it appears that by this is meant furniture of the reign of James I., as is technically correct. Moreover, though King George IV. (1820-1830) had careful inventories made of the contents of this and the other royal residences, the greatest difficulty is now experienced in identifying the various objects mentioned. It appears, too, that nearly £180,000 were spent, in 1830, for renovating these and other royal possessions; and that alterations of the most serious description were made in very many important pieces—"in almost every piece," says our author. It is some slight consolation to be told that "some of the finest of the later French examples escaped the general renovation."

It is evident, then, that Windsor Castle is not a museum of works of art in the strictest sense. There has been too much repairing and remaking, and the placing of marble slabs on pieces never intended to receive them, and the planing off of rude ancient paintings on the insides of doors to replace them with pasted paper of a crudely colored sort. It follows that if the contents of Windsor Castle were offered, *en bloc*, to the Victoria and Albert Museum, that would probably happen which would certainly happen if they came into non-English hands—they would be accepted with the proviso that minute examination and unlimited overhauling should be allowed. Your Jacobean cabinet would

need be looked at very closely before it was labelled or catalogued in accordance with the first description.

Heretics. By G. K. Chesterton. John Lane Co. 1905.

A heretic, if we go back to etymology, is really only a man who makes a choice. The word acquired its present coloring in the days when those who controlled the thoughts and beliefs of men admitted no power of choice. Not to conform was to be persecuted in this world, and damned in the next. But since nonconformity was in that remote past a sign of exceptional intelligence, however sinfully applied, the modern man who thoughtlessly rejects the fetters of doctrine calls himself a heretic with a silly, deprecating smile, as though the name had not long ago lost all its distinction. If you want to be really distinguished in these days you will be doctrinal. For that you will need all your courage and a rare strength. It has always been the peculiar distinction of Mr. Chesterton's position. He goes forth to war, not for any new-fangled counsel of perfection of freedom of will, but for the good old commonplaces, the fruit of the accumulated wisdom of the ages. Any one can champion a Superman, for his theory will never be put to the test of practice; or the advantages of cosmopolitanism, since we all remain firmly planted in our limited parochial interests and shall so remain. But it takes real eloquence to argue that we had better ignore Irish paganism and keep Christmas, thankful that we have a real live tradition no more vulgar in the fashion of its observance to-day than the Olympian Games were vulgar in the sixth and fifth centuries B. C.

The essential weakness of the present age, as Mr. Chesterton envisages it, is really nothing else than that which distressed Socrates in fifth-century Athens. Everywhere he sees, as Socrates and Plato saw, men trying to secure for themselves and their children something whose good they cannot define.

"The modern man says, 'Away with your old moral formulæ; I am for progress.' This, logically stated, means, 'Let us not settle what is good; but let us settle whether we are getting more of it.' He says, 'Neither in religion nor morality, my friend, lie the hopes of the race, but in education.' This, clearly expressed, means, 'We cannot decide what is good, but let us give it to our children.' . . . I see that the men who killed each other about the orthodoxy of the Homoousion were far more sensible than the people who are quarrelling about the Education Act. For the Christian dogmatists were trying to establish a reign of holiness, and trying to get defined first of all what was really holy. But our modern educationists are trying to bring about a religious liberty without attempting to settle what is religion or what is liberty. If the old priests forced a statement on mankind, at least they previously took some trouble to make it lucid. It has been left for the modern mobs of Anglicans and Nonconformists to persecute for a doctrine without even stating it. . . . I revert to the doctrinal methods of the thirteenth century, inspired by the general hope of getting something done."

Heterodoxy has always meant simply "the other man's doxy," and Mr. Chesterton's heretics are a few distinguished contemporaries who do not agree with him as to fundamentals. First, Mr. Kipling. His peculiar self-deception, says Mr. Chesterton, lies in thinking that he is writing for the glory of militarism, when what he really admires is discipline, the sort of organization that is quite as admirable in a department store as in the War Office or a camp. Mr. Kipling, then, if he really knew himself, would see that it would be more logical to stick to the praise of the engine-room or works of irrigation than to exhaust his vocabulary in glorifying the truest possible sign of the decadence of his nation, its militarism, its dependence on armies and the most modern make of gun instead of on the courage of every individual citizen. Another weakness is his cosmopolitanism. He "thinks of England as a place." He knows it "as an intelligent English gentleman knows Venice." But he has not "the patience to become part of anything. . . . And under all this vast illusion of the cosmopolitan planet, with its empires and its Reuter's Agency, the real life of man goes on concerned with this tree or that temple, totally uncomprehended, totally untouched."

But it is Mr. Shaw who is the most perfect type of a self-deluded heretic; an unusual type in that he is thoroughly consistent. In fact, we know what Mr. Shaw will be saying thirty years hence much better than we know what any Cabinet Minister will be saying thirty years hence. His strong point is his readiness to "apply the Shaw test rapidly and rigorously to everything that happens in heaven or earth." His weakness is that he fails to see things as they are because he is blinded by the light of an impossible ideal, the Superman. He has never seen things as they are, because "this secret ideal has withered all the things of this world." "It is not seeing things as they are to imagine a demigod of infinite mental clarity, who may or may not appear in the latter days of the earth, and then to see all men as idiots." For it is the ordinary man, seen as he is, who is really the prodigy, "a wonderful and unnerving matter." Mr. Shaw, asking for a new kind of man, is like a nurse who has tried a rather bitter food for some years on a baby, and, on discovering that it is not suitable, does not throw away the food and demand a new food, but throws away the baby and asks for a new baby. There has been no better or more lucid criticism of Mr. Shaw than these few pages, in which the very man who, in his 'Quintessence of Ibsenism,' forbade men to have ideals, because they would blind them to the particular case, is shown to be unable to see men as they are because he is always comparing humanity with what is not human, a monster from Mars or the Wise Man of the Stoics or the Economic Man of the Fabians.

It is mainly Mr. Shaw's lack of humility that prevents his proper appreciation of man as he is. Mr. H. G. Wells, another heretic, is humble with "the clear personal simplicity of the old world of science." Like Mr. Chesterton, he has come to "the most dreadful conclusion that a literary man can come to—the conclusion that the ordinary view is the right one." His weakness is common to all who frame Utopias—an indifference to human psychology. In his ideal State he ignores the human soul as Plato ignored it in his 'Republic,' though Plato did not at any rate make the mistake of supposing that pure cosmopolitanism was possible for the race. In the case of Mr. Wells and his philosophy Mr. Chesterton again shows his own affinity to the Platonists in a long and careful refutation of Mr. Wells's assertion of a Heracleitean flux. Curious indeed that, after so many battles lost and won in the field of philosophic discussion, it should be possible for a Mr. Wells gravely to repeat the doctrine that All things are in a state of flux, and for a Mr. Chesterton to set himself soberly to prove that "it *cannot* be true that there is nothing abiding in what we know."

As a critic, not only of heretics but of various aspects and relations of life discussed in this volume, when he has finished off the heretics, Mr. Chesterton shows a definite advance in clearness and force. One fault is thrust on him by his peculiar championship of the doctrinal, an excessive use of those "paradoxes that sit by the springs of truth." One is driven to be startling as well as brave when one is asserting that two and two do not make five. He repeats himself with a fine carelessness, as though, having thought of a good illustration, one could not do better than go on using it; a practice for which there is much to be said in these days when every writer prides himself on a cheap variety of phrase and cannot venture to use so much as the same word twice in a sentence. No one can forecast Mr. Chesterton's future as a critic, and it would not surprise us if it should prove that the true vocation of all this abundant energy is something quite different from setting his contemporaries straight. Meanwhile he knows how to make men stop and look, not at some new and striking theory, like Mr. Shaw (that is easy enough), but at the more settled, more rigid views that are out of date, if perchance they may not, after all, be suited for yet another generation's wear. This is a restful thought at a time when we have been assured by one of the most brilliant of living writers that no truth, no moral generalization, should be allowed to live for more than twenty years. After that it is diseased, decayed, and should be discarded and replaced, which is "progress."

My Sixty Years on the Plains: Trapping, Trading, and Indian Fighting. By W. T. Hamilton. New York: Forest and Stream Publishing Co. 1905.

Indian fighting has always been so obvious and facile a field for the sensational newspaper romancer that one picks up anything new on the subject with a justifiable feeling of suspicion. In the narrative of "Bill Hamilton," however, we have a document of real significance. Born in the Cheviot Hills in 1823, the casting vote of his uncle, two years later, turned him with a company of twenty-five men toward America instead of India, to which twelve of the party had wished to go. The family finally settled in St. Louis, where the son received five years of schooling, but suffered seriously from chills and fever, so common a scourge along the river valleys of the Middle West in the early days. In his twentieth year a physician's advice started him over the plains with a party of independent hunters and trappers. The programme called for a year of this life, but the excitement of it fell in too harmoniously with young Hamilton's temperament ever to allow a return to the habits of a more settled civilization. As Indian

fighter, trapper, and trader his years have been spent, and at the advanced age of eighty-three he tells the reader that it is still his habit to spend a portion of each year trapping in the mountains, "thankful that he can still enjoy and appreciate the wonderful beauties of nature."

The alert reader, however, soon discovers that the fundamental motive does not lie in the enjoyment and appreciation of nature as these words are generally understood. Among those of his kind he would probably admit that to his own eyes an Indan's scalp was the fairest flower his hands had ever plucked; and it is as a psychological study of the attitude of the early trappers and traders toward the Indians that the book has its chief value. To Mr. Hamilton the Easterner, or Westerner either, who would halt at scalping a slain Indian or burning a heap of Indian bodies, as a warning to others unfortunately still living, is simply a weakling whose good opinion of his book or its author is not of sufficient importance to warrant concealment of the facts. And as he does not conceal, neither (apparently) does he exaggerate. The good Indian, in his creed, was the Indian whose valuation of his hunting grounds was not high enough to cause him to object to the presence of the paleface with his traps and guns, and who would raise no troublesome question, either of fact or of ethics, over the purchase of a ten-dollar skin for some trinket worth hardly as many cents. Of course, questions of freight and life insurance may fairly be considered to enter prominently into merchandise of this sort, but our author specifically asserts that over $7,000 worth of marten skins could be carried out of the wilderness on a single pack-horse, and as for danger to life the Indian certainly had the bad end of the bargain. In one chapter we have an amusing description (written in perfect gravity, however), of the versatile mendacity with which "Bill Williams," leader of Mr. Hamilton's party, deluded and defrauded another white trader. As he knew Williams to be "the soul of honor," he ventured to ask for an explanation. "Diplomacy," was the laconic reply. It was sufficient for Mr. Hamilton, and long years of observation have convinced him that honorable merchants in general follow the same tactics.

Mr. Hamilton has nothing but contempt for alleged Indian prowess. The free white trapper could outclass him at every point at which the two came into conflict, and the end of the struggle was predestined from the beginning. The impenetrability of such a mind to any idea of Indian rights as against a white man is complete and unalterable. The believer in such rights has taken himself out of the realm of reality, he would say, and is a negligible quantity; or, to convey the thought in more familiar language, he would call him a d——d fool. From this type of man the Indian of the Western plains and mountains largely formed his idea of the white intruder, and that is why so many names of Indian tribes marked upon the atlases of fifty years ago no longer represent anything more tangible than the mouldering flesh and bones which have gone into the fertilization of the fields of the Western farmer of to-day. We may readily admire Hamilton's energy and resourcefulness, and admit that the harm was done, perhaps irreparably, before he came upon the scene; but it would be a pretty serious indictment of civilization to hold that there was not at the outset a less bloody possibility—a possibility which would have put energy and resourcefulness into the task of getting civilization into the Indian's heart and brain, rather that that of getting the scalp from his head.

James Macpherson. By J. S. Smart. London: David Nutt. 1905.

Voluminous as the literature of Ossianic controversy already is, Mr. Smart has fully justified himself for adding one book more to it. His survey of the subject is in many respects the best we remember to have seen. In a sense, his work contains nothing new, and he does not make for it any claim of originality. The opinions he sets forth about the writings and the puzzling career of James Macpherson rest almost wholly on the investigations of other scholars, to whom full credit is given. But Mr. Smart has mastered the material so well and shown so good a sense of its significance that his book passes out of the class of mere second-hand compilations, and becomes an instructive essay in the literary history of the eighteenth century. It will serve good purpose, we may hope, in disseminating sound doctrine on the subject with which it deals. For although Celtic scholars are now in substantial agreement concerning the nature of Macpherson's Ossianic poems, there is still much misapprehension about them in the minds of others, and Mr. Smart's book will doubtless be read by many who would never consult the notes in J. F. Campbell's 'Leabhar na Feinne,' or find their way to the articles of Dr. Macbain, Professor Stern, and Mr. Alfred Nutt.

So long as Ossianic discussion turned largely on the character and motives of Macpherson and his various friends and sponsors, there was little hope of reaching any satisfactory agreement. Men were too likely to take sides according as they were by temperament adherents of Macpherson or of Dr. Johnson. Still more fruitless were the arguments about the nature of primitive epics and the long patriotic wrangle about the nationality of Ossian, whether he was a Scottish or an Irish Gael. The only secure results, as Mr. Smart shows, have been obtained by comparing Macpherson's productions with the native poetry in mediæval and modern Gaelic, of which a large quantity has become accessible in the last generation. The result of this comparison has been to convince scholars that Macpherson's Gaelic is modern and sometimes bad, and that the metrical form of his pieces is utterly unlike that of the genuine Ossianic poems. Incidental evidence makes it practically certain that his Gaelic version was translated from the English of which it purported to be the original. The English "Ossian," in turn, was only slightly dependent for style or substance on the native ballads, and was about as much the work of Macpherson as 'Paradise Lost' was the work of Milton.

Mr. Smart not only gives an admirable statement of the chief arguments which have led scholars to these conclusions, but he also discusses their wider bearings. It is obvious that, with the English Ossian thus disposed of, much that has been written about the Celtic genius has ceased to apply. Matthew Arnold's famous essay was not entirely unaffected by the false, or at least one-sided, conception of Celticism to which Macpherson gave rise, and the tradition has been maintained by a series of Anglo-Celtic writers. Mr. Smart comments very sensibly on this tendency, and argues for a truer and more complete characterization of Celtic literature such as has been made easier in recent times by the publication of great numbers of native monuments of every period. His critical observations appear to us to be generally sound. He is also right, in our opinion, in taking issue with some of the ethnological doctrine promulgated by Renan and Arnold in their essays on the Celts.

Chopin, As Revealed by Extracts from his Diary. By Count Tarnowski. Translated by Natalie Janotha. Scribners. 1906.

George Sand et sa fille: d'après leur Correspondance inédite. Par S. Rocheblave. Paris: Calmann-Lévy.

These two books, of very unequal merit, give us the opposite sides of the miserable quarrel that parted George Sand and Chopin shortly before the composer's death. It is not easy to mete out even justice to the great French novelist, nor does either of these books attain that end; her defender claims too much, her accuser is that and nothing more. After all, the strongest chord of her life was her marvellous power of work and unsparing artistic conscience; its ever pressing spur was the constant necessity of earning money. Who can forget De Goncourt's delightful, if unsympathetic, picture of the eminent authoress at Nohant, finishing a novel at 2:30 A. M., and, without a pause, taking up a fresh sheet to start a new one? That was her life, and in it De Musset, Chopin, even her children Maurice and Solange, were only incidents. That she tired of Chopin, that she got rid of him, that she quarrelled with him, is true; but that she acted as a monster does not in the least follow. In her letters to Solange her consciousness of innocence is transparent. After the return from Majorca, for seven years she was Chopin's nurse, and only his nurse. The post was arduous, for it is beyond question that the Polish composer was of the most fretful and trying temperament. And when the break finally came, it is clear from the letters now printed by M. Rocheblave that it was owing to Chopin's interfering in the matter of the marriage of Solange to the sculptor Clésinger. Chopin was never in the secret of the circumstances that made George Sand, with perfect justification, take up an attitude distinctly hostile to Clésinger; and she, determined to defend the sanctity of her literary laboratory at Nohant, decided to have done with his interference.

Count Tarnowski's book is extremely slight; such new matter of Chopin as it offers is scrappy and not satisfactorily presented; his own comments disclose no extensive knowledge of his subject. On the other hand, M. Rocheblave gives us a skilful piece of bookmaking. The editing is restrained, even to the verge of prudishness. Many of George Sand's letters here given for the first time are well worth

reading. One extract only can be indulged in, one in which she sums up, precisely and delightfully, her whole attitude towards her wayward Solange. She writes to her reprovingly in June, 1858:

"Mais le beau Pâris de Troie, aux cheveux fusés, passe, et te voilà partie pour le pays des flûtes, des rubans et des grelots, affichant des airs de don Juan femelle, et disant avec de grands éclats de rire: 'Mon Dieu, que j'étais bête, hier, d'être bonne et raisonnable!' Pourquoi tout cela? Je l'ai dit souvent: Je l'ai mise au monde, je l'ai nourrie, fouettée, adorée, gâtée, grondée, punie, pardonnée; et avec tout cela je ne la connais pas du tout, ne pouvant jamais deviner ni comprendre pourquoi elle fait ou veut faire telle ou telle chose qui pour moi n'a pas sa raison d'être."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American History in Literature. Compiled by Martha A. L. Lane and Mabel Hill. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Barnes-Grundy, Mabel. Hazel of Heatherland. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
California: The Writings of Eliza A. Otis: Poetry and Prose. Los Angeles: The Times-Mirror Co.
Deutsches Liederbuch für Amerikanische Studenten. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Eyre, Archibald. The Girl in Waiting. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
Gapon, Father George. The Story of My Life. Dutton. $3 net.
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Sedgwick, Anne Douglas. The Shadow of Life. Century Co. $1.50.
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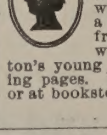

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 15, 1906.

The Week.

President Roosevelt's telegram of congratulation upon the extermination of the Moro band in Jolo is as inconsiderate as the Kaiser's famous dispatch to Krüger. From even the high Imperialistic point of view, the wiping out of the Moros was nothing more than a stern bit of disagreeable police duty, about which the least said the better. To refer to it as upholding "the honor of the American flag," is a painful misuse of language. We have yet to hear any one speak of that bloody work except with misgivings and disgust. It makes no patriotic appeal whatever. And even its description by Mr. Roosevelt as a "brilliant feat of arms" is open to grave question. From the army in Manila come bitter complaints that the sacrifice of our men was wholly unnecessary, while in military circles in Washington there is sharp criticism of Gen. Wood for flinging his troops needlessly against fortifications that might have been taken in a less spectacular and murderous fashion. And the stories that are beginning to come out about women and children being included in the indiscriminate slaughter have a strange relation, if they are authentic, to the "honor of the flag." We know what we thought and said of the Dutch soldiers in Java, sparing neither age nor sex. We know what a cry of horror would have gone up in this country if such a deed had been reported of Spanish troops in 1897.

Secretary Taft has long been thought to cherish the honorable ambition to become a member of the Supreme Court, and his nomination by the President to succeed Judge Brown would in itself be commendable. In point of age, as well as by attainments and services, Mr. Taft is well fitted for this important position on the bench. His vigor and industry give good promise of usefulness for many years. On the great questions which will probably come before the Supreme Court for adjudication, in one form or another, his opinions, so far as known, are conservative. He was a theoretical anti-Imperialist before becoming an Imperialist in action. As he has been opposing the President's extreme views—or, rather, extreme lack of views—on the railway-rate question, it may be inferred that he would stand firmly for the principle of judicial review of any legislative or administrative action tending to impair the rights of property. Considered merely as a judicial appointment, then, there is nothing to say against Secretary Taft's possible transfer to the Supreme Court.

A scruple, however, suggests itself when we look at the matter from the point of view of public business. Secretary Taft has two great pieces of work on his hands, Philippine Administration and Panama. The two might be described, respectively, as a big job and a big mess. We cannot imagine Mr. Taft throwing them over in weariness and disgust; yet that impression might go abroad. The effect upon the Filipinos especially might be unhappy. Mr. Taft has had their confidence in a marked degree. They have thought of him as their ardent and indomitable friend. Only the other day, after the Senate's cruel dashing of Filipino hopes, Secretary Taft announced that he had but just begun to fight for their tariff rights. Who would continue the battle for them now? The President is not disposed to risk anything by antagonizing the standpatters; would Mr. Taft's successor be so disposed? And would not his withdrawal from the scene signify a lurch still further downward into general indifference and neglect as respects our Philippine problem? These questions suggest the regrettable aspects of the case should Mr. Taft go to the Supreme Court. Politically, his definite taking himself out of the list of Presidential possibilities would have much significance. He has been a candidate—at least contingently. In Washington, it has for some time been believed that he was the most promising man in sight for the Republican nomination. If he should now end it all, the inference would be that the appeal of a judicial career had overborne the other temptation; or perhaps that to Mr. Taft, deeply pondering, a Republican nomination in 1908 had not seemed to guarantee election.

Congress has extended the time for the dissolution of the tribal governments of the Five Civilized Tribes in Indian Territory until the problems that are peculiar to that Territory are less serious. This "respite" from March 4, the date set some time ago for the extinction of tribal organization, is a significant recognition of the effectiveness of the modern Indian as a working statesman. In the opinion of Congress, the job of turning 80,000 Indians into United States citizens, and 31,000 square miles of tribal territory into a Western State, can best be carried on, for the present at any rate, by the surviving organizations, working in connection with the United States courts and the agents of the Interior Department. So, instead of turning the modern Red Jackets out to apostrophize the setting sun, Senator Clapp and the others have invited them to assist in impressing upon Congress the importance of such questions as continuing prohibition in the new State to be erected out of their lands, and to point out to the Republican leaders that, if they persist in joining Democratic Indian Territory to Republican Oklahoma, the two Senators to be chosen from the combined State will probably be lost to the party. One proof that the red man of the Indian Territory is not inclined to sit idly by while the white man and the Great Father at Washington dictate his fate, is that the Keetoowahs of the Cherokee Nation have organized themselves into a regularly incorporated society to continue certain specific work after the final dissolution of tribal government.

There is hardly a line of the Statehood bill as it comes from the Senate but accords with the views of an overwhelming majority in both houses of Congress and responds to a strong conviction in the country at large. The Senate has simply stricken out the matter in controversy, leaving that on which perfect agreement exists. Everyone concedes that Oklahoma and Indian Territory ought to be admitted to the Union as one State. If this is not done at the present session, it should at least be clearly understood that the reasons for non-action are purely political. The alleged "tactical" reasons for combining the two Statehood proposals in one prove on examination to be exceedingly vague; and even if they were cogent, the claim of justice for a Territory that has waited so long and made such great progress as Oklahoma would outweigh them. The House last year refused a bill which would have admitted Oklahoma-Indian Territory but kept one of the Southwestern Territories waiting, thereby making it certain that they would ultimately become two States. There was some reason in that. There is none worthy of being listened to for blocking legislation again this year. Pass the pending bill, and the two-State and three-State men can take up their old fight next year without the slightest prejudice. Nothing but "playing politics" can defeat so just a measure as this.

"Senator La Follette has broken the ice in the Senate," remarked a newspaper paragrapher, after the new member's maiden speech, "but skating is still good around his colleague's desk." The confirmation last week of two of

Spooner's appointments, which had been vigorously opposed on personal grounds by La Follette, is an event hard to reconcile with Senatorial courtesy as it exists. Of course, the wishes of individual Senators must occasionally be overridden, as in the case of Collector Crum at Charleston, for instance, but here we deal with two majority members in good standing. Again, the "particularly and personally obnoxious" argument was the ground for removal of an anti-Addicks postmaster in Delaware, a few years ago, and, strangely enough, was accepted by Henry C. Payne, for the benefit of whose former henchman Mr. La Follette's objections are now being swept aside. It must be acknowledged that the cases against the new Hongkong consul and the new Milwaukee postmaster were weak, because there was no proof of unfitness, and the factional difference was presented in its baldest light. Still, more frivolous objections than that have been deferred to in executive session. We fear that the "harmony" between Wisconsin's Senators is very like that of their respective followings at home, if we may gauge them from their newspaper organs. Both sides talk incessantly of burying the old differences, but whenever a specific issue arises they are at each other as bitterly as ever.

George E. Green of Binghamton, former State Senator, retains in undiminished vigor his "faith in human nature." From his point of view, this faith is abundantly justified. A few days ago George W. Beavers, former superintendent of salaries and allowances in the Post Office Department, pleaded guilty to conspiring with Green in order to defraud the Government in the purchase of time-recording clocks. Beavers was duly sentenced to the penitentiary. The virtuous Green, however, who had presumably conspired with Beavers, stood trial and secured acquittal. How much he owed to political influence no one can tell. Certainly, he is deeply indebted to many Binghamton friends who came on to Washington to testify that he is one of the nicest men that ever happened. Then, too, the members of the jury may have felt that Beavers was the man who really deserved punishment. Beavers was a systematic and energetic grafter; he took toll of everybody and everything that he could lay his prehensile fingers on. Green seems to have labored under the impression that if he wanted to do business with the Post-Office Department, he simply had to give Beavers a rake-off; on no other condition would Green's time-recording clocks have a chance. Green, like many other nice men who are beloved by their neighbors, accepted the conditions under which traffic with the Post-Office used to be conducted. In short, Beavers was greedy and Green was practical.

The managers of the life-insurance companies are clearly enough trying to "bluff" the Armstrong committee. They are demanding everything in the hope of getting a few small concessions. Nominally they object to nearly every one of the important recommendations. If the committee yielded, the insurance law would remain with scarcely a radical amendment—except possibly that against campaign contributions. The attitude of the big insurance companies was well summed up by President Paul Morton of the Equitable. With much suavity he assured the committee that its work has been "earnest" and "sincere," and that "in the main" he was "in entire accord" with the conclusions reached. He was for publicity and State supervision; he was against paying money to politicians, against lobbying, "rebating, and deception." Yet there were a few points on which he raised a doubt: to wit, the prohibition of investments in stocks and in syndicate participations, the limitation upon new business and the cost of procuring it, the standard forms of policies, the contingent reserve, and the requirement of an annual dividend. There is, we admit, a question as to what the exact cost of procuring new business should be, and as to the exact amount of the contingent reserve; but that the expense of getting business should be much reduced, and that there should be no more accumulation of huge surpluses, every intelligent policyholder will insist. The Armstrong bills will, we are confident, be amended in some details, but the broad principles will, we trust, remain unaltered. The Legislature will bear in mind a fact which some of the speakers on Friday were inclined to overlook: that the insurance business should be conducted for the benefit, not of Wall Street speculators, not of the officers of the companies and the "inside clique," not even of the industrious field agents, but simply and solely for the benefit of the often obscure and neglected policyholder.

The Prudential Insurance Company's successful endeavor to stave off legislative investigation serves to deepen the widespread conviction that New Jersey politics and finance would profit from an inquest like that conducted by Mr. Hughes. The pretext that affairs of the Prudential were thoroughly probed by the Armstrong committee is too flimsy to be regarded for an instant. The committee was able to consider only briefly and superficially the companies organized in other States. The argument that an investigation would make political capital for Senator Colby is even sillier. The relations between the Prudential, its allies among banks and trust companies, the Public Service Corporation, and machine politics in New Jersey have long been notorious. The election of President Dryden of the Prudential to the United States Senate was something more than a tribute to statesmanship. Accordingly, an investigation by the Legislature seems likely to make capital for any man who sincerely works for representative government in New Jersey. Mr. Colby and his friends represent this movement for honesty, and they are entitled to all the credit and all the popularity they can earn, either with or without an investigation of the Prudential. Back of all the sophistry of the Prudential's lawyers remains the impressive fact that if the Prudential and its various allies have nothing to conceal, they have nothing to fear from turning on the light.

What are the reciprocal obligations of a boss-made judge and his creator? In Cincinnati there seems to have been some little difference of opinion upon this question. A judge of the Circuit Court testified on Saturday before a legislative committee that George B. Cox, when Republican leader of Hamilton County, asked him to "find some way of reversing" the decision in an important case that was to come before him. A second judge was asked by the boss if he could not "see his way clear to reverse this case, because the Lane & Bodley Company is a large concern, and unless a compromise is effected they may be compelled to go into bankruptcy." A third judge was merely asked to "give it a full and fair consideration"; and this was what all three expressed themselves as willing to do. There is a sort of tradition that every judge ought to do substantially that in all cases coming before him. This testimony regarding the attempt to inject politics into the actual work of the courts in Cincinnati is by far the most sensational yet brought out by the Ohio investigating committee. Richard Croker told the Mazet Committee very frankly that he considered it an obligation of Tammany judges to appoint referees satisfactory to the organization, but the Cox principle seems to go a bit further.

The differences between the anthracite operators and the mine workers fall into two classes: those which relate to underlying principles of management and those which relate to details of administration, such as adjustment of grievances, hours of labor, wages, and weighing. When the operators say, "We stand unalterably for the open shop," they set up a principle which is consistent and impregnable. Assuming this attitude, they cannot agree to "collect from each employee such amounts as may be levied" by the union and turn this money over monthly "to the author-

ized committee at the colliery." That would put upon the operators the task of forcing the miner into the union and deducting his dues from his wages. If a miner does not care enough about the union to support it, the demand that the operator shall interfere is preposterous. Furthermore, the miners propose the reconstruction of the Board of Conciliation established by the Anthracite Strike Commission, with the establishment of a new machinery of committees to deal with grievances. They complain in general terms of "the delays that have occurred during the past three years in the adjustment of grievances. Indeed, there are some cases which have been in the hands of the board for two years without a final decision having been rendered; and in very few cases have final decisions been reached in less than three months' time." The operators reply with a table showing that in three years only 149 cases came before the Board of Conciliation; that there were only seven cases in which an award in favor of the men was not settled or disposed of within three months; and that in cases in which decisions favored the men, the awards were retroactive, and the men received full compensation from the date of the grievance. On this exhibition the presumption is that the present board has done its work satisfactorily.

By a unanimous vote, the members of the Society of American Artists not already Academicians have agreed to accept probationary membership in the National Academy, and thus virtually to sink the newer body in the older. The number of the Academy is to be increased from 100 to 150, so that 50 Academicians will be elected in the next few years, largely from the Society. In return for this self-abnegation, the Society secures the acceptance of its jury system, which provides for a large committee and insures against the selection and hanging of pictures becoming too much of a family compact. Art-lovers will be heartily glad that this long-mooted union has been successfully effected, and we trust that the enlarged and rejuvenated Academy will not long be kept asking for the larger exhibition quarters it urgently needs. The recent policy of the Academy has been extremely liberal as regards recognizing new talent, and the membership of the federated body will be too large to become perilously honorific or to involve an invidious measure of personal prerogative. On all grounds, it is well that an unnecessary duplication of exhibitions and laborious committee work has been done away with. The reorganized Academy may reasonably claim a more generous public support than was ever accorded to either of its constituent bodies.

Premier Rouvier's defeat in the Chamber of Deputies was doubly unfortunate, since he was Foreign Minister as well, and was apparently carrying his Moroccan policy to a successful conclusion. The adverse vote of March 7 signifies little except as a reminder of the capriciousness of French political action. M. Rouvier was beaten by a fortuitous and unnatural alliance of Clericals, Nationalists, and Socialists of various complexions. The reactionaries were outraged at his venturing to enforce the separation law by inventorying Church property; the extreme Socialists were scandalized because he had promised to do this work gradually and with proper regard for the sentiments of the various communities affected. M. Rouvier is reported to have said that he could have had a handsome majority by merely promising to harry the Church remorselessly. The readiness with which the Socialists have turned against an able Prime Minister at a critical moment in the foreign policy of the nation, illustrates their academic detachment and political irresponsibility. M. Rouvier will retain the gratitude of all lovers of peace for his patient and tactful conduct of the delicate negotiations leading up to the Algeciras conference.

President Fallières has seen to it that the change of Ministry should involve personnel rather than principles. Premier Sarrien represents much the same sort of radicalism as Rouvier; M. Léon Bourgeois will continue unbroken at the Foreign Office Rouvier's policy of conciliation; the new Premier, like the old, will depend upon a composite majority of Radicals and Socialists. In appointing M. Aristide Briand, the reporter of the Separation act, to the Ministry of Instruction, the new Government makes a considerable overture to the Extreme Left, and engages itself to a more actively anti-clerical policy. This it may safely do, for the general elections will be held in a month or so, and a new Chamber of Deputies may bring about a general realignment of groups. The present Government, though of a weighty and authoritative sort, may turn out to be only a stop-gap. Anti-clericalism and government by the Radical-Socialist *bloc* have run about the course of life generally allotted to political movements in France; and while the anti-clerical and socialistic policies that have prevailed since the resignation of Waldeck-Rousseau undoubtedly retain their popularity, their electoral support becomes increasingly perfunctory. Many observers of the situation feel that some kind of a return to moderate republicanism is impending, but such a movement, at present, would have to seek its chiefs largely among the *ralliés*, a group of Republican converts which, though containing many statesmen of ability, hardly has the confidence of the people.

In the disputes and anxieties about Germans and French, the Moroccans have been largely forgotten. We have all been so absorbed in watching the cooks quarrel about the sauce in which the fowl is to be cooked, that we have given scarce a thought to the fowl itself. M. Victor Bérard's book on 'L'Affaire Marocaine,' just published by Armand Colin, has some valuable chapters on conditions in Morocco. He shows how nature makes that country look more to Europe than to Africa. In government and religion, too, Morocco requires exceptional treatment on account of exceptional circumstances. And that chronic disorder within Morocco seriously affects the French in Algeria, the facts put beyond doubt. The common frontier is for miles only an imaginary line in the shifting desert sands. Raiders cross it with impunity. It cannot well be denied, therefore, that the urgency of suppressing the contraband trade in arms, and of policing the disturbed frontier and the seaports, is peculiarly felt by France. It would appear that the conference has decided upon a native gendarmerie, officered by French and Spanish subjects, and under a sort of international inspection. Moroccan finances are also to be under joint control. Perfect equality of trade for all nations is guaranteed. Thus the dreaded "Tunisification" of Morocco is guarded against. Whether the great commercial development which all have talked of will immediately follow in Morocco must remain doubtful to one who follows M. Bérard's history. The natives may have perverse views of their own on that subject.

The Austrian Government's franchise bill, now under discussion in the Reichsrath, marks the end of substantially a revolution. Without the shedding of a drop of blood, without the menace of a general strike or serious threats against the Government, the monarchy has decided that it is best to grant general, equal, and direct suffrage throughout Austria. This action is all the more extraordinary in view of the bitter race feeling, not only between the various parts of the Empire, but within the confines of Austria itself, where the battle for the survival of the German tongue goes on with increasing intensity and heat. Half a century ago such a victory for democratic principles would have been hailed as another great triumph for the doctrines of this country. To-day, however, it will excite but languid interest here. For if one of the oldest, most aristocratic and custom-bound monarchies of Europe is of its own accord giving way to liberalism, the American tendency is for the moment in the other direction.

THE LATEST MORO SLAUGHTER.

Congress should rigidly inquire into the latest "battle" in the Philippines. For five or six years past, at irregular intervals, we have had from the Moro islands similar cable accounts of fighting. In most cases the dispatches have been almost identical with those of Friday, affirming the wiping out of a dangerous band of renegades or ladrones at the cost of ten or fifteen American lives, with no prisoners taken, or wounded left on the field. There is usually the same assurance that the other Moros welcome the destruction of this particular set. This time there seems to be lacking the regular positive affirmation that peace is now at hand. But it remains to ask, what possible military excuse was there for charging up a mountain cone, 2,100 feet high, to attack an almost impregnable fort? Was there no possibility of forcing these Moros to surrender by starving them out?

We are moved to put these questions by recollections of the attack upon the Bayan fort in Mindanao in June, 1902, by troops of the Twenty-seventh Infantry. This stronghold contained only 80 or 90 Moros, every one of whom was killed when they were rushed by the Americans. Why they should have been attacked at all has mystified the army ever since, in view of the fact that there was little or no water found in the fort, and that it was surrounded on all sides. But Gen. Baldwin got his brigadier-generalcy, and a renown which never could have been his had the fort merely surrendered after a siege. Why mourn the officers and men who fell? Assuming that all the ugly echoes of this fight still reverberating are merely army gossip, it is interesting to note that the two junior officers who are now seeking brigadier-generalcies in Washington are basing their claims on alleged distinguished service against the Moros. Major H. L. Scott, for instance, asks this reward because he made, under Gen. Wood's direction, a similar battue of 300 Moros near Jolo, in November, 1903.

Now, Major Scott, Capt. Pershing, and others may have really earned promotion, but the country has no way of knowing it. In England, if news of such a fight, on the Afghan border, should reach London, the War Office would be open to Parliamentary cross-questioning and would be made to show that the conflict was unavoidable. There are cases where officers have been brought to book for such affairs. With us there is no check of any kind. Congressmen and Senators rarely go beyond the press, and the Philippine Committees concern themselves only with legislative matters. The Secretary of War controls the situation, and is, of course, kept hourly informed—when the cable is not broken—during one of these punitive expeditions. But he did not think it worth while even to refer in his last annual report to conditions among the Moros by so much as a single word. The President, however, declared in his last message that "the Jolo disturbance was put an end to by several sharp and short engagements, and now peace prevails." He must, therefore, be astonished to learn that the extinguished band had long been a nuisance by reason of their raids on friendly Moros, and that they had stirred up a "dangerous condition of affairs."

This much is certain: if there is any definite policy being pursued in regard to the Moros, the country is not aware of it. There seems to be merely an aimless drifting along, with occasional bloody successes and now and then the report of a victory of peace. But the fighting keeps up steadily, and no one can discover that we are making any progress with the Moros. What, for instance, does it avail us to have built a wagon-road into Lake Lanao country? Any trade we may be getting out of it cannot pay for the road-making, and no settler, whether Filipino or American, will venture into that country. Unless it is to favor an occasional trader, why should we invade the Moros at all? Our tenure of the islands is uncertain, and the task of civilizing, according to our standards, or gradually exterminating them, will be a matter of years. If any one doubts this, we refer him to an article in the *Atlantic Monthly* by Major Robert L. Bullard, Twenty-eighth Infantry, the only officer who seems to have made headway with the Mindanao Moros by peaceable means.

"There is," he says, "no possibility of living in quiet with unoccupied or uncowed Moros. I preferred the method of work." He finds that by this policy government and civilization have gained upon the Moros, owing to his readiness to utilize Moro instruments and his sticking to a strictly autocratic administration. Whether his work has survived his return to the United States, he does not, and perhaps cannot, state. But here again the need of a definite policy must be apparent. In Jolo there seems to have been a pretty consistent attempt to try coercion. With what results? Gen. Wood was certain two years ago that the trouble was all over. Major Bullard says that "a kill-and-burn policy can never succeed with the Moros, can do nothing more than destroy them"; and yet even he feels it necessary to punish rigorously if a hair of an American's head is touched, in order to enforce respect for the flag and the uniform. Surely, the time has come for a final decision as to what our policy shall be—whether it shall be kill and burn or the work-programme of Major Bullard; whether we shall content ourselves with holding the coast towns and preventing slave raids on the Filipinos, or whether we must settle down to a century's job of forcing our civilization upon the Moros. In the latter case, they are at least entitled to deal with permanent, highly trained colonial officials—if such there be—instead of being subject to the whims, fancies, theories, good or bad, and ambitions of army officers relieved after every two years.

THE NEW NATURALIZATION BILL.

The bill looking to a reform in the manner of naturalizing aliens was brought before the House on Saturday. For twenty years past nearly every annual message of the President has spoken of the frauds committed against our citizenship, and asked Congress for remedial laws. In 1890 the House made an effort to do something and secured a report from its Judiciary Committee, but did no more, and in the past fifteen years has not touched the subject. In the meantime the frauds have increased. Naturalizations conferred for voting purposes immediately before elections have become more scandalously numerous; manufactories of spurious certificates of naturalization have been discovered; it has been found that the sale of certificates to aliens is an increasing traffic; perjury before the courts in naturalization proceedings has become more brazen, and the courts themselves have become more careless. Only last year the Massachusetts Legislature passed a law authorizing the holding of night sessions by the courts for naturalization purposes. At such sessions there is, of course, a minimum of publicity, and the courts can connive at improper naturalizations with small danger of detection.

During the past four years the Department of Justice has waged effective warfare against those who have committed naturalization frauds in several of the large cities, and has sent several hundred malefactors to jail; and the State Department brought the attention of Congress to the matter last winter in a forcible report. The burden of Mr. Hay's complaint was that, in performing his duty of protecting naturalized Americans when they were abroad, he was often uncertain whether the person he was protecting had been naturalized lawfully or not; and he said it was a thankless task to intervene with a foreign government in behalf of a man, and to discover, after the intervention, that he had obtained his American citizenship through fraud. Mr. Hay also showed that there was a deplorable lack of uniformity in the manner of conferring naturalization by the different courts throughout the country, notwithstanding the authority conferred upon Congress by the Constitution "to establish an uniform rule of naturalization."

The last Congress adjourned without taking action, and the President creat-

ed a Commission to study the whole question. The members were Gaillard Hunt, chief of the Passport Bureau for the State Department, Milton D. Purdy, Assistant Attorney-General for the Department of Justice, and Richard K. Campbell, law officer of the Bureau of Immigration for the Department of Commerce and Labor. When Congress met this winter, the President laid before it an exhaustive report and definite recommendations. The Commission had not gathered any additional data on the subject of frauds practised under the present laws, assuming, apparently, that the frauds were of such common knowledge that no one needed to be further enlightened concerning them; but, considering the statutes from various aspects, the Commission indicated what additions and amendments were necessary to prevent the evils which have flourished unchecked. These recommendations have in the main been incorporated in the bill now before the House.

Probably the most important feature is that which provides that the Bureau of Immigration shall be enlarged into the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, and shall have supervision of naturalization matters. There is no Federal supervision now, and Congress has been more diligent in seeking ways to extend its powers into fields where its jurisdiction is doubtful than in perfecting the laws on subjects in which its authority is undisputed. Up to the present time sporadic prosecutions in a few places have been the sum of Federal activity, and there has been no way by which the Federal Government could protect itself in advance against the commission of the frauds. The bill now pending provides that every application for naturalization shall be reported to the authorities at Washington in ample time to permit the Government to contest the granting of the naturalization.

We notice, however, that the House bill retains the requirement of the old law, that a declaration of intention to become a citizen shall be made two years before naturalization can be conferred, whereas the Commission recommended that the declaration of intention be abolished as useless in preventing fraudulent naturalization, and as mischievous in that it confers certain rights of citizenship upon aliens. It is a fact that in nine States—Arkansas, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Texas, Oregon, and Wisconsin—an alien who has made the declaration of intention can vote; but it is also true that all of those States which formerly gave this privilege and which have of recent years made changes in their Constitutions, have stricken this provision out. Undoubtedly, the tendency is to restrict suffrage to citizens, and it is probable that the States which now permit foreigners to vote will amend their Constitutions in this particular as soon as they have the opportunity to do so. The Committee's bill, however, limits the life of a declaration of intention to five years, and its prolonged improper use would therefore be impossible. As there is undoubtedly a strong sentiment in favor of requiring an alien to secure naturalization step by step, the retention of the declaration of intention does not appear to be unwise. The other features of the bill are commendable, and it is noticed, as a refreshing innovation, that instead of entailing additional expenditure upon the Government, it will bring revenue into the Treasury by requiring that half the naturalization fees collected shall be a Government tax. The amount thus received will probably be twice as much as the new machinery of supervision will cost.

A UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF ART.

For several years past Columbia University has had the intention of organizing a school of fine and applied arts. This project, which had long been accepted in principle, has been successively advanced by an alliance with the National Academy and by the reorganization of the school of architecture. It now gains a skeleton organization, through the alignment of the existing art resources of the University under Prof. James R. Wheeler as acting dean. This well-known classical archæologist is no novice in the work of organization. He has for years represented the American School at Athens and other archæological enterprises abroad, and has been editor of the *American Journal of Archæology*. Combining in a rare degree exact scholarship with executive ability and a wide acquaintance, he is emphatically the man for the place.

While one feels that the new school starts under excellent auspices, it can do no good and might do harm to represent this beginning as other than it is. It is, as we have noted, essentially a realignment of existing, not an immediate access of new, resources. For example, the appointment to the staff of the president of the National Academy and of the director and assistant director of the Metropolitan Museum, while it secures a most valuable advisory element, does little to provide for instruction of university grade in art history. Mr. Dielman's activities will naturally be devoted to the Academy Schools of Design, which are to become what we must regard as an extra-academic branch of the University; Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke and Dr. Edward Robinson will hardly find time to give regular university courses in their specialties. In other words, what the University gains by this forward step is rather good will and advice of considerable future value than any immediate increase in teaching force. It gives notice of its needs to its friends; it cannot as yet, except in the fields of architecture and of classical and Chinese archæology, make any serious appeal to university students of the history of art.

This makes it desirable that the new school of art should define its policy with all promptitude, pending the recruiting of its faculty. Many friends of the University fear a confusion of aims. For example, courses in the practice of sculpture, painting, engraving, and the like are excellent things, but they have no established place in a university curriculum. Columbia certainly does not mean to award the usual academic degrees for proficiency with brush or pencil. Similarly, the public lecturing on the arts which Columbia has maintained most successfully for years is an admirable work in itself. One may rejoice that this means of popular recreation and education receives the dignity of university sanction without for a moment imagining that it has anything to do with the study of art in a university. Assuming, then, that the practical schools of design will find their place in the academic order and that public lecturing will continue as a most laudable work of supererogation, one might well ask, What of the remainder? What is the scope of a university department of art?

It is, in brief, a school in which the history and theory of the arts are taught by specialists with a view to training up original investigators of the æsthetic and historical problems of the arts. In other words, it is quite as definitely an institution for training specialists as is a bacteriological or an astrophysical laboratory. It has next to nothing to do with the memory of the hand that is so necessary in the practice of the arts, and everything to do with the memory of the eye. Its primary materials are the artistic remains of all time, *in situ* or preserved in museums; its every-day working resources are photographic or other exact reproductions of these originals. Accordingly, the most fruitful university study in these branches is conducted near or actually in museums. With characteristic practicality, the French Ministry of Fine Arts has localized the real study of art history in the École du Louvre, reserving for the École des Beaux-Arts and the Sorbonne those more or less popular lectureships which are profitable to artists and amateurs. From this point of view, the presence of two members of the Metropolitan Museum staff on the Columbia faculty of the fine arts is very significant. At the Museum will naturally be centralized all the material for the study of the history of art. Such collections are a necessary part of every curator's

working equipment. In the future the Museum will probably provide precisely the materials the Columbia student of art requires; naturally the relations between the two institutions will become increasingly intimate.

In order that such relations may be profitable, however, Columbia must first recruit a university staff in art history. At present Dean Wheeler and Professor Hirt, who is an authority on Chinese art, enjoy the distinction of being about the only members of the school who are specialists in quite the university sense. This preëminence they will undoubtedly be glad to share as fast as the generous friends of the University shall provide the means. The cause makes the strongest popular appeal; for, if the primary object of the school is to produce those bat-like creatures, connoisseurs and polemics in the history of art, there will be an overflow readily convertible into those desirable by-products, taste and culture. College courses will be none the less effective as art propaganda because the lecturer is something better than a repository of vague enthusiasms; public lecturing certainly will not languish under the requirement of accuracy; our "deëducated" college graduates will be less likely to buy spurious masterpieces, old and new, if they have been counselled by professors who know artistic reality from its abounding imitations. In fact, there are few fields of special research where the relation between minute investigation and popular education may be so direct and fruitful.

These considerations lend great interest to the actual programme which Dean Wheeler and his associates will, presumably, issue in due season. At present the Columbia art department, with its combination of pedagogical, practical, and theoretical courses, bears too great a resemblance to an omnibus of the roving type—a most useful and worthy vehicle, into which, however, no wise traveller steps or pays his fare until he has received adequate information as to directions and destination. Pending such a route-card, one has the comfortable assurance that the Columbia art 'bus is in good hands.

SALARIES FOR M.P.'S.

By the large majority of 238, the House of Commons adopted, on March 7, a resolution that members of Parliament should be paid salaries. The sum of $1,500 yearly was specified as the allowance members ought to have towards "defraying the heavy expenses inseparable from their office." Similar proposals have often been made in the press and in Parliament, but no such emphatic record of opinion has before been had. It is one of the results of the great electoral upheaval which displaced so many Tory gentlemen by labor representatives. And though the Premier put his veto upon the project for the present, it seems clear that the movement will soon gather force sufficient to compel the Government to give way. We may expect, therefore, in time to see M.P.'s drawing their pay like Deputies and Congressmen.

Argue as one will that this is only an inevitable development of English democracy, it comes as a sort of disagreeable surprise. In England, we may be sure, it will be a shock to many of the best people of the country. They will see in it the glory of Parliament departing. The venerable theory has been that the Commons are simply the gentlemen of England, turning aside for a few months in the year from their ordinary pursuits and amusements to transact the nation's business. The honorable and dignified aspect of this service lay in the fact that it was both voluntary and unpaid. So sharp has been the feeling of incompatibility between a place in the Commons and a paid office that any member accepting an "office of profit" under the Crown has immediately to vacate his seat. He must then submit himself afresh to his constituents, who will say whether they wish him to go back as their representative and also as a servant of the Crown.

Then there has also been the idea, admittedly more beautiful in conception than in practice, that the House of Commons was the finest club in Europe. Englishmen have clung to this even while it was plainly vanishing. The 85 Irish Nationalists long since broke down the club convention. What sort of club courtesy could stand the strain of one-eighth of the membership rising at every meeting to jeer at the president and to denounce the board of governors as incompetent and knavish? It is the Irish, too, who have helped undermine the tradition that a member of Parliament must be a man of independent means, who would scorn the thought of a salary. Many of the Irish representatives are poor men, and their expenses have been paid—not, it is true, by the Government, but by various Home Rule organizations. By so much, this has cut into the old convention. And some Labor members, it is understood, have also accepted contributions to their support while at Westminster. So that the change has already begun. Fashion notes in the English press have remarked that the House of Commons is not nearly so well dressed as it used to be; and Tories who assert that the present House touches low-water-mark politically, point gloomily, in confirmation of their despondent view, to the unprecedented array of baggy trousers and shocking neckties.

Clothes do not make the legislator, but any indication, even an external one, of a falling off in the quality of representatives should arouse concern. What Englishmen have long contended is that the non-payment of members of the House kept out of it mere wind-bags and agitators, and thereby tended to make legislation more serious and informed. A salary, they will now say, will open the doors to empty orators and disturbers of the peace, who will be able to wheedle constituencies into returning them. Doubtless the Labor members could make a fair retort on the score of the assumed superiority of all "gentlemen" in the Commons. They could appropriate John Morley's terrible exposure of the historic blundering of the aristocracy on most of the great moral and political questions of the past hundred years. Yet every impartial man must admit that, if to make the members of Parliament salaried is to make them of coarser grain, and especially if it is to develop in England that class of legislators which is too numerous with us—those who go into public life for the money that can be made out of it—the change should be both deplored and resisted.

The great English safeguards against corruption in Parliament are, however, independent of the question of paying members. All money bills are within the control of the Government. We saw the effect of this promptly illustrated in Campbell-Bannerman's attitude last week. He refused to find the money to pay members. That is responsible government. It takes it out of the power of private members to log-roll wasteful or corrupt measures through. So long as this condition persists, the temptations to devise legislation for the pecuniary benefit of its promoters must be less in England than with us. And English politics has escaped that fountain of political corruption—the protective tariff. With no possibility of passing a customs law to put millions into the pockets of private citizens, there is no opening for that unholy system of bribery and corruption which passes with us under the name of protection. This is one of the strongest points made by English opponents of Chamberlain. Once give Parliament power to vote bounties and money-grants to special interests, Lord Rosebery argued forcibly, and its purity will be gone. Public men are by nature no better in England than in the United States, but the former country has not debauched them by throwing the great money prizes of the protective system into the hands of legislators. With that danger staved off, the English people may view with equanimity the plan to pay their members of Parliament.

TWO ELECTORAL OVERTHROWS.

In spite of Mr. Chamberlain's confident tone, the defeat of protection in Great Britain in 1906 was really far more decisive than was the overthrow

of free silver in this country ten years earlier. According to the London *Times*, the present ministerial party have in Great Britain a popular majority of more than 600,000 in a total vote of less than 5,300,000. The sound-money men in the United States in 1896 had just about the same majority as the free-traders now have in Great Britain, but the total vote polled in the United States was more than two and a half times as great as that cast over the sea. Moreover, if Mr. Bryan lost in the East, he gained west of the Missouri River. In that section of the country he carried by overwhelming majorities States which had never before given their electoral votes to any Democratic candidate for the Presidency. There was no such counter current discoverable anywhere at the recent British elections. Among the members of Parliament from England alone, the Unionists are in a minority of 211. In five counties, Kent, Sussex, Warwickshire, Shropshire, and Rutlandshire, they elected a majority of the delegation. In three others, Surrey, Hertfordshire, and Worcestershire, the representation in the present Parliament is equally divided between Unionists and Liberals. In each of the remaining 33 there is a Liberal majority, and in eleven of the 33 not a single Unionist was returned. Of the Scottish members, 10 are protectionists, 2 Unionist free-traders, 60 Liberals. Wales has not sent a single Unionist of any description to Parliament. Out of the 103 members for Ireland, only 18 are Unionists.

Mr. Chamberlain and other protectionists have pointed out that, while their party has returned a trifle less than one-fourth of the total members for Great Britain, it has polled 44 per cent. of the vote of that island. Ten years ago Mr. Bryan received 47 per cent. of the total vote, exclusive of that given to the Prohibition and Socialist candidates. He secured 39 per cent. of the electoral vote. The supporters of the late Ministry have elected but 24 per cent. of the British members of Parliament. That, relatively to votes polled, they won so much smaller a proportion of local victories than did the advocates of free silver in this country, is due to two causes. First, they polled 3 per cent. less of the popular vote; that is to say, the free-trade majority was, in proportion to the total vote polled, 6 per cent. greater than was the sound-money majority in this country in 1896. Such a difference in the relative size of the popular majority, equivalent as it would be in this country to an increase of 850,000 in plurality of one Presidential candidate over another, is always likely, under normal conditions, to make an enormous difference in the proportion of constituencies carried by the two parties to the contest.

Again, in all the South and the trans-Missouri West, Mr. Bryan was far stronger than Mr. McKinley. There is no considerable portion of Great Britain in which the same may be said for the protectionists. They carried relatively few seats because in relatively very few places were they in the majority. Their aggregate vote was large, because the conservative party in England standing for anything on any platform will always poll a great many votes. The Liberals were committed to free-trade. They were also committed to the repeal of the Education Act. They were hostile to the Licensing Act. They were pledged to a legislative reversal of the Taff Vale decision. Most of their prominent leaders had formerly been public advocates of home rule for Ireland and have never recanted their opinions. Many hundreds of thousands of voters in Great Britain dislike or distrust protection, but they dislike some one or all of these other things still more. To a greater extent than at any time before 1886, the Conservative party is socially the party of the upper classes. Disputes over the Education Act have made it even more than has been usual the party of the Church. The very provisions of its Licensing Act which are so unpopular in temperance circles, command for it the enthusiastic support of the liquor interest. In England the party of the squire, the parson, and the publican can always command many votes, no matter whether it be for protection or against it; but, standing for protection at the late election, there were comparatively few places in which it could command enough votes to win.

In Great Britain in 1900, 381 Unionists, 185 Liberals, and one Nationalist were chosen. Of the 185 seats then carried by the Liberals only four have this year returned Unionists, and in two of these the Unionists won merely because the free-trade votes were divided between Liberal and Labor candidates. On the other hand, of the 381 seats to which Unionists were returned in 1900, no fewer than 246 were lost to that party this year. The mere accidents of the election were, if anything, favorable to the Unionists, to whom the rivalries of Liberal and Labor candidates gave nine seats which they would not otherwise have won. Nine more of them were returned by the Universities and the City of London, practically all of whose voters had also voted elsewhere. Even in the matter of winning close seats they had unusual good fortune. Fourteen of their 157 members were elected by majorities below 100 each, while of the 430 Liberal and Labor seats only 15 were carried by majorities of less than 100.

In not a single county of England did the Unionists return more members in 1906 than they did in 1886, 1895, or 1900. In only one did they return more than they returned in 1892. It is true that Mr. Chamberlain showed that his hold upon Birmingham was still absolutely unshaken, but even in the Midlands as a whole the Unionists fared less well this year than they have done at any election since and including 1886. Even as compared with 1885, before Mr. Gladstone's home-rule policy had split the Liberal party, the Liberal gain in Great Britain was great and decided. In that year the Liberals carried 333 British seats. They (counting Labor members as Liberals) have this year won 427, a gain of 94. Only in Durham in the north and in Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Shropshire, and Herefordshire, in the Midlands, have the Unionists done better than the conservatives did 21 years ago. Nowhere except in the three Midland counties of Warwickshire, Worcestershire, and Shropshire have their gains been important. In 1885 those counties sent 7 Tories and 20 Liberals to Parliament. Now they are represented by 17 Unionists and 10 Liberals. Of this net Unionist gain of 10 seats, 8 are contributed by Birmingham and Aston Manor, and another is the seat for East Worcestershire, for which Mr. Austen Chamberlain sits. Indeed, wherever, as compared with 1885, the Unionists have made any marked gains, they can in most instances be traced to the influence of some local leader or magnate. Of the 333 seats for which in 1885 Liberals were returned, only 36 sent Unionists to the present Parliament, and of these 36 at least 9 are to be put down to the influence of the Chamberlains, and one, the Aylesbury division of Buckinghamshire, to that of the Rothschilds. Another like case was that of Victor Cavendish, who, elected for West Derbyshire in 1885 as a Liberal, has since sat for the same constituency as a Unionist.

Political prophecy is extra-hazardous, but it seems unlikely that the future history of protection in England will differ very greatly from that of free silver in this country. Mr. Bryan, after the election of 1896, was hailed as a peerless leader just as Mr. Chamberlain is now acclaimed. It is even possible, though not probable, that the Unionists in England will make the mistake made by the Democratic party in 1900, and go into another campaign as protectionists. Much more likely their policy will be to avail themselves of some of the divisions which are bound to manifest themselves in the large and heterogeneous minister[illegible] majority. If they do, they will seek to get the votes of some of the factions now making up that majority by taking up some new issue; and in order to win on this they will be forced to pledge themselves to let the present fiscal system of the United Kingdom alone.

JESSIE WHITE MARIO.

For forty years this name has been familiar, by its initials, to readers of the *Nation*, as that of this journal's Italian correspondent by way of eminency. Last week we published her animated account of the new Italian Ministry.

"The enclosed pages," ran her private note of February 15, "are the first that I have been able to write since I last sent a letter to the *Nation* [that is, since September, 1905]. I have been very ill, but the new hopes for Italy have wakened me a little. . . . Of course, my book on Stansfeld [the English Mazzinian Liberal] lies three-fourths finished on the shelf. This is to me a dire grief, as it tells of the pioneers who rendered possible the Liberal triumph of to-day. John Burns in the English, and Pantano in the Italian, Ministry—really, I have a Pisgah view, at the age of seventy-five, of the Promised Land."

Two days before her letter appeared in the *Nation*, her funeral procession, as the *Evening Post's* London correspondent telegraphs, "passed the Casa Guidi in Florence, which was decorated in honor of the centenary of Elizabeth Barrett Browning." The association was just, as well as striking. In his chapter on "Italy's English Sympathizers," in his 'Portraits of the Sixties,' Justin McCarthy writes:

"Another portrait properly belongs to this group. It is that of Jessie White Mario, an Englishwoman, who married an Italian and devoted herself with enthusiasm to the advocacy of the Italian cause. She had a remarkable eloquence, and became a regular lecturer on behalf of the cause. At one time she used to draw large audiences in London and in many cities and towns of Great Britain. I have a distinct recollection of some lectures I heard her deliver, and I was greatly impressed by her power of expression and her admirable elocution. She had the gift of making the tones of her voice correspond in every word and note with the feelings she desired to express, and she threw a certain poetic charm into passages which, if spoken by another, might have seemed but commonplace declamation. I had only a slight and passing acquaintance with her, but she impressed me as I have seldom been impressed by any of the women lecturers—many, indeed, in number—to whom I have listened in this country and the United States. Her career was especially characteristic of the epoch I am now endeavoring to illustrate, and she is well worthy of any tribute which can be paid to her by the presentation of her portrait in this chapter."

Her Italian husband was Alberto Mario, a well descended native of Lendinara, whom Carducci has styled "the most naturally republican of the Italians, the most artistically Italian of the republicans, whose ideal fatherland was Athens without slaves, Venice without the Ten, Florence without priests." Born in 1825, he flung himself into the militant revolutionary struggle of 1848, beginning with the Venetian campaign. Thereafter, in behalf of Italian unity, he suffered the usual experiences of persecution, imprisonment, proscription, and exile. With Mazzini's appearance in Genoa in May, 1857, to direct the disastrous expedition against Sapri, coincided Miss White's as correspondent of the London *Daily News*—and more, as active promoter of the expedition together with Mario, to whom she was or directly became engaged, so that, both having been imprisoned, they exchanged fervent letters from their respective cells. Released, and repairing to England, they were married in Portsmouth in the autumn, and Mario resumed his journalistic propaganda. At James Stansfeld's and Peter Taylor's in London they mingled with the exiled Italians—Mazzini, Saffi, Campanella—and their English supporters.

In the latter part of 1858, Signora Mario having been invited to lecture publicly in the United States on and for Italy, her husband accompanied her to this country, and himself addressed the Italian colony in New York in December, and in January, 1859. They journeyed no farther than Washington, and their natural acquaintance was with the anti-slavery circle. The outbreak of the Franco-Austrian hostilities recalled them before they could hear the first bell of our civil war, at Harper's Ferry; and they reached de-Austrianized Milan on July 25, only to be imprisoned afresh at Lagoscuro as "Austrian spies," and so conducted from jail to jail to the Swiss border, where, at Lugano, from September, 1859, to May, 1860, they had (as Carducci says) "the consolation of daily domestic intercourse with Carlo Cattaneo, the honor of Mazzini's confidences and of Cavour's persecution." This persecution drove Mario in hiding from the Canton of Ticino, and forfeited his chance to be one of Garibaldi's *Mille* in the expedition against Sicily; but he and his wife joined the second expedition, and she distinguished herself as the heroine of the ambulance corps.

We can follow Alberto Mario's career no further. He had a mind of truly Italian versatility, as his published writings show: 'Dante and the Dante Codices,' 'Our Contemporary Philosophers,' 'The Stones of New Florence,' 'Lorenzo Canozio and the Renaissance,' 'The Man in Foscolo,' 'The Red Shirt,' 'Carlo Cattaneo.' He remained true to his republican convictions and refused to enter a monarchical Parliament. He died in 1883, and now his widow took up his pen, with a like versatility, treating of Garibaldi and his Times, of Mazzini's Life and Apostolate, of Agostino Bertani, of G. Nicotera. In her *Nation* letters, as our files will show, she followed closely the political development of the peninsula, interspersing these comments with accounts of Florentine Mosaics, or Venetian Glass, or the Italian Industrial Exposition, or the opening of the St. Gothard Tunnel. Ever her thoughts were with the great idealist leaders of the Italian new birth, and she played the part of Old Mortality in editing their writings or memoirs. Among their successors her warmest attachment went out to Carducci. In her final note to us last month she wrote: "I have Mazzinian and Carduccian treasures in store for you if the spring will be kind to my heart and brain." Her two-volume Life of Bertani was issued in 1888. Last year (April 24), "after a six months' painful and tedious illness" and enforced abstention from pen and paper, her 'Life of Sir James Stansfeld, and Mazzini and the Friends of Italy in England,' though "almost finished," was "still on the shelf." A sharp relapse followed, but on May 30 she was "again to the fore." On July 12:

"I am better, but not well; have got through the heavy exams [at the Women's College in Florence] at last, and am now ordered off to the seaside at Via Reggio, where I go on the 16th. If I could hope to get my Stansfeld-Mazzini book ready by the time the Liberals 'come back again,' I would ask no more of fate. Surely, surely, we shall not return to 'protection' in old England??? If we do, then 'manhood suffrage' has proved a delusion and a snare."

To our deep regret we never met this admirable woman, an honor to her sex and to Britain's great name for ardent, world-wide philanthropy. She had a soul sensitive to all misery: our readers will recall her exposition of the horrors of the subterranean life of Naples, of the sulphur mines of Sicily. She was responsive to every proletary movement for relief from oppression or distress, though opposed to violence in the justest cause. She was ever giving of her scanty income to the poor. Her mode of living was almost ascetic. A young American couple who brought her a letter of introduction from us, were so impressed at once by her nobility and by the bareness of her surroundings that they said to each other, at the foot of the stairs on leaving, Shall we not sell our letter of credit, give her the proceeds, and return by the next steamer? On this being reported to generous hearts on this side of the water, and a sum being forwarded to her on a pretext of previous acquaintance, she accepted it—for the orphans of the Garibaldian connection.

TURNER REDISCOVERED.

LONDON, February, 1906.

The opening of a Turner Room in the Tate Gallery has made something like a sensation in London. The doors of that remote gallery are as besieged as the doors of a popular theatre, and the broughams and motors lining the roadway in front show that the sensation is sanctioned by fashion. But if the hangers-on of the correct world are flocking there because it is the correct thing to do, all the art world is going still more eagerly because there can be no question of the interest of this new Turner collection, now so suddenly displayed to the public after having been cheerfully forgotten for years.

I do not know which is the more extraordinary: that the authorities should at last admit their mistake in having overlooked these pictures, or that they should have been guilty of such carelessness in the beginning. Perhaps it is easier to make the admission during the present interregnum at the National Gallery, left for some months past without a director, when any action taken seems to be almost unofficial. I am not one of the people who think it a national crime that all the Turners owned by the nation should not have a place on the walls of one or another of the nation's galleries and museums. The generosity of Turner, it must be confessed, was just a trifle overpowering, for it will be remembered that his bequest to the country included over twenty thousand pictures and drawings, all told. To have hung every one of them, and to have kept them together as he desired, would have meant to put up a new building, or to banish the Old Masters to the cellars, where numbers of the Turners have for so long lain hidden. Tin boxes for a certain proportion of the watercolors does not strike me as an altogether criminal alternative. But it is when the boxes are looked into that there may come the realization of the want of judgment exercised

in selecting the examples to be shut up in them, and you cannot see the twenty-odd pictures now at the Tate Gallery without wondering upon what principle the finest among them were chosen to lie for years neglected in the cellars of the National Gallery, or in its offices and odd corners to which the public is not allowed to penetrate.

Two reasons have been given for the treatment they have received. One is that they were simply forgotten just as old rubbish might be forgotten in some long closed attic in one's own house; the other, that, according to the authorities, their slightness of execution and more or less wrecked condition rendered them unfit for exhibition. And one reason is no better than the other. If a case of mere forgetfulness, it is unpardonable that men appointed, and paid a large salary, to watch over the country's treasures should not have remembered the existence, and the presence on their premises, of the notable pictures of a distinguished painter. One asks, in consternation, what other fine and beautiful things may be thrust out of sight in the dust and dirt of the National cellars? And I am not sure that it might not be well to carry out in earnest a suggestion lately made in jest, and, once a year, to send the directors of the National, Tate, and Wallace collections on an official round, from the basement to the attic of their galleries, in search of lost, strayed, and forgotten masterpieces. On the other hand, it is incredible that the directors—all, I believe, artists—who have succeeded each other since the Turners were placed under their charge, should have had such a poor opinion of the merit and state of preservation of the paintings in question.

As for the pictures, they speak for themselves. They belong mostly to Turner's later period. I admit the loss would not be very serious if some were to return to the cellars. Several strike me, anyway, as sad proofs of the failing of the artist's powers; the greater number are slight and fragmentary sketches. But still, when a painter is as great as Turner (with all his faults) undeniably was, you may understand him the better sometimes for seeing how he failed. You come into closer sympathy with his methods. You realize the more clearly how he looked at things, how he set about expressing them—in a word, what he was driving at. It is true that the exhibition of studies and projects for pictures by little men who, half the time, have not the strength or knowledge to make anything of the sketch or to paint the projected picture, has been overdone of late years. But Turner was not a little man, and no one with the right feeling for art could object to these paintings, even to the least complete of them, on the score of slightness of treatment. And not only this. Curiously enough, they are in a great deal better condition than many that have been for long hanging in the Turner Room in Trafalgar Square. They are not melancholy wrecks, in which you have to imagine all the wonderful qualities Ruskin discovered in them and commanded the world to see and admire with him. The color is pure and fresh, the sun shines as it rises and sets—it has not been eclipsed by the passing of time—skies and mists are luminous. It may be that Turner's worst experiments with varnish, which these paintings seem to have escaped, were deadlier enemies to his work than the damp and squalor of his forlorn house in Queen Anne Street and the dust and darkness of the National cellars. However that may be, only the blind—or the directors of the National Gallery—could have found in the condition of the long-forgotten series an argument for their concealment.

What Turner was driving at in almost all of them, as a glance will convince you, was the expression of light. This was the problem that haunted him, that took possession of him as time went on. I have never thought he came as near its perfect solution in his later work as in a picture like the beautiful, solemn, serene "Mortlake," or others painted about the same period. No matter how devoutly and untiringly the painter studies this most difficult of all the effects in nature, when it comes to putting it down on canvas, he has necessarily to resort to convention. He cannot get rid of his materials; and there is really a formula, though of so different a kind, in the maddest dots and spots of the Pointillistes as in the restraint of Claude. The more Turner tried to emancipate himself from convention in his attempt to get nearer to nature, the less truthful seem the results he obtained. In almost every picture here, you see him facing the problem with renewed zest; almost every one you can fancy brought to the point where he felt the solution slipping away from him further than ever, and then put aside in despair (though other explanations may have been made of their unfinished state). There are canvases where he treats his subject—the sun shining through the mists on some tranquil lake, the sky aflame at sunset—as in his little water-colors. But what was possible to suggest on a few inches of paper, he could not bring to completion on a huge canvas with the same truth and force and loveliness.

None, however, is a more astonishing revelation of his ends and objects and methods than the "Interior at Petworth." I have found people roaring with laughter before it. I have heard artists raving over it as the most marvellous thing Turner ever did. For the artist catches a glimpse of the vision of light that opened before Turner; the layman sees only the chaos of crimson and scarlet and green that came of his effort to express this vision in paint—the vision of brilliant, transfiguring sunshine streaming through vast windows, into a large, spacious, sumptuously decorated room. Vague forms emerge here and there from the chaotic masses of color: a statue in a corner, a mirror or picture on the wall, a sofa against it. But these things, beautifully indicated as they are, had small value for Turner. The light drenched with color, or the color saturated with light, was all he had eyes for; and so long as there is a painter who wrestles with the same problems of light and color, so long will this "Interior at Petworth" and the series of seas and lakes and mountains be to him studies and experiments of immense interest and fascination, as they were to Turner. And the interest is probably all the greater because they remain in this experimental stage, for it is very doubtful if Turner could have carried them further.

Even the most beautiful of all, some comparatively small sketches of Yacht Racing on the Solent, you feel might have been ruined by another touch. Turner never painted anything more full of light and air and movement, nothing more graceful than the line and swing of the sails, nothing fresher than the wind-swept water. Here, apparently, he left off, not because of any failure to express what he wanted to, but because he had recorded his impression to his own satisfaction. It is curious to contrast these with the much larger, unfinished rendering of the "Thames at Waterloo Bridge," as chaotic a canvas as the "Petworth," with a huge white boat, more suggestive of the Hudson River in the old days than of the Thames, looming dimly through the fog and sending up into the heavy atmosphere a dense cloud of the most wonderfully painted smoke. The picture that comes nearest completion, or rather that is complete, is "The Evening Star," the sea, in the hour before night, under a sky from which the light has all but faded—a most delicately painted sky. There is such an endeavor to render the solemnity and peace of the hour, of the tender color and mysterious light, that I am not surprised to find the critics comparing it to a nocturne by Whistler.

Now it so happens that a nocturne by Whistler is at the present moment hanging in a neighboring room in the same gallery—"Old Battersea Bridge," recently presented to the nation, then hung abominably at the National Gallery, and now removed to the Tate, where it is treated with the consideration and respect it deserves. You leave the Turners, with their splendid, but obvious, struggles and strivings to conquer the secrets of light, and you turn to the quiet little Whistler, supreme in its mastery of these secrets, and with absolutely no trace of labor or of effort. If, in the Turner Room, your interest is in the experiments, in front of the Whistler it is in the perfect achievement of the master. But the presence on the walls of both the experiments and the achievement have given the Tate Gallery an importance it never had before, and no one who cares for art can now afford to come to London without making it a visit. N. N.

SIAM TO-DAY.

RANGOON, January 4, 1906.

Among the political and social questions which agitate the world to-day, there is none of more transcendent importance for the future of mankind than that of the capacity of the Asiatic and African races to work out their own salvation independent of foreign control. The subject has already given birth to much heated controversy, which, moreover, is probably only just beginning. We Americans have to face the matter in the acute domestic form of the negro problem in the South, and especially of the claim of the colored man to the suffrage. The question of the Philippines is fortunately a more external one, yet it is perhaps even more far-reaching in its effects on the principles which have been at the base of our whole theory of government. Great Britain has

had to encounter the demands of the new educated generation of her native subjects for a greater participation in the work of shaping the destinies of India, and this agitation looms large for the future. Even in South Africa there are the beginnings of a native movement. France will soon have to meet the same difficulties in Indo-China, Algeria, and elsewhere, while she views with concern the unsatisfactory conditions of her two old possessions, Martinique and Guadeloupe, where the blacks are dominant. In short, all the world-powers to-day are vitally interested in the ability of what we usually term the inferior races to maintain—with foreign advice if need be, but under self-government—the standard of law, order, and civilization requisite according to our modern ideas.

Such being the case, we turn eagerly for guidance to the study of what has been achieved of late years by those Asiatic and African States which have seriously attempted to put new wine into old bottles, and which have been allowed to try the experiment long enough to produce some tangible results. As might be expected, the testimony we get is conflicting, and usually it does not enable us to draw definite conclusions. There are too many elements to be considered. For instance, does the accident that the destinies of a people happened during a critical period to be shaped by a particularly efficient or inefficient despot prove anything as to their own political abilities? Modern Egypt was created by the Albanian adventurer, Mehemet Ali, and wrecked by his grandson, Ismail. Only with the revolt of Arabi do we have anything like a national movement, and that was chiefly a military one. What light do we get from this on the capacity of the Egyptians for self-government or the necessity of British occupation? Many of our other examples aid us but little more. The questions of China and of the Ottoman Empire are too vast, too confused, too complicated by disturbing influences, for us to be able as yet to draw many certain conclusions from them. In Madagascar a promising independent development was nipped in the bud by the French conquest. Korea, after an unsatisfactory but inconclusive experience, has been taken in hand by Japan. Persia is certainly not much of a success so far. Afghanistan and Morocco have hardly started on the road of Western progress. Abyssinia has for some fifteen centuries been a Christian country, though long almost cut off from intercourse with the rest of the Christian world. While this does not determine the racial possibilities of her population, nevertheless her present reawakening may almost be regarded as that of a laggard member of the sisterhood of European communities. The only Oriental non-Christian States which in our day have truly learned for themselves the lesson of European ideas and civilization are Japan and Siam.

At the present moment of their triumph, few critics would be found bold enough to deny that the Japanese have been brilliantly successful in taking over what they desired of Western civilization, in mastering the spirit as well as the letter, and in applying it to their own uses. Their success has, indeed, been so complete that it has not only given a rude shock to the complacent idea of the innate superiority of the white race; it has also inspired with vague alarms many people not otherwise unfriendly to the island empire, and it has, as all admit, introduced into world politics a new factor of the first magnitude. The transformation now going on in Siam has naturally attracted far less attention. It is a movement on a much smaller scale, with incomparably less direct influence on the world at large. Its lasting success, too, has yet to be proved, especially to those who are unacquainted with the country. None the less it is a phenomenon of much interest in itself, and, as another example of Europeanization from within, not from without, it deserves the attention of serious students. The object of this letter is not so much to attempt a sketch of what is being done in Siam to-day, as to call attention to the fact that much is being done.

Unlike Japan, Siam points to no one important date as a landmark in the story of her recent development. She has never systematically shut herself from intercourse with the outside world; therefore, she has needed no Commodore Perry to open her gates for her. Roughly speaking, we may say that her transformation began with the accession of the present king in 1866, though his father, Mongkut, was in many respects a man of liberal views. He even imported for the benefit of his children an English governess, who has written an entertaining account of her experiences at the court of Bangkok. When King Chulalongkorn came to the throne, he found himself at the head of a State, larger, it is true, than almost any European one, but with loosely defined boundaries, extending in theory well beyond the limits of actual Siamese occupation. In the outlying provinces, the authority of the central government was little more than nominal, and in the country as a whole the Siamese proper formed, as they still form, only a minority of the population, being outnumbered by the mass of Malays, Chinese, Cambodians, and tribesmen of various kinds. To-day, Siam finds herself considerably smaller than she was then, thanks to the aggressive policy of the French, which led to the unfortunate and badly-managed dispute of 1893, finally ended to her cost only a few months ago. Even in the territory left to her, she is threatened by the extraordinary Anglo-French Treaty of 1896. Without provocation, Siam was practically divided into three spheres of influence, of which only the central one was assured to her for the future as her own. The way thus seems to be left open for fresh aggression on the part of either of her powerful neighbors, without fear of hindrance from the other provided the aggression is not pushed beyond the prescribed limits. In compensation for this cool way of dealing with her, Siam can at least feel that the independence of the most important third of her territory is guaranteed. She can dispense with any but a small standing army—a large one would be purposeless; all her questions of boundary are definitely settled, and if she steers her course wisely, the influence of Great Britain and France in the spheres claimed by them may never become actual possession. It is an interesting fact in this connection that the nation which now has the largest number of vessels trading with Bangkok and is gaining ground fastest, is Germany.

Within the present borders the Siamese Government has quietly extended its jurisdiction, so the day of semi-independent chiefs in the provinces is about over. The writ of the King may not extend so far as of old, but it is much better obeyed. The Government itself has been pretty thoroughly reorganized on modern lines. To be sure, it may seem amusing to us that almost all the ministers of state are half-brothers of the sovereign, but it should be remembered that this is one of the few possible ways of utilizing any numerous royal family which otherwise tends to be cumbersome, if not worse. Here there is some field for choice, as King Chulalongkorn was one of a family of over eighty children. Accordingly, he has put many of his brothers into important posts where he has known how to utilize their talents, while he has kept them in a very wholesome dread of himself. All things considered, his ministers appear to compare not unfavorably with the average of their colleagues in other lands. Perhaps the ablest of them is Prince Damrongtse, Minister of the Interior and right-hand man of the King. He is exceptionally intelligent and well informed, has travelled much and met many people; he speaks English with perfect ease, and is a man of thoroughly progressive ideas. In the different branches of the administration a number of foreigners are employed, a preference being shown (for obvious reasons) for citizens of states from which there is nothing to be feared, such as Belgium and Denmark. For the last two years the most prominent stranger in the Siamese service has been the Hon. E. H. Strobel, who has been so successful that he has created for himself a unique position in the country. Over and above all stands the King, to whom his people owe a great deal. He is a true ruler of men, tirelessly energetic, seeing into everything, alert, broadminded, and possessed of common-sense. In 1897 he made an extended tour in Europe, and he has profited by what he saw. He knows how to make himself obeyed, and he knows how to take advice.

It is, of course, as impossible for a tourist to appreciate in a few days how much really has or has not been accomplished of late in this country as it would be to describe the results in a few lines. One can only mention a few facts obvious at the first glance or admitted to be beyond dispute. To begin with, Siam to-day is prosperous. This is shown by the increase of her revenues, of her railway receipts, and particularly of her export trade. Taxes are light. A first foreign loan has just been arranged on such favorable terms as to prove that the national credit stands high. There are already several hundred miles of railway, and the only reason why the system is not extended more rapidly is that the Government is unwilling to build on borrowed money or to hand over the work to outside (*i. e.*, foreign) capital. The telegraph and telephone have penetrated into out-of-the-way places. Public order, as far as one can learn, is excellently maintained, and there is reasonable security to life and property, except possibly in some of the remoter

districts. A code of law is being prepared which shall reconcile, as well as may be, modern scientific principles and existing national customs. Popular education is chiefly in the hands of the Buddhist clergy, and the knowledge of reading and writing is widespread, even among the lower classes; but in this there is nothing new. What is new is the introduction of Western methods, especially in higher education. There is happily no need for a large army or navy, but the soldiers one does see look pretty shipshape. Bangkok can boast of some interesting buildings (mostly temples), of shops with many kinds of European goods, an electric car service, besides two grades of public carriages, and some well-kept roads patronized by an automobile club, of which the King is an enthusiastic member. Everywhere soldiers, policemen, etc., are in Western dress, but the Siamese men of the upper class have generally adopted a good-looking mixed costume combining the European straw hat or sun hemlet, a white duck jacket, long stockings and low shoes, with the native panung, a strip of cloth, usually of some shade of blue, wound in such a way as to make baggy knickerbockers. Among the women there is still a certain amount of Oriental seclusion, but this appears to be breaking down, and on some occasions one may freely not only see, but meet, Siamese ladies of high rank.

All this makes a pretty creditable showing as the results achieved in little over a generation by a long-stationary Eastern country. The difficulties to overcome have been and still are great, not the least among them being the exterritoriality of resident foreigners, an incubus which the Japanese had such difficulty in getting rid of, and which is a much more serious evil here, where the privileged foreigners include thousands of Asiatics under English and more notably under French protection. Their privileged position continually blocks the paths of justice and improvement. Of course, in Siam, as elsewhere, all is not gold that glitters. There are deficiencies, inconsistencies, and crudities in abundance, but, when all is said and done, the progress made is remarkable. Next only to the Japanese, the Siamese may claim that they have presented the most successful instance in modern times of the independent rebirth of an Oriental people. Whatever conclusions we may draw from the fact, the example is certain to have influence in more than one part of the world.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

MR. REID MISREPORTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with great regret your paragraph, in the issue of March 8, on my utterances or supposed utterances before the Vermont University Alumni. I say with regret, not because I do not agree absolutely and unequivocally with the sentiments which you have expressed therein, but because those sentiments were called forth presumably by the grossly inaccurate statements which the press published in reporting my talk.

I was much disturbed at the reports, at the time, but took no notice of them because, in previously attempting to correct misstatements, I have usually found that matters were not bettered. The facts are that I did not, never have, and never shall pay out one copper cent in the endeavor to secure athletes for Harvard. Such mild ideas as I once had on this subject I have wholly outgrown, and practise here no solicitation nor tolerate such practices in any form whatever. The one thing above all others that I have tried to develop at Harvard is the spirit of fair play and honesty in our contests.

Hoping that this will correct an unfortunate and wholly erroneous impression of our Harvard standards, I beg to remain, very sincerely, W. T. REID, JR.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY FOOTBALL ASSOCIATION, CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 12, 1906.

AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since Esperanto is now discussed so much in this country, will you allow me to call the attention of the readers of the *Nation* to a movement in favor of an international language, but which is absolutely independent of any propaganda for Esperanto?

At the scientific congresses held at Paris in 1900, the serious drawback resulting from the different tongues used by the delegates was more strongly felt than ever before. Moreover, it was evident to all that the evil could only grow worse in time. In view of the increasing number of valuable scientific contributions in Italian, Spanish, Russian, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Dutch, etc., it seemed impossible to limit one's self, as before, to the three languages, English, French, and German; impossible to accept one or two of the above-named languages and leave the others; impossible to recognize them all. The only solution was to try and agree upon an international language, a language which could be used on such occasions as international meetings, and by means of which also written contributions could be put within reach of co-workers who are not familiar with an author's tongue—in fact, nowadays, it is in his daily work especially that the scholar is hampered by the question of language.

Several of the international congresses in Paris decided to appoint at once some of their members to study the question. The delegates, a few months later, organized themselves under the name, "The Delegation for the Adoption of an International Language." Their aim, as expressed in a published "Declaration," is to ascertain (1) whether scholars all over the world will consider with favor the adoption of an I. L.; (2) if so, whether they will not entrust specially qualified persons with the task of selecting the I. L. (The International Association of Academies is proposed.)

The Delegation suggests that none of the national idioms be chosen (art. ii. 3). But the Königliche Akademie der Wissenschaften of Erfurt has asked leave to sign the Declaration without adhering to this special clause, thus leaving the question open altogether. The Delegation has accepted this restriction.

The *Educational Review*, edited by President Butler of Columbia, will publish shortly the text of the Declaration, together with some information as to the interest manifested toward it by European scholars in the three or four last years. Some 200 societies have given their adhesion, and among the personal supporters of the idea are men like Berthelot, the chemist; Liard, Rector of the University of Paris; Sir William Ramsay, Hugo Schuchardt, the linguist. Individual signatures, it must be said, are accepted *only* from university or college professors, and from members of scientific associations of high standing. Between 700 and 800 have already signed. Americans alone have remained utterly indifferent so far. Is it not the duty, as well as the right, of our scholars to discuss the question and to manifest their opinions? A. SCHINZ.

BRYN MAWR, PENNSYLVANIA, March 9, 1906.

P. S.—If more information is desired about the Delegation before the article referred to above is printed in the *Educational Review*, it can be obtained from Prof. Louis Couturat, Collège de France, Paris. The text of the Declaration, with subscription blank attached to it, can be had by addressing the signer of this letter.

LOWELL AND MEREDITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation's* excellent review of Mr. Greenslet's 'Lowell,' a remark as to the books presented by Lowell to the Harvard Library suggests an added touch in the nature of the fatal *grain de beauté* that completes the picture. On the Harvard shelves may be seen, in the plainest of ugly brown-canvas bindings, a copy of George Meredith's Poems. The title-page discloses three interesting facts: firstly, that it was presented by Meredith to Lowell, as the autograph, "with the author's compliments and respects," attests; secondly, that it was published in 1883; thirdly, that in 1885, not more than two years later, it was presented by Lowell to the Harvard Library. The inferences, if painful, are obvious.

R. M. J.

March 5, 1906.

THE STONE-CUTTER AT WORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I call the attention of philologists to the following mortuary inscription taken from a tombstone in a country graveyard in Michigan, half way between Ann Arbor and the neighboring town of Saline. It is as yet inedited:

JOHN MANN
Died
April 11, 1843
Aged
67 y'rs, 11 M's.
& 1 D'y
A weight a feather a chief a rote
A hornest man
Is the noblest work of God.

PHILOLOGUS.

Notes.

At the request of Prof. Bernhard Seuffert of Graz, Austria, representing the Royal Prussian Academy of Berlin, all institutions or individuals having any manuscripts of Wieland or letters to him are hereby earnestly urged to give notice of the fact, and thus materially further the very elaborate edition of Wieland's complete works, translations, and letters now being prepared by the Academy. A similar appeal is also made in regard to material for the great edition of Goethe proceeding from the Goethe-Schiller-Archiv in Weimar. It may be added, on official authority, that this institution was in no wise affected by the pilferings of the antiquary Bach, of which reports appeared in the American papers some weeks ago. Any information as to the above matters may be sent to Leonard L. Mackall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, announce a special limited edition of Petrarch's 'Triumphs,' translated by Henry Boyd, and printed at the University Press from Humanistic type expressly made for this publication, together with six plates from ancient Florentine engravings. Other spring issues will be 'The Heart of the Railroad Problem,' by Prof. Frank Parsons; 'Centralization and the Law,' by Melville M. Bigelow, Dean of the Boston University Law School, and others; 'The Fight for Canada,' by Major William Wood; 'Thunder and Lightning,' by Camille Flammarion; and 'Practical Rowing, with Scull and Sweep,' by Arthur W. Stevens.

A Corpus of new Babylonian inscriptions which have been prepared for publication by the Orientalist Stephan Langdon, is soon to be published by the Paris house of Leroux. The first volume is already finished in manuscript, and contains the inscriptions of Kings Nabopolassar and Nebuchadnezzar. The editor has not confined himself to inscriptions which were found on Babylonian soil, but embraces also those which were unearthed elsewhere, *e. g.*, such as were carried by the Kings of Persia to Susa and were recently found there by French savants.

We have received from the Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants a sixty-page reprint of Gov. William Bradford's Letter-Book, from the Society's organ. The original MS. of this fragment has been lost, and recourse has been had to the Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society (vol. iii., 1794—a respectable antiquity itself).

There could be no more favorable moment for a reprint of Oscar Wilde's 'Intentions' (Brentano's) than now, when, through his 'De Profundis,' that pathetic voice from the grave, he has made his peace with the world. These four essays, in an attractive edition, do in fact represent Wilde's most permanent contribution to criticism. Fantastic his utterances often are, but they are always shrewd, penetrating, suggestive—if we may be allowed to use a word that has been overworked and ought to be pensioned off. The reader who once, perhaps, read 'Pen, Pencil, and Poison' with an appreciation of its writer's talent that was half reluctant because the callousness of the sentiments expressed repelled his sympathy, should read it again with a greater indulgence and a more generous discount. Wilde's poetry was poor and imitative, but he could, when he chose, write excellent prose—too florid now and then, as he himself was too florid, but rhythmical always without being metrical, as æsthetic prose too often is. In "The Critic as Artist" he is at his best, and for that essay, at any rate, one need demand no indulgence.

To their charming series of books illustrated in color, Messrs. A. & C. Black (Macmillan) have added 'The Homes of Tennyson,' described by A. Paterson and painted by Helen Allingham. Mrs. Allingham's talent for watercolors is well known, and the twenty full-page illustrations in this volume are, we need hardly say, exquisite in every detail. The text of Mr. Paterson merely serves to hold the pictures together, and throws no fresh light on the life and character of Tennyson. The poet's homes, Farringford in the Isle of Wight and the more stately Aldworth, which he built under the lee of the moor of Blackdown, as a hiding-place from the tourists of Farringford, are still maintained as seats of the Tennyson family, escaping, so far, the fate of becoming museums. Tennyson, long before Mr. Kipling, sang of the fascination of "Sussex by the Sea"—

> "Green Sussex, fading into blue
> With one grey glimpse of sea"

—but Farringford, which he bought with the proceeds of 'Maud,' is thickest with memories of his best years. There, on his favorite down, was erected by English and Americans the great stone cross which serves as a beacon to mariners who must encounter the dangers of the Needles. Mr. Paterson's share in this book, whose value is quite unaffected by his defects—sentimentality and exaggerated adoration of Tennyson—would call for no remark had he not loaded his pages with a construction that must give pain to the sensitive reader. This is the "hanging nominative," of which even the best writer may once in a great while be guilty—we met it the other day in the works of the late Canon Ainger, himself a purist of the first water; but with Mr. Paterson it has become a habit. "Passing from right to left on the ground floor at the extreme right is one of the dining-room windows" (p. 60), is a good instance of the absurdity that may result from this sort of error. Mrs. Allingham has prefaced each one of her illustrations, which are excellently reproduced, with a few words of explanation that she always contrives to make interesting.

In 'The Way of an Indian' (Fox, Duffield & Co.), Frederic Remington has told a very effective story of the tragic clash of the Indians of the Northwest with the resistless onward movement of the white man. The career of White Otter, a Cheyenne boy, is traced from his first taste of the life of the warrior, through successful exploits against Indian foes or straggling parties of trappers and traders, down to the evil days when his bat-skin "medicine" weakens against the more potent spells of the ever rising stream of "Yellow-eyes" pouring into the plains each spring and summer from the inexhaustible caves of the East, even as the buffaloes had been wont to pour up from the mysterious caves of the South. At last, overtaken in the mountain fastnesses to which his people had been driven in search of safety, the lodges destroyed by the flames, his young squaw dropping in the snow behind him at the touch of a deadly bullet, the spirit of his little boy filched away by the icy wind upon the bleak crags even as he held him tight in his arms, he sits down with the little frozen form across his knees and waits for the evil spirits to come from among the pine trees and take him, hoping that in the spirit-land he may find again the Cheyennes of his home and youth, walking and talking together at peace, in warm valleys. Fifteen of Mr. Remington's pictures illustrate the book, two of which are reproduced in color.

'Studies in Roman History,' by E. G. Hardy (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is a new edition of the author's well-known work on 'Christianity and the Roman Government,' supplemented by half a dozen other essays, two of which originally appeared in the *English Historical Review*, three in the *Journal of Philology*, and one as part of an introduction to an edition of Plutarch's 'Lives of Galba and Otho.' To readers who are already acquainted with Mr. Hardy's careful and capable work, the information conveyed in the preface, that loss of eyesight has closed to him all avenues of further research except such as he may follow by the aid of the eyes of others, will bring a feeling of the deepest regret and heartfelt sympathy. For this reason the studies here republished appear practically in their original form, although the author would have wished to subject them to a thorough revision. We do not see why the supplementary essays should have been numbered consecutively with the chapters of the work on 'Christianity and the Roman Government,' as the unity of that work is thus sacrificed to the eye with no apparent gain.

The February number of the *Library Journal* contains a paper of no little interest and suggestiveness concerning the operations of the Washington County Free Library, Hagerstown, Md., by the librarian, Mary L. Titcomb. The core of the matter consists in the methods of reaching the outlying districts, and prominent among these is the Book Wagon, of which an illustration is given. From Miss Titcomb's fourth annual report it appears that "fiction is much less in demand in the country than in the city," that "the demand for the 'best seller' is unknown, and the librarian finds that the books of greatest permanent value which the wagon takes out are almost never brought back at the end of the day's work." The community which thus reaches out to the light is Southern, but not typically so, having a large proportion of inhabitants of Pennsylvania Dutch or German descent; Dunkards and Mennonites being very numerous. Since the war, Hagerstown, by the springing up of manufactures, has become the third city in Maryland.

Mr. Charles F. Lummis's first annual report of the Los Angeles Public Library since he took direction of it, is as unconventional as was to be expected. His directors have not been dazed by his proposed innovations, but have cordially seconded them. He has adopted the system of inserting in the volumes themselves "the judicial estimate of experts"

derived from leading English and American reviews. He has instituted a department of Western History Material made up of clippings from local newspapers, "condensed, classified into books, and indexed." Works in early American history, especially of the Pacific Slope, have been doubled in the past year. 'A Dictionary of Western Place-Names' is to be prepared under the auspices of the Library. Every city architect and contractor is to be furnished with lists of the Library's collection of architectural photographs. Mr. Lummis renounces the Librarians' "catalog" and other deformations; and he will modify to his needs the Dewey system of classification already established.

The Deutsche Dichter-Gedächtnis-Stiftung of Hamburg-Grossborstel, an organization recently established for the purpose of supplying the smaller libraries of the country with the best literary works in larger numbers and in good bindings, reports that in the first year of its activity it distributed among 485 public but poorly equipped libraries 18,063 volumes. These libraries are found not only in all parts of the Empire, but also in the "German Dispersion" in Russia, South America, and elsewhere. Applications for the second year have already been received to the extent of more than thirty thousand volumes. The literary and moral quality of what is sent out is carefully controlled.

In several respects the statistics of the twenty-one German universities for the present winter semester are noteworthy. The total attendance is now 47,035, by a considerable margin the greatest in the history of these institutions. The relative increase, too, as compared with the enrolment of the preceding half year, is the largest ever known, the matriculated student body having grown from 39,719 to 42,390. The woman contingent has also reached its high-water mark (1,907), of whom only 138 are matriculated and consequently candidates for examination and degree. Hence 1,769 are "Hörerinnen," a respectable figure as compared with 2,876 "Hörer." The general lesson of the new statistics seems to be that the larger universities are becoming larger and the smaller smaller. It seems not impossible that in course of time Berlin will have that preëminence in the German educational world that Paris has in France. The foreign contingent is also the greatest ever reported, being 3,555, or 8.4 per cent., as compared with 7.8 per cent. in the preceding semester. In this element the Russians occupy the front rank with 1,326, while 309 are Americans, nearly all from the United States.

—To the forthcoming Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society Mr. Charles Francis Adams contributes a paper of no little curiosity and significance. It relates to his illustrious grandfather at the beginning of his career in the lower House of Congress, which was to overshadow his Presidential administration. The materials are J. Q. Adams's letters to his family, and the rough notes which he never found time to transcribe in his Diary, thus causing a regrettable lacuna (March 23-December 1, 1832). Andrew Stevenson of Virginia, Speaker of the House, between the compulsion of a decent respect for the ex-President and a Southern dread of him in the place where he eminently belonged (Foreign Affairs), ended by making him chairman of the Committee on Manufacturers, much to the veteran statesman's dismay, who had never so much as mentioned the tariff in any of his messages to Congress. His grit, however, was equal to the occasion, and he presently found himself committed to a reduction of duties contingent upon the proximate extinguishment of the national debt. This brought him into direct conflict with Henry Clay, and such was the hubbub within and without (it was the era of Nullification) that Adams foresaw an end of the Union in five years—in twenty at most. Nevertheless, the compromise bill introduced by his committee passed both House and Senate by large majorities, but was promptly declared null and void by South Carolina.

—The report, from Mr. Adams's pen, accompanying the bill stimulated Speaker Stevenson to break the force of its argument in behalf of internal improvements by publishing a private letter only two years old from ex-President Madison to the contrary. To this, Mr. Adams replied in a long letter to the *National Intelligencer*, which now forms a part of Mr. C. F. Adams's paper, and was eminently worthy to be brought to light. Meanwhile the old man eloquent had successfully resisted a move to censure him for refusing to vote on a resolution censuring another—the first of his brilliant triumphs in this line. The report, to return to it for a moment, was remarkable for meeting the current threats of dissolving the Union by asking, What would be the necessary consequence? and answering War, and suggesting, in the circumlocution of the time, "to those who deny the power of this confederated government to protect by the energy and resources of the whole nation a great and comprehensive but not universal interest [manufactures], that there is an interest [slavery] most deeply their own, protected by the Constitution and laws of the United States, and effectively protected by these alone." Let statesmen North and South consider "the condition in which that great interest would be found immediately after the separation should have been consummated." The letter to Stevenson is largely an acute discussion of the Constitutional authority "to provide for the common defence and general welfare," but it also most interestingly reviews the Louisiana purchase, which Mr. Adams approved under the above sanction, while opposing the bill enabling the President to take possession of and temporarily govern the newly acquired Territories. He believed a vote of the people of Louisiana necessary to effect annexation, together with an amendment to the Constitution. When he saw the other course condoned by the Louisianians and the American people, he regarded the Constitution as *de facto* amended, and the subsequent Florida purchase and annexation he even furthered. The protection of American industry had now one Constitutional argument the more. Congress had assumed, by loose construction, the "power of investing the President of the United States with all the despotic authority of the King of Spain," together with "the power of absolute legislation over a foreign nation, of holding in subjection a foreign people, taxing them without their consent, and fettering them into freedom"—how vivid a picture of what was repeated in the case of the Philippines! But Mr. Adams could not "allow that Mr. Jefferson, as President of the United States, but at the same time a citizen of a Southern slaveholding State," should adopt a broad and liberal construction for "one set of measures transcendently advantageous to the Southern and slaveholding interest, and then to retreat upon a narrow and niggardly construction of the same terms" to deny Congressional protection of Northern manufactures from foreign rivalry and competition.

—The Rev. Father Algué, S. J., Director of the Philippine Weather Bureau for many years, has just issued his report for January from the Central Manila Observatory. Although this month occurs in the dry season, so that little rain is expected, the unusual decrease in the rainfall this year is remarkable, placing the month among the lowest on record. For the first time since 1865, or as far back as the records of the Observatory go, Manila had no rain whatever. Samar and eastern Mindanao had a fairly good rainfall for January, as shown by the table of differences; also, southeastern Luzon and the Batanes Islands northward. The monsoon was much stronger than customary on the high seas and in the San Bernadino Strait; and the account of her experiences with winds and currents of the disabled steamer *Carlisle* makes interesting meteorological reading. In so dry a month generally the conditions were naturally not of the best for agriculture, and the drought was especially felt in the eastern portions of the islands, whose products require more water. Despite lack of rain, the mornings were very humid, and in Basilan plants were kept alive by the abundant dew. The scarcity of carabaos, however, is quite as much a menace to agriculture as drought, and a majority of towns sending reports to the Central Observatory note this lack. Injurious animals and insects seem to be few, except a moth (*Calogramma festiva*), whose larva works great destruction among all classes of liliaceous plants. Earthquakes of moderate intensity occurred in various regions on a number of days, and the Vicentini microseismograph of the Observatory recorded on the 22d important disturbances. On the 27th an earthquake of small force but long duration was felt in all the central provinces of Luzon, whose centre must have been in the western part of the island, near the Zambales range. Its characteristics furnish good confirmation of the two different types of seismic movements sometimes felt at Manila, and which seem to have some connection with volcanic centres around the active volcano Taal. Along the Zambales and Mariveles ranges a secondary centre seems to exist, one of the least dangerous for the capital.

—A successful preliminary expedition was undertaken last summer by Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch of Blue Hill Observatory, and M. L. Teisserenc de Bort, for exploring by kites the atmosphere over tropical oceans. Using the *Otaria* (a steamer equipped with an electric kite-reel) as a base, wind direction, drift of cloud, and other phenomena were studied, not only over the open sea, but above Teneriffe, at Madeira, and the

Cape Verde Islands, with particular reference to trade winds. The results point emphatically to the fact that winds blowing equatorward vary in direction between northeast and northwest. These last, generally above the northeast stratum, have a thickness from three to five thousand metres. The "anti-trades," so called, were found to be much higher, above the Cape Verde Islands being observed by a balloon at not less than 6.8 miles altitude. Their direction is southeast, south, and southwest; currents of great thickness but small density. High altitude observations at Havana and in the Antilles offer still further proof of the existence of these winds, which had been denied by Dr. Hergesell; and one of the important results of this expedition is to have confirmed the accepted view of trade winds and the long-suspected anti-trades.

—From Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia, we have a slender volume of essays, on 'Quakerism and Politics,' by President Isaac Sharpless, of Haverford College. One of these essays, dealing with the ills of Pennsylvania, appeared in the *Atlantic* four years ago, as a protest against an anonymous attribution of Pennsylvania's notorious latter-day corruption to the non-militant habit of mind engendered during the period of Quaker ascendency. Of course, Dr. Sharpless had no difficulty in refuting that charge, though, if the assailant had chosen to indict the Quakerism of his own time for failing to bear adequate testimony against existing evils, the answer would have been less obvious. The preface bears a note of pleasure that, in the recent uprising, the Friends have been represented far beyond their proportionate numbers; but doubtless he would have been happier had the name of no prominent family of Friends been identified with the side of the machine. We imagine that some changes might have been made in the book had it not gone to press before the Philadelphia revolt had taken shape and won some of its successes. Perhaps Dr. Sharpless is not quite so sure to-day that the political machine is simply the answer to the demand of the age for efficiency, and a creation against which it is idle to protest. Efficiency as an implement of "graft" and self-seeking it undoubtedly possesses; as an implement of the legitimate ends of Government, it is the greatest foe to efficiency ever encountered. In a chapter written in 1904, the author describes the condition of Pennsylvania politics as being such that one party "can elect almost any reasonably reputable man by presenting him to the public." To most observant outsiders, it would have seemed nearer the truth to say that the Republican machine at that date could elect any *un*reasonably *dis*reputable man. We shall not quarrel, however, with a book which in general gives wholesome and needful counsel to Pennsylvania Quakerism as to its political duties and responsibilities.

—Collections of Greek inscriptions until a quarter of a century ago were published in ponderous folios, with commentaries intended only for those who had been initiated in the innermost mysteries of Greek scholarship. They were not for the use of the ordinary student of the classics, and indeed thirty years ago probably not a score of copies of the old 'Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum' existed in this country. Of late years German, French, and Belgian scholars have published admirable collections of these inscriptions in convenient form, but either with no commentary at all or with rather technical notes. An excellent volume of Greek historical inscriptions, with English introductions, has reached a second edition, but seems to be intended for the use of scholars, or at least of those who have scholars as teachers. A recent volume, however, 'Attic Inscriptions' (the second volume of Roberts's 'Greek Epigraphy,' Macmillan), edited by E. S. Roberts, Master of Caius College, Cambridge, and Ernest A. Gardner, Professor at University College, London, gives more than four hundred inscriptions, dating from the sixth century B. C. to the fourth or fifth century of our era—Decrees of the Senate and People, of Foreign States, Tribes, Demes, etc., Imperial Ordinances, Documents pertaining to finance and to ritual, Dedications of statues, Inscriptions on the seats of the Theatre of Dionysus, Sepulchral inscriptions, etc. The commentary is concise and never trivial, but it gives all necessary information in regard to technical phrases and unusual words and constructions, as well as regards matters of history and antiquities. Every teacher of Greek ought to have some knowledge of these original documents. Even the classical teachers in high schools may find such a book more helpful and stimulating for their private study than anything but the works of Homer and Xenophon. That all teachers of ancient history should read these documents is earnestly to be desired.

THE LIFE OF LORD GRANVILLE.

The Life of Granville George Leveson-Gower, Second Earl Granville, K. G. By Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice. With Portraits. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

During more than forty years Lord Granville stood in the front rank of English public men, filling one after another of the chief offices of state, and exerting behind the scenes an influence which many holders of great offices never obtain. Connected by family ties with several of the great Whig houses—houses which determined the course of events in England far more in those days than they do now—he was peculiarly well placed for adjusting differences and arranging combinations. Once, in 1859, he was commissioned by Queen Victoria to form an administration, and might, but for the refusal of Lord Palmerston to be subordinated to Lord John Russell and the refusal of Lord John Russell to be subordinated to Lord Palmerston, have then become Prime Minister. The life of such a statesman well deserved to be written; and Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice is in many respects excellently qualified to write it. Lord Edmond belongs by birth to one of the Whig families to which we have referred. He has had a long experience of English political life. He is not new to literature, having produced a valuable life of his ancestor, Lord Shelburne, the contemporary of Charles James Fox. And he has the special advantage of having known Lord Granville thoroughly, for he served under the latter for three years as Under Secretary, when Lord Granville was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in Mr. Gladstone's second Administration.

The biographer has done his work well. One difficulty which confronts every one who undertakes a political biography, an obvious and insuperable difficulty, has indeed not been overcome. It is the difficulty of relating a statesman's part in public affairs without being led on to write the whole history of the time; it is also the difficulty of making the general course of events intelligible if one deals with them only when the subject of the biography is a conspicuous actor. But although Lord Edmond's narrative cannot in parts be easily followed without going to a general history for some account of events which he could not undertake to set forth—else the biography would have grown into a history—still, he has shown much judgment in concentrating attention upon the really important periods in Lord Granville's career, and in treating these fully enough to make their significance intelligible to persons not familiar with the details of English affairs from 1841 to 1890. He writes as one who "knows the ropes" of English parliamentary life, yet he does not dilate too fully upon those details of parliamentary conflicts or intrigues which are thought so supremely important at the moment, and become so dreary when a few years have passed. He comprehends, as an ex-Under Foreign Secretary ought to do, the politics of continental Europe, though he never goes out of his way to display his knowledge. In speaking of Lord Granville himself, he does not carry that appreciation which befits a biographer into fulsome praise. Indeed, we find few judgments passed on the conduct of his hero, and could have desired to see a somewhat fuller estimate of the strength and weakness of one who figured so largely in the eyes of his contemporaries, and belonged to a type which seems to be disappearing from English politics.

Born in 1815, the year of Waterloo, Granville George Leveson-Gower was elected to the House of Commons as member for Morpeth in 1837. He had every advantage that a youth entering political life could desire, both from his connection with several of the leading noble families and as the son of an able and popular ambassador on whom an earldom had lately been bestowed. Society in London and Paris opened its arms to him, and his manner no less than his talents made him a favorite in society. He had been only a few months in Parliament when he was appointed Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Lord Palmerston being then Foreign Minister. Not long afterwards he married a German lady, daughter of the last of the male line of the great house of Dalberg, and widow of Sir Richard Acton. She had one child, and that child became Lord Acton, whose fame as a man of learning may last as long as Lord Granville's fame as a politician. Those who know Lord Acton's writings will be interested by a letter (p. 358 of vol. i.) in which Lord Granville gives a glimpse of his stepson in early manhood.

After six years spent in the House of Commons, where he had proved to be a capable and popular member, Lord Leveson (as he then was) passed by his father's death to the House of Lords as Earl Granville. He had sat there only five years when Lord John Russell, then Prime Minis-

ter, got rid of Lord Palmerston and installed Lord Granville as Foreign Secretary. This was in 1851, Lord Granville being only thirty-six years of age; and from this time onwards he sat in every Liberal Cabinet, and continued to be regarded as a man available for any office which a peer can hold. In Lord Aberdeen's Administration of 1852 he was Lord President of the Council and afterwards Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; in Lord Palmerston's Administration of 1855, again Lord President. Later in his career he was again Foreign Secretary in Mr. Gladstone's first and second Administrations (1868 to 1874 and 1880 to 1885), and Colonial Secretary for two years in Mr. Gladstone's first and for six months in Mr. Gladstone's third and shortest (February to July, 1886). From 1855 till his death in 1891 he led the Liberal party in the House of Lords, except for the years 1865 to 1868, when Lord Russell, who had become Prime Minister at the end of 1865, filled that position. Thus he was always in the very centre, the midmost whirlpool, of English politics. Yet he was never, except when in 1859 he tried to form a ministry, himself a star of the first magnitude, because during the earlier part of his career he was overshadowed by Lord John Russell and Lord Palmerston, during the later part by Mr. Gladstone.

At one moment he was placed in a position of peculiar delicacy, which is worth mentioning, because the circumstances throw a ray of light into one of the dark chambers of the British Constitution. When Lord Palmerston formed an administration in 1859, the war between France and Austria was still going on, though her defeat at Solferino had disposed Austria to peace. The Queen found her views regarding Italian affairs at variance with those of Lord Palmerston, the Prime Minister, and Lord John, the Foreign Secretary. She distrusted the former, with whom she had had many passages of arms in former days, and she never liked the latter; but she both liked and trusted Lord Granville. Accordingly, she took the most unusual step of writing through the Prince Consort to Lord Granville, asking him to tell her what passed at the Cabinet. Lord Granville felt the extreme delicacy of the position, and decorously replied that it was difficult for him to comply with the Queen's request without the knowledge of the two ministers to whom constitutional usage would have required the Crown to express its wishes. However, he did relate, in profound confidence, what had taken place; the secret was kept, and no one seems to have ever heard of the incident till the letters were published in these volumes (vol. i., pp. 349-352).

When Mr. Gladstone succeeded Lord Russell as leader of the Liberal party, Lord Granville became his most uniformly trusted adviser. He had some of the qualities which the more famous and brilliant chief lacked. His judgment was less disturbed by feeling. He was perhaps a better judge of men's characters, and certainly more tactful in dealing with them. He was a stanch Liberal, but he excited less antagonism among opponents. Through Mr. Gladstone's two first Ministries (1868-1874 and 1880-1885) Lord Granville was as important a force in the Cabinet as he was conspicuous to the public from his adroit leadership in the House of Lords, where he found himself confronted by a large and constantly increasing Tory majority. When the Ministry of 1868 was formed, he had taken the Colonial Office, but on Lord Clarendon's death he was transferred to the Foreign Office (early in July, 1870) just before the breaking out of the great war between France and Germany. His conduct of the foreign relations of Britain was firm and tactful; and it was amid expressions of general confidence that he returned to the same post in Mr. Gladstone's Administration of 1880. But times had changed, and he had perhaps himself changed. He was older, and possibly less vigilant. He had a difficult Cabinet to deal with, in which there were frequent differences of opinion, constantly threatening resignations which he, as the peacemaker in ordinary, was called upon to avert. And he had a formidable opponent to reckon with in Bismarck, then at the height of his power, and spurred by the rising Colonial party in Germany into controversies with England. It was not chiefly Lord Granville's fault that, both in Egypt and in other parts of Africa, British foreign policy seemed more than once to be wavering, and once, at least, to have been palpably unsuccessful. But it was on him and on Mr. Gladstone, also almost entirely free from blame, that the discredit chiefly fell. Accordingly, it caused no surprise when, on the formation of another Liberal Administration in 1886, Mr. Gladstone allotted to Lord Granville the Colonial Office, giving the Foreign Office to a younger statesman. Lord Granville took the change with admirable temper, and remained in a no less cordial friendship than before with the oldest of his political friends. Soon afterwards his strength began to fail, and he died in 1891.

A great foreign minister he can hardly be called, because there was no single great stroke of policy attributable to him, nor did he ever mark out for the nation and for his successors any broad, strong line such as only men of profound reflection and comprehensive grasp of facts can contrive or execute. But he was adroit and tactful, specially successful where it was necessary to understand the characters and humor the foibles of individual men, and with a happy gift of saying disagreeable things in an agreeable way. It was this talent for dealing with men that made him so admirable a composer of differences between colleagues in a cabinet. Among the lessons which these two volumes enforce, there is one which, however obvious to students of the minuter details of political machinery, is apt to be forgotten by nine-tenths of those who, in reading the history of free countries like the United States and England, assume that where the will of the people is sovereign, and has full constitutional means provided to enable it to assert its authority, the characters of individuals and their personal relations become matters of small consequence. Here we see, all through Lord Granville's career, how much the march of events even in great matters—in the relations, for instance, of England, France, Germany, Austria, and Russia, in the adoption, the advocacy, the temporary failure of the policy of Home Rule for Ireland—was affected not merely by the idiosyncrasies of such men as Lord Palmerston, Lord Russell, and Mr. Gladstone himself, but by the way in which their mental peculiarities and ways of acting and speaking told upon each of the others. The same lesson might be drawn from American history in several critical epochs, such as that in which Jefferson, John Adams, and Alexander Hamilton were brought into contact with one another and with Washington.

Lord Granville was never what is called a powerful speaker. He once referred, in a characteristic phrase, to his own "slipshod oratory." He had neither the imagination nor the fire and passion needed for rising to the heights of real eloquence. But he was a dangerous antagonist in debate, for he had the art of finding out the weak points in his opponent's case; and his ready wit gave point to a retort. His mind, if not large and philosophical, was eminently reasonable and enlightened, as was proved by the educational policy which he followed when, as President of the Council, he had to hold the balance between the Church of England on the one side and the Nonconformists on the other. It was this vein of common sense, not going far beyond the average views of the average intelligent man, which won for him much of the confidence he inspired. His humor also contributed to his popularity. When Mr. Lowell lived in London as Minister from the United States, he and Lord Granville divided with one another the reputation of being the best after-dinner speaker that used the English tongue. There are many happy dicta, as well as many good stories, scattered through these volumes; but they would suffer by being detached from their context, so it is enough to say that American readers will find amusement as well instruction in this excellent biography.

LOWERY'S SPANISH SETTLEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Spanish Settlements in the United States. By Woodbury Lowery. Putnams. 1905.

We shall begin by pointing out one of the few inconsiderable mistakes on which we might dwell, before proceeding to speak freely of Mr. Lowery's work, which is excellent and of great intrinsic value: On page 15 (note 1), the author states: "A ladino was a slave who had served over one year." The term "ladino" is nearly synonymous with "latino," and is accepted as such by the compilers of the older Spanish dictionaries, for instance, Covarrubias Orozco (1673, fol. 82). While, in Spain, the word applied to any foreigner (whether Christian, Moor or heathen) who acquired the use of the Spanish language with considerable perfection, in Spanish America "ladino" was and is used to designate chiefly those Indians who speak Spanish with approximate fluency. The word stood and stands in no direct relation whatever to the *social position* of the individual. As soon as he spoke the language of Spain with sufficient ease, any one, whether European, negro, or Indian, freeman or slave (provided Spanish was not his *native tongue*), was regarded as "ladino." When Menéndez wrote to the King concerning the negroes in the city of Santo Domingo, "most of whom are ladinos"—he meant that they spoke a rather fair Spanish. That they were "natives of the land" does not prove that they were born in the *language* of Spain, as the element of their native

African idioms still prevailed among them. We will only observe further that the quality of the index is hardly in keeping with that of the text.

Mr. Lowery has taken up his task, not only in a most dignified manner, but also with a thoroughly practical sense and with full conscientiousness of his obligation to be impartial. Even where his always well-fortified conclusions are at variance with those of his predecessors, they are presented in an impersonal manner. There is no "I believe it to be so, and it is very probably so." Our author quietly gives positive data, leaving in doubt what he cannot prove in an irrefutable manner, and courteously tolerating every dissenting opinion. He is absolutely free from pedantry, as well as from imaginative rashness. Some of his predecessors (Parkman, for instance) foreshadowed all this, but in their time access was lacking to the sources of information, the number and variety of which Mr. Lowery now places before us. The same may be said in regard to their partisanship. Could they have known more, their works, at least the works of some of them, would have shown a different spirit, for most of them were honest, sincere, and painstaking men, imbued with a desire to do historical justice. This is manifestly the way in which Mr. Lowery looks at their productions.

Spanish achievements in the New World called forth the envy and jealousy of every other nation pretending to or wishing for marine and commercial standing, which was thought to be most easily obtainable by colonization. American possessions were the dream of Portugal, France, and (though not so openly acknowledged then) of England also. The turbulent state of Europe in the beginning of the sixteenth century gave at first a legitimate pretext for encroaching upon Spanish possessions in America by open warfare; but, after peaceful relations had been established with Spain, hostilities continued to be carried on, in spite of treaties, against her commerce and her colonies. It was no longer warfare, but piracy—murder and robbery on the high sea, sacking and devastation on shore; perpetrated by individuals ostensibly disavowed, but secretly abetted, by their respective governments, in spite of truce or peace. Therefore Spain had, almost from the time of Columbus on, no peace in regard to her Western possessions. She had by night and by day to be constantly on the defensive and armed watch, whether at war or not. During the period encompassed by Mr. Lowery's investigations, France was the Power that most annoyed Spain in the manner above described. Portugal was on the decline, and England just beginning to enter the lists. It is characteristic of the latter nation that when Philip II., through his Ambassador in England, informed Queen Elizabeth of the extermination of the French colony in Florida, the Queen "expressed much pleasure at Philip's success," while at the same time English vessels and squadrons were preying openly upon Spanish fleets and Spanish ports, sometimes resorting to unspeakable cruelties. France, we repeat, in closer touch with Spain than England, was *the* nation that, in spite of treaties and diplomatic representations, persisted in harassing Spanish commerce and settlements in the most unwarrantable manner. The chief promoter of this "policy" was the Admiral of France, the famous Coligny, who, in perfect accord with the dowager Queen Catherine, fostered every enterprise destined to damage Spain in time of peace. Mr. Lowery goes into most interesting details concerning the transactions between the two governments about the question of the Indies. If we review the diplomatic history of the period as presented in this work with an abundance of testimony, we arrive at the conclusion that the only monarch who behaved logically and with dignity in these matters was Philip the Second of Spain.

Spain forbore greatly. She protested without result; the piratical attempts against her legitimate commerce with the colonies she had founded, continued unbated. Since the governments of other nations would not heed protests, but persisted in giving covert assurance to those who destroyed her fleets, sacked her ports in America, threw into the sea the crews of captured Spanish vessels, and committed untold atrocities wherever and whenever it became possible, Spain had to resort to stringent measures for the protection of her people and interests. Retaliation was not mild, of course, but not worse than the deeds of those who provoked it. The discussion of these features is conducted by the author in the most impartial manner. He fixes the blame irrespective of creed or nationality, and always endeavors to palliate, in a legitimate degree, the faults he discoverers. The picture he is compelled to draw of the intrigues going on, especially from the side of France, is a sinister one.

The conception has prevailed since the sixteenth century that the main incentive to the hostilities which the naval Powers of Europe carried on against Spain in the sixteenth century was the defence of religious liberty. Mr. Lowery tests this by his description of the three successive attempts of the French to become masters of the Florida coast and territory. Had the real object been the establishment of a Protestant community (after the manner of New England), it is scarcely probable that Catherine de Médicis would have countenanced these efforts to the extent she did, concealing the movements as carefully as possible from the Spanish Government. Neither would Catholics have been permitted to join the expeditions in any number; still less would Catholic officers have been placed in command—as, for instance, De Gourgues, who, according to the testimony, was of a Catholic family and, in all probability, a Catholic himself. These expeditions had in view the seizure of territory to which Spain held the first claim, which it had never abandoned. By occupying Florida, the French became a constant menace to the Spanish West Indies and a danger to the Spanish treasure fleets. While it is true that Spain, discouraged by repeated failures, had resolved to discontinue her efforts to colonize Florida for the moment, the fact of her having taken possession repeatedly and explored the country far inland, at various times, gave at least as much of a claim to right of possession as in the case of islands on which the English flag had been once raised, then the islands forgotten until some other nation's ships discovered them anew, when England (if the island was worth holding) would assert a right of priority. Spain had spent untold sums for and in Florida, and many lives, long previous to any French attempt. The French settlements were, therefore, justly looked upon by Philip the Second as intrusive, while at the same time they were dangerous to Spanish intercourse with the American colonies.

At this stage the central figure of the tale appears upon the scene. Pedro Menéndez de Avilés has for several centuries passed in history as a pirate against pirates, a remorseless butcher prompted to cruelty by religious zeal. Far different is the picture of him by Mr. Lowery. Menéndez appears as a man of much importance, a faithful and enthusiastic servant of his King and of his country's interests. Like other men of his stripe in other but similar enterprises, he clung to his ideas with the utmost tenacity. These ideas were, of course, largely those of his King, and in his unflinching devotion to what he regarded as the cause of colonization of the Florida peninsula he was disinterested, as the sequel proved after his death. The author of the book represents him to have been, from undeniable testimony, a man of great courage, an experienced mariner, and a colonizer of practical merits. He was a Catholic, but the great flaw in his career, that of the massacre of French prisoners, had nothing to do with his personal creed. The alleged inscription placed above their corpses, which has found credit for more than three centuries, rests, according to Mr. Lowery, on such slender testimony that it becomes more than problematical, as well as the counter-label attributed to De Gourgues.

In the course of the history of colonization, Mr. Lowery naturally touches upon the question of the Catholic missions in Florida. Most of these, during the period he deals with, terminated in martyrdom. He pays a well-merited tribute of respect to the efforts of both Dominicans and Jesuits, dwelling with greater detail upon the labors of the latter. Their education fitted them better for work among the Indians than the former, who, not in vain, wore the title of "Order of Predicants." The Jesuits also had their weak points in their intercourse with the aborigines, which the author acknowledges very frankly. The last mission Mr. Lowery touches upon is the one to Virginia in 1570, and it ended in the murder of the Jesuits who attempted it. The effort of Avilés to avenge their death was but partially successful. What the author says of the Indians rests on sound ethnological understanding. He not only describes them from good sources, ancient as well as modern, but reduces the data obtained to a fair average. He has succeeded in penetrating the nature of the aborigines to a degree highly creditable to his capacity for just criticism.

The few maps are interesting, and the portrait of Avilés a welcome addition to reproductions of early portraiture. A voluminous appendix, exceedingly important for the many difficult historical and geographical problems treated, completes the documentary material contained in the numerous footnotes. They bear witness to the conscientious manner in which Mr. Lowery has undertaken and carried out his task.

WHITNEY'S ATHARVA-VEDA COMPLETED.

Atharva-Veda Samhita. Translated, with a critical and exegetical commentary, by William Dwight Whitney, Late Professor of Sanskrit in Yale University. Revised and brought nearer to completion and edited by Charles Rockwell Lanman. (Harvard Oriental Series, Vols. vii., viii.) Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University. 1905.

When Titian died, one of his pupils, as the story goes, finished a picture left incomplete by the master and added the legend: "Titian painted it, reverently his pupil has attempted to complete it, for the glory of God." The same reverence, and almost the same piety, attach to the attempt on the part of any pupil to carry to completion a masterpiece begun but not quite finished by the master. It is now more than a decade since Whitney's translation of one of the ancient Vedic Collections passed at his death into the hands of his former pupil, Professor Lanman, for completion and publication. It is a long time to wait for the appearance of a posthumous work. Especially is the delay fraught with danger in the case of a scientific publication, since, as in this case, in any one of the dozen years during which the manuscript remains in the editor's hands another scholar may bring out a volume that, seriously if not entirely, impairs the value of the buried treasure. That nothing of the sort has happened in the case of Whitney's translation is, one is tempted to say, an undeserved good fortune for the editor. But it was probably just this possible contingency, together with an intimate knowledge of what was doing in the little world of Sanskrit scholarship, which induced the pupil to complete, or try to complete, as he modestly puts it, the master's work on other lines than those which a more hasty and less diligent editor might have elected to pursue. Two courses were open to him: either to publish the translation at once, annotated as Whitney left it, without thorough revision, or to wait and elaborate, and in so doing to convert this tentative translation into a perpetual monument, by building under it a massive pedestal, making of the whole a permanent scientific edifice, the value of which no subsequent erection could cause to depreciate. The editor chose the latter course, and, as we think, chose wisely. The result is that in the two volumes now before us we have a lasting memorial. No translation can be definitive, but it can be made a necessary point of departure for future scholars; and to transform a partially complete work into one complete in all details, to bring it up to date in each particular, is to render it indispensable for all who afterwards labor in the same field.

In electing this method of completing and complementing the translation left by Whitney, Mr. Lanman has necessarily put much more of his own time and toil into the pious work than if he had chosen the easier course—more of himself in every way—so that, as the sacrifice was not without its compensating honor, he has well earned the right to his own place in the inscription upon this noble monument to Whitney, as one who has "revised and brought nearer to completion and edited" the work of the older scholar. So individual, indeed, is the impress of the editor, that Whitney himself would probably have disapproved of some of the features as well as some of the views introduced by the editor. On the other hand, the editor's views and additions are clearly demarcated from those of the translator by an ingenious application of L brackets, which constantly remind the reader that it is the editor who is responsible for what is contained within them. Thus no real harm is done by even a divergence of opinion, and the reader has the benefit of Mr. Lanman's own observations, not to speak of the large amount of matter actually added by him. Only in the preface of the editor and, in part, in his introduction there seems to be a certain redundancy of remarks which might better have been abated. Details in regard to pen-slips, errors of proofreading safely suppressed, even a protest against a German practice in the mechanical issue of books, seem to be, for such a work as this, somewhat otiose, though in general the editor adheres very closely to the business in hand. Strange to say, there is no suitable index. That Griffith's translation has a good index is surely no good reason for Whitney's not having a much better one. A complete topical index would have been a welcome addition, even at the cost of omitting some of the introductory matter. An interesting circumstance connected with the translation is that Roth, who was Whitney's teacher, made a selection of passages from his own (unpublished) German translation of this Veda, from which Whitney incorporated some exegetical matter into his commentary—a fact gracefully commemorated by the editor, who was a pupil both of Whitney and of Roth, in the verses (in Sanskrit and English) with which he closes his preface:

Teacher and teacher's teacher long had wrought
Upon these tomes of ancient Hindu lore,
Till Death did give to one whom both had taught
The task to finish when they were no more.

The Atharva-Veda Collection is a work containing little poetry and philosophy, much magic and bad verse. That it is nearly all in metrical form only brings into stronger relief the absence of poetry. Such philosophy as it contains is only ancillary to the art of the *mantra*-maker or Shaman, who, as in Babylon, Siberia, and elsewhere, has always been the real priest of the people. The Collection, therefore, is rich in curses, in antidotes against disease, in love-charms, in prayers for welfare, long life, and blessings, and whatever else appertains to a corrupted magic built upon older religious material. For there is no primitive magic in these so-called "Hymns," none of that magic from which religion in time differentiates itself. Atharvan magicians are not subduers of natural forces without divine assistance. They are all brought up in the odor of Brahmanic sanctity; they unite prayers with charms; they coerce, but they pray that the power may be effective. In short, as the linguistic comparison of this late Veda with the earlier Rig Veda clearly shows, the magic of the Atharvans is secondary; it is not a primitive voodoo magic, but a mixture of this with a fully developed religious sense. It is primitive only as all gross superstition is primitive, whatever be its time or place. That it contains very ancient elements is probable, but it can never be used as a general body of extremely early magical material. In the Atharva, as in the Rig, the gods are essential. The household priest, who is the Shaman of India, despite his boasts of power relies on the gods. A typical example may be seen in this charm used in a women's rite for obtaining a husband: "The creator (maker) sustains the earth, the sky, and the sun; *may the maker make for* (give to) this spinster a husband that is according to her wish." Or, in a charm for healing: "The berry and remedy, sufficient for life, *the gods prepared*." Again, against insanity: "May *all the gods* give thee again, that thou mayest be uncrazed."

But if the value of this Veda as a fund of primitive matter is easily overestimated, it is also easy unduly to depreciate what the superstition of the ages has conserved and handed down through devils and gods alike. It is therefore a collection to be used with caution, neither useless nor of extraordinary value. It is rather of unique literary value than religiously extraordinary. Probably most of its practices are already familiar to those versed in other superstitious lore; but it possesses, of course, the exceptional distinction of being the one black book of Hindu "bad magic," though as a collection it is more modern than the other religious works bearing the same general title. As literature, in the sense of fine composition, it has little or no value. Part only is popular; a large part is clearly hieratic. A discussion of these points by the editor would have proved a valuable addition to the present work. The few editorial paragraphs devoted to the Atharva from the point of view of other Vedic literature scarcely touch upon the most important question connected with the subject. It would, we think, have been eminently appropriate to a work marking an era in Vedic study had Mr. Lanman given his own opinion in regard to the place and value of the Atharva in the literary and religious life of India.

In presence of the immense amount of work accomplished in the preparation of these volumes, minute criticism, even had we space for it, would be out of place. An historical introduction and a suitable index are two non-negligible desiderata. Smaller matters are of no account compared with the important matter of publishing the translation of an extremely difficult text, made as true as possible, fortified, hymn by hymn, with an apparatus most painstakingly accurate, and prefaced by an exhaustive review of the condition of manuscripts and other critical matter—all in all, a model of what such a work should be.

The form of the two sightly octavos, the paper, print, and flexible binding, all make a fitting setting to a peculiarly interesting work—the last work of a renowned scholar, which now after many years has been thus ably edited by one who, standing in close relation with the author, seemed best prepared to carry to successful completion the master's unfinished labor. A life and bibliography, together with a fine medallion of Whitney, form part of the varied introductory matter. The cost of these volumes is quite nominal, and need deter no library, scarcely any student, from obtaining this crowning effort of Whitney's philological genius. We congratulate the learned edi-

tor upon reaching the end of his useful and arduous undertaking. It was a great task to assume; it was made harder by reason of the enlarged scope and conscientious particularity with which it was executed; but the task has been accomplished in a manner worthy of Whitney, and than that no higher meed of praise can be bestowed.

Old France in the New World: Quebec in the Seventeenth Century. By James Douglas, LL.D. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 1905.

Despite all that has been written on Quebec, Dr. Douglas manages to give us a fresh, unhackneyed and characteristic volume. From such a book (for example) as Sir Gilbert Parker's, it differs *toto cælo*. It is neither an abridgment of Parkman, nor the description by an antiquarian of buildings and fortifications. The elements which enter into it are a sound, first-hand knowledge of the chief sources, an intimate acquaintance with local topography, and a selective talent of unusual fineness. We have long wished to see the history of Quebec treated by one who should know how to bring out alike its connection with France, its place in the life of the whole colony, and its purely social aspects. Dr. Douglas has embodied all these things in his narrative and assigned to them their due proportion.

The battle of Marathon does not owe its importance to the number of combatants engaged. Neither does the interest which attaches to Quebec in the seventeenth century depend upon vastness of numbers, wealth, or intellectual preëminence. Mr. L. O. David, in his recent 'Laurier et son Temps,' styles Arthabaska (where the Premier of Canada passed several years of his life) an intellectual centre of the first order. Dr. Douglas, we imagine, would hardly prefer this claim on behalf of Quebec, at the period with which he deals. Indeed, he is careful in both his text and appendix to point out how meagre were the resources of the capital during its heroic age. In 1620, twelve years after the establishment of the colony, the population was 60; in 1663, it was 800; in 1698, the population of all New France amounted only to 15,355. As for such of the more pretentious buildings as the Church and the Jesuit College, it can only be said in the words of Charlevoix to the Duchesse de Lesdiguières that their beauty depended solely upon the contrast between them and the huts by which they were surrounded. The manor houses of the seigneurial régime in Canada bore little resemblance to the châteaux of Touraine, and the Quebec of Frontenac owed its chief dignity to a magnificent situation.

What really invests Quebec with historic charm is neither the beauty of its edifices nor its direct contribution to the higher culture of the New World. On the purely picturesque side, Dr. Douglas goes to the heart of the matter when he says that, through the establishment of a modified feudalism,

"an impressive antiquity was stamped on New France, and Quebec as the seat of government became an epitome of the Middle Ages, where the Governor as representative of the King, the Seigneur Dominant, held his court and received the homage of his seigneurs in person or by deputy, and where the priests ruled over the conduct and consciences of men as though Luther and Calvin had never resisted the authority of the Church in Europe. For more than another century [*i. e.*, after 1634], the Governor of Canada remained an anomaly on the American continent, and Quebec an anachronism; as picturesque in its religious, social, and official life as in its natural situation."

Matthew Arnold doubtless has something of this sort in mind when he made his invidious comparison between Quebec and Chicago; but we should be giving the reader an imperfect idea of Dr. Douglas's book if we let it be understood that the main motive is to be found in a fondness for romantic associations. His successive chapters are studies of special topics, each of which has an organic connection with the rest. Thus, one after another in coherent sequence, the main features of colonial life are described and discussed—the leading explorations, the question of Church and State, the commercial system, the rivalry of religious orders, the clash of French and English, the social stratification of the settlers. Throughout the whole book we have been impressed by the large amount of general information which Dr. Douglas brings into line with his account of Canadian transactions; contemporary movements in Europe, for example, being much more frequently drawn upon for analogies and suggestions than they are in most monographs on New France or New England.

Our last word of appreciation is claimed by the illustrations. These not only are drawn from authentic sources rather than from works of the modern fancy, but are both varied in scope and admirably selected. Those which illustrate topographical points by the aid of photographs and prints we have found especially interesting. The first and larger title of the volume seems to promise that the same field may yield us still further fruits of Dr. Douglas's leisure. Such an inference, we trust, will not prove incorrect. Meanwhile, the public demand has necessitated a second edition of the 'Quebec.'

Essays and Addresses on Economic Questions, with Introductory Notes. By the Right Honorable Viscount Goschen. London: Arnold; New York: Longmans. 1905.

In making accessible to all students the essays and public addresses here gathered under one cover, Lord Goschen has rendered a distinct service to economic study. Some of the papers, indeed, could be found readily enough by persons who had access to the files of the *Edinburgh Review*; but others, printed only in fugitive form, were difficult to procure, while all were worthy of preservation in convenient dress as part of every economist's working library. Moreover, the value of the original discussions is greatly enhanced by the introductory and supplementary notes, in which the distinguished author explains the circumstances under which each paper was written, or comments upon the subsequent march of events in the fields he had surveyed.

The first two papers, "Seven Per Cent." and "Two Per Cent.," deal with the striking conditions of the British money market in 1864 and 1867. In the former year an extraordinary mania for company promotion had tied up vast amounts of capital in speculative enterprises, many of them organized for the purpose of lending money to foreign borrowers. Under such demands the rate of interest had risen to an average level of 7 per cent. for the year, and the City began to clamor for relief. As usual, the speculators contended that the trouble lay in the lack of elasticity in the banking system established by the Act of 1844, and they clamored for "freedom of banking." We wish that Mr. Goschen's diagnosis of the financial situation in London in 1864 could be read by every New York banker of 1906 who has been shrieking for Congress to come to the aid of our speculators before it is too late. Mr. Goschen pointed out that the high rate of interest was the inevitable result of the unprecedented demand for capital in joint-stock enterprises, both at home and abroad, and that the situation could not be relieved safely by the issue of paper money. The issue of additional banknotes would but encourage speculation, and the old trouble would recur when, as must needs be the case, the issues had come to an end. To complaints of inelasticity in the circulating medium, he replied: "The circulation is not limited. It is at least as unlimited as the supply of gold in the world. And to say that trade must be brought to a standstill if fresh *notes* are not issued, is to confess that fresh supplies of gold can no longer be had. But if this is the case, it is the strongest reason for not issuing those notes, which profess to represent gold." Seven-per-cent. interest, although somewhat disagreeable, had been, in reality, the only available brake upon speculation. The panic of 1866 finally put an end to the building of card-houses, and a period of depression followed. In 1867, when the second paper was written, business enterprise had been paralyzed, and the accumulation of idle capital had reduced the rate of discount to 2 per cent. This furnished Mr. Goschen with both a text and a favorable opportunity to review instructively the financial operations of the previous year.

The third paper, an address on "Our Cash Reserves and Central Stock of Gold," was delivered two months after the Baring failure in 1890, and at a time when the author was Chancellor of the Exchequer. Looking beyond the immediate issues of the hour, Mr. Goschen argued that one of the main difficulties with the situation was that the effective banking reserves of England had been allowed to fall to a dangerously low level. He computed that, excluding the Bank of England, the reserves were, in proportion to liabilities, considerably smaller than they had been in 1879, and showed that some banks were accustomed to reckon "cash on call" as a part of their reserves. Such a situation he declared to be unsatisfactory, inasmuch as it led the City to "rely simply upon the aid which the Bank of England can give in a crisis, and to take no thought how to meet the difficulties which might arise, except by such action as the Bank of England may possibly take, with the Government, as they think, behind it." Moreover, he showed that the growth of other banking institutions had made the Bank of England a smaller factor in the money-market than it had been in former times,

so that, as its responsibilities increased, its power to deal with emergencies had probably declined. In a supplementary note, Mr. Goschen discusses the efforts made since 1891 to improve the situation, and expresses the belief that "a most distinct improvement has taken place in the policy of the great majority of banks as regards their cash reserves"—a conclusion that would be more reassuring if it were possible to estimate the extent to which bank statements are affected by "window-dressing."

Best known of all the papers in this volume is the fourth essay, on "The Depreciation of Silver," originally published in 1876. As chairman of the Parliamentary Committee appointed in that year, Mr. Goschen had ample opportunity for studying the silver question, and his views were widely quoted in the "battle of the standards" waged during the next twenty years. The fifth paper, on "The Conditions and Prospects of Trade," presents a careful review of the condition of British commerce in about 1885, and emphasizes the importance of developing commercial relations with the colonies. In his prefatory note Mr. Goschen points out that, "in a modest way," he was then acting as "a missionary of Empire." The sixth paper, on "The Increase of Moderate Incomes," endeavors to elicit from the income-tax returns some conclusions concerning the manner in which wealth is being distributed; and the materials gathered tend to support the proposition that there has been a considerable growth of moderate incomes at the same time that the proportion of large incomes has tended to remain stationary. And this, it is remarked, has occurred under "the steady working of economic laws" and "under a system of commercial and industrial freedom."

Of the three concluding papers, those dealing with "Laissez-faire" and "Ethics and Economics" carry the author further into general theoretical questions than most of his other essays, while the last, on "Insurance: Voluntary or Compulsory," compels him to deal with fundamental questions of social policy. In all of them he shows that firm grasp both of facts and of principles that has characterized his economic writing. The modest preface of the present volume states that the author does not claim to write from the point of view "of a trained and scientific economist," but rather from that of a "man of business" interested in the practical application of his subjects. But, however seriously intended, this disclaimer will hardly be accepted at its face value by the reader who is able to follow Mr. Goschen in his masterly analyses of complicated economic phenomena, and observes how constantly he returns to underlying principles. In fact, our author's readers will probably agree that it would augur well for the future of the science if all "scientific" economists had Mr. Goschen's powers of careful analysis, judicious inference, and perspicuous statement.

The Philosophy of Religion. By George Trumbull Ladd. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

The main title, 'Philosophy of Religion' (in itself an unhappy expression), hardly suggests the scope of this work; the subtitle describes it as "a critical and speculative treatise of man's religious experience and development in the light of modern science and reflective thinking." It includes an elaborate statement of man's religious beliefs and practices from the earliest known times to the present, an estimate and a comparison of the great religions, a discussion of the various forms of theistic and anti-theistic belief, of revelation and inspiration, the future of religion, and the future of the individual and the race. The description of religious phenomena is, with a few exceptions, accurate (the chapter on the differentiation of religions is especially good), and the argument is conducted in an attractively calm and candid way, with fair presentation of considerations pro and con, full statement of difficulties, and careful estimation of evidence. Throughout the book there are suggestive remarks. The great extent of the feld traversed, and the author's anxiety to make his positions clear, lead to a good deal of repetition. The points on which he lays most stress are the unity of the world, human free selfhood, and the testimony of history to man's religious nature and to the presence among men of the Absolute Spirit.

An undue amount of space appears to be given to the review of early religious phenomena. Religious experience, Dr. Ladd rightly holds, furnishes the material for the establishment of a rational basis of religion. But he himself sees that much of the early material must be rejected; history furnishes as good authority for belief in ghosts as for belief in God. The standard is the experience of the best-disciplined and most spiritual minds; the critic of to-day recognizes only what he regards as rational, and values ancient thought only so far as it agrees with his own—and he himself may be set aside by a future generation. Dr. Ladd is alive to the constantly shifting nature of religious thought, but, with all his care, he does not avoid the mistake of undertaking to characterize some particular religion as a unity (i., 128 ff.). The word "Christianity," for example, means nothing unless the particular period had in mind is given. Every religion, it is true, inherits something from its immediate predecessor, and this latter from what preceded it, and so on back to the beginning; but this process does not justify one in identifying a great modern religion with its savage ancestor. The habit of personifying a religion, and speaking of it as if it possesed a spirit and an energy of its own, is unfortunate, because it tends to blind the eyes to the fact that a religion is simply the expression of the religious ideas of its founder or of the people who profess it. The Yahweh cult of the early Hebrews had little or nothing in common with that of the prophets, and Louis XIV. as little in common with the Sermon on the Mount. The capacity of development and adjustment to new conditions, often ascribed to this or that religion (by Dr. Ladd to Christianity especially), is really the capacity of a given community or race; the Sikhs of India, for example, have reached by their own efforts or instincts a theistic position substantially identical with that of the cultivated Christian world of to-day.

Professor Ladd's main purpose is to define and demonstrate the rational basis of religion. His choice of the word "philosophy" involves an appeal to human reason, and rationality is emphasized throughout the work; the assumption of opposition between reason and religion he calls (i. 307) "the deadliest of all heresies"; he sharply opposes Kant's "schismatic and divisive view of human reason," which "has begot a sort of antithesis between intellect and reason" (i. 304). And yet he is unable to accept in full the supremacy of reason. The investigation of religion, he thinks, must be conducted with "limited reliance" on human reason (i. 24, 37, 40; ii, 71)—the "*non-rational* (which is by no means the same thing as the *contrary to reason*) has its part to play in shaping this [religious] experience" (i. 305). As examples of phenomena that do not admit of a perfect mental representation in the terms of man's rational life he goes on to cite "the beliefs, the sentiments, and the practices of religion." Why, he asks, do we believe in the reality of that which corresponds to our highest ideals? why do we admire and worship it? Now it is true that the impulse to worship the ideal, conceived of as an ethically perfect person, is, in a sense, irrational; such impulses or instincts lie at the foundation of life and are inexplicable by us; so far as they are concerned, religious thought and feeling does not differ from all other thought and feeling. The fundamental question is that of the reality of ideals, which are the product of reason dealing with the material furnished by experience. Dr. Ladd holds that ideals have ontological validity. Against the view that they are mere ideas he protests "in the name not only of history and psychology, of art, ethics, and religion, but also of science and philosophy as well" (ii. 567 f.). The "ontological consciousness" he makes the basis of the belief in God and individual immortality. This question involves the whole of philosophy, and cannot be discussed here. But it is to be observed that the phenomena adduced by Dr. Ladd are not to be thought of as lying outside the sphere of reason, for it is reason that constructs ideals and decides on the validity of the data of the "ontological consciousness." His whole argument, in fact, is conducted with the purpose of showing that religion is justified by reason; his patient investigation of the significance for the life of man here and hereafter of the great mass of facts he has collected, is a tribute to reason.

The philosophic basis of the discussion is given by Dr. Ladd in previous writings, of which the present work may be regarded as a continuation.

The Life of Molière. By Henry M. Trollope. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

To undertake the story of Molière's life and works in an octavo of five hundred and sixty pages is proof of capacity for patient toil, which Mr. Henry M. Trollope thus shares with Anthony of laborious fame. Relying chiefly on French authorities, this work is a full and elaborate compilation of facts, whether important or trivial, which the Moliéristes have vied with Shaksperians in amassing about their subject for subsequent generations to sift. Mr. Trollope's sieve is no fine one. "Facts," he says (p. 79), "may, then, possibly bring a great man closer to our eyes and help to show us what he was like"; but the wished-for effect calls for something more than

"judicious handling," under which literal treatment a vigorous character and personality are too easily lost for want of the biographical artist's hand and eye.

This is, indeed, the first objection to be urged; in this 'Life' Molière does not live. We could picture an account of him, shorn of a full third of the details in this book, and yet presenting the busy, bustling actor-manager and playwright in the thick of work or pleasure, without the slightest sacrifice of proportion or of biographical dignity, and equally without risk of running into the facility of the mere *causerie*. The very Introduction, of some forty pages, which seeks to convey the dramatic and histrionic setting of the time, is a generously padded expansion of the history of pre-Molièrean comedy in France, to which justice has long been done in a dozen familiar treatises. And from the body of the work we may cite instances in which the carefully tabulated facts are accompanied by a disconcerting undecisiveness in their interpretation. Thus, the authorship of the anonymous publication, 'La Fameuse Comédienne' (1688), which bespattered the name of Molière's widow, remains a mystery; but among conjectures the biographer might well lay more stress on the points brought out by Larroumet, and but lately revived in Mr. H. Noel Williams's 'Queens of the French Stage,' in support of the belief that professional spite had much to do with the actual wording of the libel. Singularly enough, most commentators take such publications seriously, not perceiving that they are, in a sense, the analogues of slanderous modern journalism (p. 109). On page 141, explanation is offered of the name of *Mascarille*, used in more than one of the comedies; it is surely obvious that the *Marquis de Mascarille* of the "Précieuses" is a satirical title, under which Cathos and Madelon, through their silly snobbishness, fail to detect the valet. Mr. Trollope says: "There is a Marquis de Mascarille in his *Précieuses Ridicules*, a comedy of a very different kind from the *Étourdi;* but to suppose that the actor wore a mask in that part would be absurd"! It would, indeed.

This last quotation illustrates the method which has succeeded in swelling the volume. Page after page expands trifles, dilates on the self-evident, amplifies truisms, or digresses into side-issues. The place for such a remark as the following is not in an introduction to Molière's acting, but in an elementary text-book, or in some new stanza from Monsieur de la Palisse: "Acting is seeming to be, but it wants large and often high qualifications" (p. 266).

Contrasting acceptably with such excerpts as the above may be found a number of pages helpful in explaining the spirit and cast of some of the comedies, whose peculiar conditions are not usually so accurately rendered by English critics of Molière because of their omitting to study local or temporal customs determining fundamentals of character-treatment. Mr. Trollope points out clearly (p. 164) that a plausible theory concerning "Les Précieuses Ridicules" holds that the satirist had in view not so much the social leaders of Paris, whose chastening influence on the language he could hardly deny, but their would-be-imitators among the pretentious bourgeoisie. And the discussion of "Tartufe," drawn from French studies, elucidates the position and rôle of the *domestic* director of conscience—the type of spiritual family manager; an "institution" not readily comprehensible without detailed reference to ecclesiastical conditions in France at that time (pp. 355-360). Such examinations illustrate the generally trustworthy accuracy of Mr. Trollope in rendering for English readers the results of French scholarship. His own endeavors at independent judgments are by no means so felicitous. If we turn to chapter viii., which rehearses the now unstimulating comparison and contrast between Shakspere and Molière, we discover that the point of departure is unassailable: "Everybody has not the same ideas about comedy, and everybody will not think about Molière's plays in the same way, for men's humors and their sympathies are often widely different" (p. 175). *Passons au déluge*—to use a quotation as familiar, and at least as apposite, as any in this volume. We can nevertheless feel gratified that the attitude here taken is the polar opposite of the patronizing spirit, which led such critics as Coleridge and Hazlitt to a state of naïve wonderment that any Frenchman could show deep-reaching humor over the weaknesses of his fellow-worms; for Mr. Trollope's bulky work has been executed in a disposition of reverence for the sad-eyed one who extended the sympathetic scope of comedy in treating his own countrymen as eternal types of humankind.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Hartley Burr. Poetry and the Individual. Putnams.
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Felt, Ephraim Porter. Insects Affecting Park and Woodland Trees. Albany: N. Y. State Education Department.
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Sharpley, Hugo. A Realist of the Ægean. London: David Nutt.
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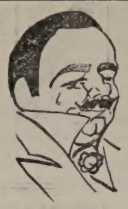

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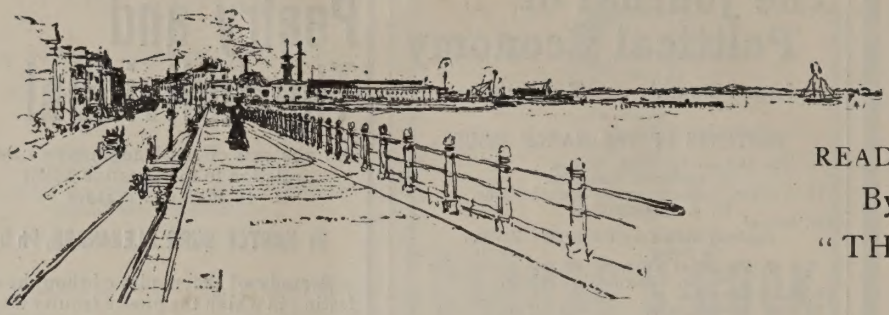

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 22, 1906.

The Week.

Secretary Taft's decision—for it is manifestly his and not the President's—that no appointment to the Supreme Court need be made till there is a vacancy, leaves him free to go on with his important public business at least till October. Various motives have doubtless actuated him. The man who rapped Engineer Wallace over the knuckles so smartly for taking his hand from the Government plough, could not with good grace throw over his unfinished Philippine and Panama labors. Mr. Taft's desire to get his present work into better shape before dropping it is clearly in line with public duty. But that political considerations lurk behind, is obvious. He has been considered a strong Presidential candidate, if not by himself too seriously, at any rate by many friends. They do not want to see a possible President spoiled to make a judge. Hence the Secretary's declination to go to the Supreme Court for the present must be held to have "big politics" in it.

Try as the President may to expel politics from the railway-rate bill it is always coming back. Senator Tillman made it plain on Thursday that his aim will be to render the President's bill so radical that the Republicans cannot support it. In that way Tillman would make capital for his party, and possibly furnish it with a rallying cry. He went frankly over to the view that this railway bill is but a part of the coming and concentrated attack upon "the great accumulation of wealth in the hands of the few," before which "the honest patriot stands appalled." Naturally, the Republican Senators are a good deal staggered by this sort of endorsement of the President's measure, and are casting about more anxiously than ever for some form of amendment to make the bill "safe," and to unite their party behind it. It is said that Knox and Dolliver—representing the conservative and the extremist wings of the party—are nearly agreed upon an amendment providing for judicial review, with suspension, of any rates made by the Interstate Commerce Commission. This, the Democrats will of course declare, "emasculates" the law, and then party lines will be drawn again, and the present "era of good feeling," or mixed feelings, closed.

Senator Bailey's argument on Monday went to the heart of the matter. The Hepburn bill—clumsily, it is true, and without sufficient precision — contemplates "suspension" by the courts of any litigated rate made by the Commission, pending a final judicial decision. The President has assented to this plan. But Mr. Bailey contends, and Senator Rayner agrees with him, that this "suspension" must be got out of the bill if it is to be a really drastic measure. Yet, as Senator Clapp and Senator Culberson have admitted, any court of equity would grant a preliminary injunction against a Commission-made rate which the railroads might assert to be confiscatory, and of which the enforcement would cause them irreparable injury. Exactly, says Mr. Bailey; therefore let us take away equity jurisdiction in all such cases. This, of course, raises the new Constitutional question whether Congress has power to do anything of the kind. To that point Senator Bailey directed himself. It seems clear that the whole law is certain to be contested in the Supreme Court. It is also clear that party lines are reforming in the Senate, and that the Democrats are manœuvring to get into a position where they can assert that the President and the Republicans have surrendered to the railroads, and have agreed to a bill which is not worth the paper it is written on.

The Connecticut Senators who refuse to vote for the Philippine tariff bill can plead that, if they do not exhibit sweet reasonableness, they at any rate show a quality which their party has hitherto held in far higher esteem—unswerving devotion to extreme protection. True, a number of Connecticut Republicans who do not approve the policy of hanging the monkey-wrench on the safety-valve, protest that the Senators "misrepresent the overwhelming Republican sentiment in Connecticut" and "frustrate President Roosevelt's policy of a square deal for the Filipinos." The protestants labor under a serious delusion. The question is not as to the overwhelming sentiment of the Republicans of Connecticut, but as to the overwhelming demand of the tobacco-growers of that State. Senator Brandegee declares that he intends to stand by the tobacco-growers; and doubtless he is well advised. A protected interest will put up its good money for campaign expenses and fight tooth and nail for its own, while the huge majority of the party will rest content with a vague feeling of dissent, and proceed to vote the straight ticket. Thus it is that the alert beneficiaries of the tariff hold the Republican leaders by the throat. Ten men with money, energy, and without scruples, can wield more power through a political machine than ten thousand amiably disposed but inert advocates of the square deal. The attitude of the Connecticut Senators is fresh proof that the quickest way for Republicans to reform the tariff is to vote for Democrats.

President Roosevelt continued his good work on behalf of consular reform by his speech in the White House on March 14; and his admission that we have had much difficulty with our consuls in China was particularly apropos, in view of present conditions in that country. A bad or inefficient or tactless consul can do an immense amount of harm to our national prestige, particularly in such a country as China. It is, as the President points out, far cheaper to pay high salaries for good men, since a second-class man can so easily do a first-rate amount of harm. On the details of the reformed service, the President was open-minded, insisting only on some way of weeding out the incapable and superannuated officials at the top. Whether this can be properly arranged without the establishment of some kind of retiring pension, would have to be determined after a trial of the new system. The point is that our growing foreign trade demands the most careful and intelligent representatives abroad, with a life career before them, and with prospects of advancement to the diplomatic service if they merit it. The Washington convention is a most encouraging sign that the business man is waking up to the sheer stupidity of our present policy, and the only question is how long it will take him to make the average Congressman or Senator realize that it is better to vote for a change and relinquish the petty patronage he now gets out of consular appointments.

The business men who protested against a rigorous Chinese exclusion, at last week's hearing before the House Committee on Foreign Relations, frankly based their arguments on commercial expediency. The boycott, they maintain, has not yet affected the Asiatic trade as a whole, but its continuance or extension would limit for the United States an ever-growing business in the "greatest unexploited market of the world." This is an argument suited to a commercialized government. The average Congressman generally has a great respect for indignant merchants who are losing a foreign market. The Asiatic Association speaks with much authority, and it declares that what is now demanded is to define the excluded class of Chinamen and to let all others enter freely after presentation of certificates from American consuls. Undoubtedly,

this would do much to soothe the injured feelings of the Chinese, but, in our opinion, so long as there is exclusion of any class there is bound to be irritation, since the Chinese must inevitably fail to see any good reason why their laborers should be barred out when those of Russia and Bohemia are freely admitted. Moreover, while the Administration itself is guilty of such execrable taste as it showed recently in permitting its dispatch to Manila of troops for expected service in China to become public, we must be prepared for great bitterness and hostility towards Americans throughout the Chinese Empire.

Representative Shackleford's furious attack upon "Czar" Cannon on Friday for arbitrary use of the power of "recognition" really has little point. Everybody knows that, under the practice which now has come to have the force of law, and with the consent of the House, the general control of public business has been more and more put into the hands of the Speaker. He is very much the American analogue of the English Premier, who decides and announces what bills shall be, and what shall not be, taken up by the House of Commons. Mr. Shackleford has been in Congress only about six years. If his service dated back to Speaker Carlisle's time, he would have remembered that even a Democrat in the chair, though professing as humbly as Mr. Cannon to be but "the servant of the House," could in reality set up quietly as its master. Mr. Carlisle's Speakership is, indeed noted in Miss Follett's 'The Speaker of the House of Representatives,' as one that "made a decided advance even on this [Blaine's] arbitrary use of the privilege" of refusing to allow legislation to be called up which the Speaker opposes. For years Mr. Carlisle declined to allow the Blair Educational bill, which passed the Senate three times, to be considered in the House. In 1887, when urged by a clear majority of the House to permit a tobacco-tax bill to be taken up, he replied in writing that he did not think it would be "proper." So our Czars have been long growing.

That Americans prefer to live in perpetual Presidential elections, is proved again by the rising eagerness of discussion about the nominees of 1908. Judge Parker revived once more on Friday, in his address in North Carolina, the suggestion that Southern Democrats step boldly forward and present a candidate of their own. He declared, what is undoubtedly true, that the South has several men in public life who, by character and attainments, are well fitted for the Presidency. But these very men are the first to perceive that the time has not yet come to look for a President in the South. Senator Bailey, for example, who is now one of the most respected members of the Senate, and who has frequently had the empty compliment of being "named" for the Presidency, is clear-headed enough to see that the thing is impossible. He has said that years must yet pass before a Southerner as Presidential nominee will be thinkable. This does not mean that sectional prejudice should be encouraged, or that any section of the country ought to be put under a ban; it is simply to look the hard facts of politics full in the face. So long as the chief object of parties in nominating Presidents is not to pay a tribute to worthy persons, but to succeed in the election, the argument from "availability" will remain very much what it is. At present, it is dead against Judge Parker's proposal—which was, perhaps, intended only as a graceful way of acknowledging hospitality. The South will have to wait. A border State—say, Missouri—may furnish a candidate, but not as yet a State further South.

One gathers from Bourke Cockran's intolerable deal of sack in the Tammany resolutions of Monday, that Hearst is not going to be allowed to buy Tammany support. The inference which the cynical will draw is that somebody else has bid higher. Who it is, time will be expected to reveal. That Tammany, as such, has any political convictions which cannot be altered while you wait—except the conviction that all the city plunder is its by divine right—no one seriously pretends. Hence its solemn erection of itself into the great bulwark against Socialism is enough to make a broken-down and dispirited artillery horse laugh. There were, of course, gleams of sound sense in what Mr. Cockran said. On the question of municipal ownership, he appears to have argued powerfully against the views which he himself propounded, in the name of Tammany, when he went to Albany a few weeks ago to outbid Hearst. With every appreciation of Mr. Cockran's natural flow of eloquence and easy simulation of the loftiest statesmanship, we must remind him that a certain amount of political steadiness is required to give an orator real weight. Wanting that, people will be apt to say of his rhetoric that it has the contortions of the sibyl without her inspiration.

If the opposition to the insurance bills had not practically collapsed before Andrew Hamilton spoke out, his attack upon the trustees of the New York Life would have determined most of the legislators to vote for the reforms. The speeches at the hearings showed clearly enough that the objections came mainly from officers who did not want their power curtailed, from agents who were naturally reluctant to see their inordinate profits reduced, and from financial cliques that wished to keep their hold on the treasure-chest. Some of the arguments were singularly indifferent to the rights of the most deeply interested party, the policyholder. Then, too, the insurance people weakened their case by such wholesale assaults on the bill as that of Paul Morton. The upshot is that the bill will probably be amended in some minor details; that the section regarding agents' commissions will be made rather more liberal; and that the requirement as to surplus may be made less rigid. All the principles recommended by the Armstrong committee are likely to be embodied in the new law.

It may be that Judge Cowing, in sentencing a member of the Housesmiths' Union on Friday to a year in the penitentiary, was creating a new "martyr" to the cause of labor. But this particular act of violence, like the strike of which it was an incident, was of a sort on which sympathy would be absolutely wasted. Edward Lynch was one of the men who set upon a watchman at the American Can Company's factory. It was a cowardly attack in that the unionists were three to one. And why were "scabs" on duty at all? Not because the union men were on strike for any grievance of their own—not even because they unselfishly took up the grievance of other workmen whom their employer was oppressing somewhere else. No, the demand of the strikers was the discharge of twenty-five non-union men on a job which *another firm* was doing in McKeesport, Pa.! Not one of the pleas usually offered in palliation of union violence can be entered here. Yet, in the course of the Post & McCord dispute, according to the firm's affidavit, sixty-five non-union workmen have been assaulted by strikers, and dynamite has been used five times to destroy the results of "scab" labor. "We must have order," said Judge Cowing in pronouncing sentence, "and we can have it only by observance of the law."

Maine city elections no longer indicate the drift of general opinion, but merely what is thought of the State's prohibition law. A majority of the municipalities that have just chosen new officers have been captured by the Democrats, including Augusta, which since 1893 has been consistently Republican. Bangor reëlected a Democratic mayor, and Rockland, the home of Gov. Cobb, who has stood for the rigid enforcement of the anti-liquor law, changed over for the first time in its history. Last December, Portland and Westbrook "revolted" against Republican control. Instead, however, of taking these results as a warning to the dominant party, the observers of public sentiment in Maine go no further than to say that the

State is bound to come to a form of local option resembling that in force in Vermont. In most cases the successful Democratic candidates waged their campaign on the single issue of enforcing the "Sturgis law." In Augusta, for example, Col. Frederick W. Plaisted was chosen mayor, as the Kennebec *Journal* points out, simply and solely because of his denunciations of the policy that actually meant closed saloons. It was in that city that Gov. Cobb's deputies had done particularly effective work, and it was there that it was most clearly brought out that Maine is exceedingly restless under rigid enforcement of prohibition.

In establishing a $1,000 saloon license Chicago has followed the practice of most large cities in this country; but she has been fortunate in the privilege of taking this action for herself and not having to depend upon a State Legislature to make the change. The increased revenue will permit the employment of a large number of additional policemen, and this phase of the question has been brought prominently forward in the rather protracted campaign for the increased license. While Chicago has usually found herself capable of evolving within herself policies and arguments alike, in this case the contrast of conditions at home with those elsewhere has been one of the often-repeated arguments. New York has a saloon to every 400 inhabitants, Chicago one to 243, while the ratios of policemen are one to 500 and one to 703 inhabitants, respectively. In January and February Chicago had 22 murders, 840 burglaries, and 216 robberies, to only 18 murders, 400 burglaries, and 20 robberies in New York.

A trades (or, better) study-union in the navy is a unique manifestation of the all-prevailing tendency to combine. The Secretary of the Navy deliberately charges that the Annapolis midshipmen have conspired in true labor-union style to keep down the level of scholarship at the Academy. Just as a union looks askance upon the man whose superior intelligence and ability makes him a greater producer than his neighbor, so the cadets pledged themselves not to do better than a fixed average in their studies. The honor man and the "grind" were both proscribed, and doubtless described as "scab" middies. The suggestion will delight the souls of Harry B. Smith and other creators of comic-opera librettos; but it is not without its practical suggestions. After graduation, for instance, our cadets might have a gentleman's agreement not to stay on watch more than three hours at a spell, except for double pay for overtime. They might also decide to fix the percentage of proficiency in engine-room service at, say, 50 per cent., thus reducing the now altogether inordinate length of cruises and increasing the periods of navy-yard service and the enjoyment of family life. The enlisted men, too, might then organize. A strike at the outbreak of war, for instance, for extra pay and plenty of it, would be as successful as a strike of municipally employed motormen and conductors five days before a mayoralty election. Indeed, the Annapolis idea is an altogether delightful one, and capable of such infinite ramifications that Congress ought really to extend its thanks to our midshipmen, hazers not excluded.

Canada has never shown much enthusiasm for Mr. Chamberlain's schemes of Imperial Federation, and two recent Ministerial utterances display strikingly the general desire for administrative and fiscal independence. Prime Minister Laurier, speaking at Ottawa recently, handled the proposals for Imperial tariffs quite frankly. Let Canada and England each seek her own good in tariff matters. Perhaps treaties of commerce were possible; uniform tariffs emphatically were not. But in any case it was not reciprocity treaties that upheld the Empire. It was Sir Wilfrid's firm conviction that the Empire could be maintained "on one condition only, and that condition is that every component part of the British Empire should be left to do the best it can for itself." Something like a practical application of this principle has since been made by Sir Frederick Borden, Minister of Militia. Speaking after a lecturer who had advocated Canadian contributions to the support of the Imperial navy, the Canadian War Minister called attention to the fact that no colony would willingly tax itself for a fund over the spending of which it had no control. He further said that, under the Monroe Doctrine, which he accepted as a fact without approving it as an article of international law, Canada virtually commanded the protection of the United States navy as against all European nations. He saw no profit, then, in the Dominion bearing the burden either of its own navy, or of the Imperial navy in part. If these two speeches may be regarded as representatative, as we believe they may, Mr. Chamberlain's arguments have fallen flat in Canada. The Dominion is willing to dispense with a formal Imperial federation for precisely those business considerations which Mr. Chamberlain advances as his strongest plea for Imperial reciprocity.

The free-trade resolution passed in the House of Commons on March 13, by an overwhelming majority, effected its aim of displaying the cleft in the Unionist minority. Eight Unionist members voted with the Government, while twenty-five avoided voting, and only ninety-eight opposed the resolution. Evidently, adversity has not made the free-food and protectionist Unionists contented bedfellows. The division follows shortly after Mr. Balfour's resumption of the party leadership, as if to emphasize the fact that his conversion to Chamberlainism has not served as an example to the free traders of the Opposition. In a recent address Mr. Chamberlain pointed out the utility of division of counsels in a minority party, proposing to organize the protectionists into a separate group, acting independently in all tariff matters. The above vote shows that the way is clear for the trial of that interesting experiment. As for the status of Chamberlainism generally, until it gains something like the unanimous assent of the Unionist party it need hardly be taken as an imminent danger.

A recent British bluebook on vagrancy practically condemns the workhouse system because it fails to distinguish between professional tramps and unwilling vagrants. The method of giving food and lodging for manual work, or none at all, is defective because it dismisses the criminal wanderer without punishment and the pauper vagrant without relief. The report also emphasizes the futility of mere imprisonment either as a deterrent to vagrancy or as a punishment for refusing to do prison labor. It is the judgment of the commission that "forced labor" has ceased to exist except in name. It is further pointed out that the present habit of estimating the tramp population by night lodgings furnished is wholly worthless. In this manner a single active man or woman beating a way through the island may appear as a couple of hundred wards of the State. The remedies suggested are the transfer of jurisdiction from the several localities to the counties; measures to keep the records of vagrants who have undergone sentence and to identify such on the road; finally, the revival of actual "hard labor" in "colonies" to which chronic vagrants may be condemned for not less than six months nor more than three years. The remedy need not necessarily be an expensive one, for Switzerland actually manages to squeeze a small profit out of the compulsory labor of her "vagrom men." In America the problem is complicated by the presence of varying State jurisdictions and by the absence of a centralized police; but here also the establishment of an organized work punishment for incorrigible tramps would presumably be better than merely passing them on, while it might exceptionally result in an actual work cure for the individual vagrant.

AFTER EXPOSURE, WHAT?

There is a growing feeling that we are approaching the limit of mere exposure of official and corporate misdoing. It is clear, at any rate, that we should distinguish sharply between legislative investigation made in view of definite evils and as a basis for definite remedies, and the flood of rather loose accusation that runs unceasingly through the daily and periodical press, spreading dark suspicion abroad without suggesting remedies. In other phrase one should not fail to know Hughesism from Lawsonism. They are as different as light and darkness.

The characteristic of Lawsonism, which prevails in a score of tinctures and dilutions, is its turbulence. It proposes to make the public "sit up." The idea of reforming is quite subordinate to that of making a stir, arousing a passion, and creating a hatred. We take it that hatred is always an unfortunate emotional habit. One cannot see red and yet practise sweet reasonableness. To visualize the United States Senate as so many upas trees walking, brings us no nearer the reform of that body. It is profitable to recall that Senators, and even the presidents of life-insurance companies and the promoters of Trusts, are fellow-mortals, and that the humblest of us bear in our bosoms the seeds of their defalcations. More practically, we shall restrain the harmful activities of these capitalists, not by representing them as so many dragons and hoping for a St. George to ride in, but by thorough and dispassionate investigation of the grounds of their arrogant pretensions and of their portentous gains. Nobody has shown more strikingly than Mr. Hughes himself in the course of numerous cross-examinations that the advantage is with him who keeps a cool head. That is a collective as well as an individual advantage, and those who, with no concrete programme of reforms, are stirring up a vague sense of the rottenness of the present order, are doing but an ill service.

There is no more clearly established principle of psychology than that intense emotion is an evil unless it is expressed in some appropriate action. To compassionate the needy only lands you in barren sentimentalism, unless your hand goes down into your pocket. Similarly, to execrate the capitalist merely keeps one in a sullen and hopeless fume, unless one perceives that the injustice is remediable and that voice or vote may aid thereto. It is the most serious defect of Mr. Roosevelt's agitation for rate regulation and control of industrial combinations that he has approached the subject with slight previous reflection upon ways and means, and that he has concentrated his efforts upon empty, if spectacular, prosecution of corporations, while the very practical recourse of exemplary pursuit of persons lay neglected at his hand.

The surest way to make men live contentedly in what they have been taught to regard as the worst possible world, is to preach the doctrine of total depravity detached from that of salvation. Human nature revolts at any prolonged chronicle of irremediable woe, and today those readers whose bellies are overfilled with the Lawsonian east wind either have sunk into that beatific coma which continued emotionalism induces, or are crying for better provender. "Show us an illegal corporation the harmful business of which has been not only conspicuously exposed but arrested; produce a lawless rebater in prisoner's stripes"—these are the gages of sincerity very properly asked of an Administration professedly consumed by indignation against the Trusts.

In the scientific as well as in the political sphere the mere heaping up of uninterrupted data is a very doubtful good, even when these bare observations are honestly and accurately made. The sheer mass of accumulated statistics discourages generalization. To obtain the best results, the search for general principles should follow pretty closly the accumulation of particular observations. It has been said, and justly, that if three-quarters of the German doctoral dissertations, which are largely devoted to statistics, were swept away, the world of science would be rid of an encumbrance. Similarly, the mere dissemination of vague data of malfeasance, unrelated to the practical work of the courts and legislatures, may produce in the long run, and after a certain barren irritation, an actual deadening of the public conscience.

Does not, in fine, the gist of the whole movement lie in the honest enforcement of such law as we have, and in prompt legislation where the old legal mesh is too wide to catch the representatives of the new financial slipperiness? All else is vanity. To wrench the superlatives of the English language merely to produce a general atmosphere of suspicion is, granted that the suspicion may be justified, a very questionable public service. It must be expected, that a generation of former "word-painters" should exploit the profitable art of "exposure" as far as the market will bear; it is probable that State commissions and Government departments will for a time sally forth lightheartedly to "bust" the Trusts, leaving at home their best weapon, the vigorous application of old law to evils only quantitatively new; but the reaction is bound to come. We shall be on a better basis when the public asks of both amateur and professional exposers, not only, "How rotten are things?" but also, "How are you going to freshen them up?"

THE NEW HIGHER LAW.

Andrew Hamilton has performed a public service by his brief and forcible exposition of his theory of the higher law. His phrase is an old one; the idea which underlies it is still older. Readers of the Bible know that the "law of the Most High" transcends all man-made statutes. Readers of history are familiar with appeals from the lower to the higher law—appeals which have overturned thrones and disrupted empires. John Hampden thus appealed when he refused to pay twenty shillings ship-money because that payment would have made him a slave. Those devoted men who helped the fugitive negroes from the South made a similar appeal to eternal justice. The validity of such resistance to the established order is what William H. Seward had in mind when he uttered that famous sentence: "There is a higher law than the Constitution."

In the light of these inspiring precedents, it is worth while to examine somewhat narrowly Hamilton's *apologia*. We are not deeply concerned over his statement that for every dollar he drew from the New York Life he gave a voucher. That is a point over which lawyers and accountants may wrangle. Whatever their decision, the moral aspect of the case remains unchanged. These facts are indisputable. The activity of insurance lobbies at Albany, Trenton, Harrisburg, and other State capitals has for years been notorious. "The insurance interests are opposing this bill; the insurance interests favor that measure," have been commonplaces in all newspaper reports of legislative proceedings. If the trustees of the insurance companies were unaware that large sums were being paid to a lobby, they were children in regard to matters, connected with their own business, on which the general public was fairly well informed. They must have known that a corruption fund was pouring from their treasury in a steady stream; that vouchers and requisitions for it were, in one form or another, following the usual course; and that somebody was spending hundreds of thousands in bribing legislators. If the trustees and salaried auditors were unfamiliar with the details of these nefarious transactions, it was only because they deliberately closed their eyes.

Hamilton, however, solemnly declares that the responsible managers of the New York Life cannot avail themselves of even this flimsy pretext of nominal innocence. "The executive officers, one and all," he cried, "were conscious of what the purpose was and what the expense was. When I look around and see their faces before me, I challenge contradiction." "The men who would not know me now would come and pat me on the back and say, 'You did it.'"

"When they say they didn't know what was going on, it excites my laughter and derision." It also excites the laughter and derision of heaven and earth.

These eminent respectables who openly approved of, or tacitly consented to, Hamilton's operations, clearly enough acted on the principle which he lays down with such precision:

> "The insurance world to-day is the greatest financial proposition in the United States, and, as great affairs always do, it commands a higher law. In defending its rights and its property, you cannot stop to kick every cur that comes along and barks; and if you could sweep them out in other, perhaps mysterious, but honest ways, you are defending and asserting the higher law, which great enterprises have a right to command."

That is, these huge corporations are a sort of all-wise and unscrupulous Providence. Like God himself, they move in a mysterious way their wonders to perform. The ends which they have in view are above and beyond those of ordinary fallible mortals. John Smith, who is worth only $100,000, pays $500 to one or two scalawags in order to buy off a strike bill aimed at his private interests. John Smith is obviously a contemptible scoundrel, who, for the sake of a few dollars, would debauch a commonwealth and poison the very fountains of honor. The New York Life, the Mutual, and the Equitable, which reckon their assets by billions, pay $500,000 to scores of lawmakers in order to buy off strike bills. The insurance companies have, as we all see, risen to the realm of the higher law.

Of course, these "protectors of widows and orphans" plead—to use Hamilton's own phrase—that "Andrew Hamilton was defending the New York Life and the insurance interests generally throughout the United States on behalf of the principles which the officers of the insurance companies believed to be necessary for their success and for the benefit of the policyholders." "The benefit of the policyholders" is a term which we now easily understand—thanks to the relentless questions of Charles E. Hughes and the opposition of Paul Morton and others to some of the most salutary proposals for insurance reform.

Pretty words cannot conceal the ugly deed. Not only insurance companies, but our public and semi-public corporations generally, have coolly assumed that they are amenable to a higher law than that which binds the rest of us puny beings. Hamilton has described the very things which our mighty and reckless captains of industry have been thinking and doing—and has done it with a naïveté which is as exquisite as convincing. His anger is directed not at the system of which he was a part, but at the men who have failed to stand by it, the poltroons who have shifted to his shoulders and those of the late John A. McCall the blame of his "honest" and "necessary" enterprises. He has played the game according to the rules, but they have stacked the cards and "welched" on their bets. He echoes the wail of anguish from Godwin's hero, "If fidelity and honor be banished from thieves, where shall they find refuge upon the face of the earth?"

We lately overheard one well-dressed man say to his neighbor, "Why is it that everybody is getting down on corporations?" Hamilton's railing accusation is a complete answer. Sane men are not "down on corporations," but they tremble for the results of these displays of unrestrained and wicked power. In the work which Hamilton undertook in obedience to the "higher law," in his passionate outburst against the confederates who have thrown him to the wolves in order to save their own skins —sane men recognize the operation of a principle which is fatal to democracy.

REFERRED TO THE CONSUMER.

A "campaign of education," no matter what its subject, means a considerable addition to our mail-bag, and some of the more recent of these accessions have been uncommonly well worth running over. Some one has said that the pure-food bill would mean not a restriction of the people's diet, but the appearance on the grocer's shelves of a large number of articles never heard of before. It is just these articles which, after long years of masquerading as something they are not, now respectfully ask a hearing in their proper persons.

Until the past year, we may say, the attitude of the food-manufacturing interests might be fairly represented about as follows: "The public is full of the most unreasonable prejudices in regard to its diet. We know that such and such preservatives and coloring matters are innocent, but this same stupid public believes them injurious. We know that glucose is not only harmless, bu better than other sweetenings for many purposes, but the public will not have it so. We must deceive to a certain extent if we are to carry on at all a business which is entirely legitimate. People who are not capable of deciding justly what is bad for them and what is good, have no claim on the information. But the time will soon come when the men who have taken this attitude are to be forced to bring their claims before this very tribunal, which, with all its prejudices and panics, has a rather notable habit of being right in the long run.

The chief amendments that were made by the House Committee to the Heyburn bill were some that concerned the rights of so-called "blended" or "rectified" liquors. These are products which have hitherto been sold in competition with so-called "straight" whiskeys. No one ever saw a liquor advertisement which called attention to the fact that the product offered was anything but "straight." Such a concoction as Dr. Wiley produced the other day while the House Committee waited, is shuddered at by people who often enough have unwittingly swallowed much the same thing.

We have recently received a highly interesting pamphlet devoted to the proposition that any beverage which is made to taste like whiskey, *is* whiskey to all intents and purposes, and is entitled to the name. The finest "old rye," the writer submits, was unfit to drink when it dripped from the still, and gained its color and flavor only from storage in a charred oak barrel. If charred oak, why not burnt sugar and prune juice? Also, whiskey manufactured in the orthodox way may contain more noxious compounds than that which is frankly made from cologne spirits and flavoring matters. The Committee of Fifty, even, reported that there was no great difference in wholesomeness. If the two products look the same, taste the same, and are equally wholesome, why not take the one which is cheapest? That is the argument briefly put.

The makers and users of chemical preservatives have the same story to tell. At worst it is better to be poisoned by preservatives than by ptomaines, they say, and, as a matter of fact, the acids which have had so much notoriety lately never hurt a child. "An honest examination of the virtues of salicylic acid will show any unbiassed persons that, so far from being injurious to old people, in the majority of instances it could only be a benefit to them, even if administered in very much larger doses than are ever taken in food." This is the doctrine of Dr. R. G. Eccles in a recent monograph on 'Food Preservatives.' The same author undertakes to show that the minimum doses of salicylic or boracic acids are much larger than those prescribed by medical authorities for the characteristic acids of lemons, grapes, and vinegar, so that if the former are dangerous in diluted form, the latter must be far more so. We are already getting this and similar arguments in leaflets intended for wide popular distribution.

It is not our present concern to express an opinion about any of this reasoning, but it is a clear gain for the consumer to hear both sides and have a chance to make up his own mind. Probably the careful man will refer the whole subject to his family physician and act according to his advice. The careless will buy what is cheap and take his chances. The decision is exactly like that which every one has to make regarding the use of tobacco or alcohol. We hardly expect in our time to see any whiskey dealer boasting of the superfine quality of the aniline dyes used to color his wares, nor the canner making the label which indicates the preservative he

uses any larger, say, than the colored picture on the can. Whether the American palate will ever prefer glucose to honey or maple syrup, is indeed an open question. But if the pure-food agitation has done nothing but bring forth these public arguments and start people thinking a little for themselves, it would have been worth while. In fact, it will do more.

PASSING-RICH SCHOOL TEACHERS.

The bulky report which a committee of the National Educational Association, appointed in 1903, has made on the subject of "Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions of Public School Teachers in the United States," is, as its preface states, "not susceptible of satisfactory summarization." Its chief value is as a store of facts, almost brutally specific in statement, and useful for the discussion of school affairs in particular cities rather than for general arguments about the state of our educational systems.

The schools of this country are roughly divided for purposes of study into three groups: city schools, schools in small towns and villages—8,000 population being the dividing line—and ungraded rural schools. Each of these groups embraces something like a third of the total school population. What the tables of this report picture is a descending series from the respectable salaries paid in a few large cities down to a point where so little money is offered that teachers actually cannot be obtained even in communities where the cost of living is lowest. In only four out of forty-eight of the principal cities of this country was the minimum teacher's salary equal to the earnings of street and sewer laborers working fifty weeks in the year, while in the rural schools the committee found instances of salaries so preposterously low that it is hard to decide whether to call them shocking or ridiculous. Orneville, Me., paid $118 for an eighteen weeks' session, Peru, Me., $138 for twenty-eight weeks, or at the rate of $4.93 per week. In Frontier County, Neb., $75 was paid for twelve weeks; in Elkhorn, Ore., $90 for twelve weeks; while some of the Southern States, desperately cramped for school money as they are, pay many salaries still lower, Georgia's minimum of $10 per month for negro teachers marking low water.

With these as the horrible examples, we may extract from the report figures which will carry the comparison up to the largest cities:

AVERAGE SCHOOL SALARIES.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

No.	Cities Population.	Principals.	Teachers.	Both.
87.	8,000- 10,000.....	$633	$446	$464
110.	10,000- 15,000.....	680	456	482
60.	15,000- 20,000.....	733	486	515
74.	20,000- 30,000.....	794	479	516
58.	30,000- 50,000.....	922	517	558
38.	50,000- 100,000.....	1,075	572	619
20.	100,000- 200,000.....	1,087	603	648
16.	200,000-1,000,000.....	1,455	677	732
3.	Over 1,000,000.....	2,282	906	967

HIGH SCHOOLS.

87.	8,000- 10,000.....	$1,174	$650	$721
110.	10,000- 15,000.....	1,317	709	787
60.	15,000- 20,000.....	1,464	799	869
74.	20,000- 30,000.....	1,691	798	877
58.	30,000- 50,000.....	1,682	850	912
38.	50,000- 100,000.....	2,248	981	1,051
20.	100,000- 200,000.....	2,418	1,044	1,096
16.	200,000-1,000,000.....	2,685	1,230	1,287
3.	Over 1,000,000.....	3,663	1,615	1,676

The best of these groups do not show what could fairly be called princely remuneration, yet it is certain that the method of averages states the case too favorably. Those few cities which have adopted a more or less generous policy bring up the averages unduly. Thus, while the average salary of elementary school teachers is $1,161 for men and $650 for women, the omission of the four cities of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston from the computation brings the average down to $653 for men and $556 for women. As one of the Moseley Commission remarked, American school boards prefer first-rate women to second-rate men, and the largest class concerned in this investigation is that of women teachers in elementary schools. These compose 74 per cent. of the total; and though the average salary, as above stated, is $650, more than nine-tenths of these teachers—reckoning now the cities alone—receive less than that. In the three university cities of Rochester, Syracuse, and New Haven, minimum teachers' salaries were found to be only $300, and in Baltimore, the sixth city of the country, $348.

The large proportion which school expenses bear to the total of local expenditures, is perhaps the chief obstacle to their readjustment on a more enlightened basis. One-fifth of the running expenses of New York city's government, for instance, is for schools, and all but a small fraction is in the salary list. If the payroll of any other department were as large in proportion, there would be a public scandal, and, while the analogy is absolutely false, it is not unnatural that the largest item of the budget should in many places have been deemed a proper subject for retrenchment. The Educational Association report points out the tendency toward creating special funds available for teachers' salaries and nothing else. There are three stages, it says, in the progress toward living salaries for teachers. First comes the raising of particular salaries by special resolution, next the fixed schedule with regular increases with length of service; finally, the "protecting such schedules of salaries against relapse owing to other public demands, which may seem to those who, at the moment, may have the disposition of the community funds, to be of more pressing necessity than the payment of good remuneration to teachers." The fixing of salaries in this city's schools by act of the Legislature and the provision of money for them by a special fixed levy on all taxable property, has often been denounced as a violation of the home-rule principle, but has unquestionably been one of the chief reasons why New York stands so far ahead of all other American cities in such a comparison as is made here.

AN IRISH NOVEL.

DUBLIN, February, 1906.

At present I can think of no abler novel in which Irish character and Irish affairs are treated than 'The Seething Pot,' which appeared a few months ago and was noticed in the *Nation*. The author is the Rev. James O. Hannay, an Episcopal clergyman of Westport. He writes under the pseudonym of George A. Birmingham. He lately delivered lectures to mixed audiences in Dublin—one on "Irish Novelists," the other on the "Gaelic League," of which he is an enthusiastic member. He charmed us all by his viva-voce utterances, as he had previously done by his writing. He now gives us another novel, 'Hyacinth' (London: Edward Arnold). I purchased a copy, and scarcely laid it down before I had finished it. In caustic portrayal of characters and of society, where there is so much that is abnormal as there is in Ireland, these novels are unmatched. In both, the hero is more or less of a *Hamlet*, the burthen of whose cry is:

"The time is out of joint: O cursed spite,
That ever I was born to set it right!"

In both he retires hopeless from the conflict. All through, there is evinced a surprising knowledge of Irish affairs, and a keen, yet withal tender and pitying, appreciation of our virtues and shortcomings.

Hyacinth Connealy was born some twenty-five years ago in a remote fishing village in the west of Ireland. His father was a dreamy, unpractical clergyman in charge of a small Protestant congregation. His mother died when he was but two years old, and he was brought up by an old crone, consorting with the fishermen and their children. The time came when

"Mr. Connealy awoke to the idea that he must educate his son. He began, naturally enough, with Irish, for it was Irish and not English that Hyacinth spoke fluently. Afterwards the English alphabet followed, though not for the sake of reading books, for, except the Bible and the Prayer-Book, Hyacinth was taught to read no English books. He learned Latin after a fashion, not with nice attention to complexities of syntax, but as a language meant to be used, read, and even spoken now and then to Father Moran."

This Father Moran is a charming old priest, who figures upon several occasions in the narrative. The father and son kept house in a sort of fashion together, gradually abandoning the better rooms to neglect and decay, and living in the kitchen.

"Latin and Greek books . . . took their places among the diminishing array of plates and cups on the kitchen dresser. . . . When room was required on the table for plates, the books and papers were swept to one side. A pile of potatoes, and the pan, with bacon or perhaps a fish still frizzling on it, was set in the place left vacant."

The boy, clad in homespun, goes up to Trinity College to pursue a course of theological study. He is understood and tak-

en up by Dr. Henry, divinity professor. Reared in an Irish Nationalist atmosphere, he is astonished, on attending a students' prayer-meeting, to find himself face to face with Irish Protestant Jingoism of the most pronounced type. According to the leading clergyman, "the Boers were a psalm-singing but hypocritical nation, addicted to slave-driving. England, on the other hand, was the pioneer of civilization, and the nursing mother of missionary enterprise. It was therefore clear that all good Christians ought to pray for the success of the British arms." The heart-felt practical enthusiasm of the minority for England in the war is graphically described; and, contrasted with the verbal though empty sympathy of the mass of the nation for the Boers, will bring the blush of shame to the cheeks of many self-respecting Irish leaders. Hyacinth cannot conceal his pro-Boer opinions, is boycotted by his fellow-students, and is thrown for sympathy into outside Gaelic League and Nationalist circles. A leading figure in these circles is Maud Gonne (thinly veiled under the name of Miss Goold. who for so many years occupied a prominent place in Separatist circles here). We are now plunged into the vortex of the Irish question:

"Ever since Pitt and Castlereagh perpetrated their Act of Union, two political parties have struggled together in Ireland. . . . The Protestant party has hitherto been guided and led by the gentry. It has been steadily loyal to England. . . . It has not come well out of the struggle of the nineteenth century. Its Church has been disestablished, its privileges and powers abolished, and the last remnants of its property are being filched from it. . . . The Roman Catholic party has been led by the ecclesiastics. . . . The leaders of this party enter upon the twentieth century in sight of their promised land. If the bishops can secure the continuance of English Government for the next half-century, Ireland will have become the Church's property."

There is concealed under these exaggerated phrases profound truth. Ireland will under any conditions continue Catholic. The "Unionists" are playing the game of Ultramontanism; the Nationalists, of liberal Catholicism, such as is being developed on the Continent and abroad where the people have effective political power.

"Outside both parties there have always been a few men united by no ties of policy or religion, unless, as perhaps we may, we call patriotism a kind of religion. Other lands have been loved sincerely, devotedly, passionately, as mothers, wives, and mistresses are loved. Ireland alone has been loved religiously, as men are taught to love God or the Saints. Her lovers have called themselves Catholic or Protestant; such distinctions have not mattered to these men."

Hyacinth becomes involved in differences between Miss Goold's and the Parliamentary party led by Mr. O'Rourke. (If by this gentleman is meant Mr. Redmond, it is an absurd and unworthy caricature, and a blot on the book.) He is compelled to give up a theological career and to return home. His father's reception of him is pathetic in the extreme. The old man dies suddenly, and Hyacinth is thrown upon the world. Dr. Henry, by letter, urges him to qualify for a curacy in England, where he would soon grow out of the enormity of his political opinions, and where meanwhile they would not be understood. Father Moran entreats him to purchase a fishing-boat, and settle down quietly among his old friends. Miss Goold offers him a post in a small force she has recruited to join the Boers. He decides on the latter course, goes up to Dublin and throws most of his small capital into the cause. He is soon disgusted with the motives and characters of the men among whom he finds himself. Through a somewhat unnatural chance he finds employment as salesman for Mr. Quinn, a woollen manufacturer in the west of Ireland. He there finds a calm retreat for some years. The well-ordered life of his employer's family and of that of a neighboring clergyman, Canon Beecher, is in refreshing contrast to his early home and to the showy, grimy surroundings of his Nationalist friends in Dublin. We, of course, know what is likely to occur when we learn that the Canon has daughters.

The Nemesis of the Irish out-of-jointness follows him. Mr. Quinn manufactures none but genuine Irish tweeds and friezes, for the encouragement of which, and of Irish manufactures of all kinds, the cry is loud on all sides. Those who make most noise and even obtain representative positions as encouragers of home manufactures, secretly favor English goods. Mr. Quinn's business declines. A finishing touch to it is put by a community of nuns who start a woollen factory, and are enabled to undersell him by the wretched wages they pay their workpeople, and the subventions which, through political influence, they are able to obtain from the Government. Mr. Quinn removes to Dublin.

Hyacinth has become engaged to Marion Beecher. Two possible means of livelihood present themselves—work on the *Croppy* newspaper under Miss Goold, or a curacy in England offered by Dr. Henry. He is about to accept the former, for which a necessary qualification is to "hate England and the Empire and everything English, from Parliament to the police-barrack," when in a private interview Canon Beecher impresses him with the incompatibility of such views with any real belief in Christ or His doctrines. The Canon conquers. "As for me," says Hyacinth, "if I have been forced to make a great betrayal [of my political principles], if I am to live hereafter very basely—and I think I am—at least I have not cut myself off from the opportunity of loving Him [Christ]." He weds Marion, obtains the curacy, and settles in England. "He accepted his new duties and performed them without any feeling of enthusiasm, and, after a little while, without any definite hope of doing any good. He got no further in understanding the people he had to deal with, and was aware that even those of them who came most frequently into contact with him, regarded him as a stranger."

The concluding pages of the book are not more cheering or definite as to the future of the principal characters than are those of 'The Seething Pot.' They leave Hyacinth and his wife "dishevelled, dirty, and tired" in Dublin after a night's passage from England, on a short holiday to Ireland. Father Moran is met by chance, and we are given no clue as to whether or not Hyacinth follows out his suggestion that he should occupy his father's old cure, vacant in his native village.

The defect in these charming novels—as in 'The Real Charlotte,' 'The Recollections of an R. M.,' and other brilliant books that of late years have appeared relating to Ireland—is that they are almost purely critical, dissolvent of hope. Their influence upon us in Ireland, tending as they do to show up our faults and weaknesses, and to tone down the acerbity of our differences, is doubtless upon the whole beneficial. But we are not a free people. We are governed largely through the prejudices of outsiders. The tendency of such writings as these is to strengthen their conception of us as naturally unreasonable, inconsequent, unstable, incapable of self-guidance and self-control, who must, out of kindness, be kept in leading-strings. There could not be a more mistaken estimate. We are the children of circumstances. Such altered, as they might be without injury to ourselves or others, life here, public and private, would flow on much as it does in other countries—no better, no worse. Enough of the naturally sweet and reasonable influences of public life run to waste here, and too often to evil, in any one year, sufficient under normal conditions to render happy any country of like population and of like natural capabilities to ours. These are hours of hope, not for bewildering, however brilliant, criticism. They are solemn hours, in which the inmost spirit of thoughtful Irishmen is best voiced by such utterances as Stephen Gwynn's beautiful monody of "Waiting":

"Is this, O Lord, Thy promised dawn,"

etc., which has lately been contributed to the press. D. B.

LECONTE DE LISLE.

PARIS, March 1, 1906.

Leconte de Lisle is one of the representatives of the modern poetic school of France. He was long the head of those who called themselves the Parnassians; his 'Poèmes Antiques' marked in the history of our modern literature a date, a revolution, almost as important as, fifty years before, had been marked by the 'Génie du Christianisme.' Chateaubriand's work was the beginning of what has been called the Romantic era, that became so illustrious under the reign of Lamartine and of Victor Hugo. The 'Poèmes Antiques' of Leconte de Lisle were in distinct contradiction of the traditions and teachings of the Romantic school. The Romantic poets, Lamartine, Victor Hugo, Alfred de Vigny, were essentially lyrical; the beauty of Victor Hugo's dramas does not lie in the dramatic developments, which are often feeble if not improbable and almost absurd, but in the magnificent lyrical parts, which can be detached and admired by themselves. The splendor of the scenery, the costumes, the talent of the actor, are but an envelope of the lyrical beauty.

Leconte de Lisle was the creator of the purely æsthetic school of Hellenism. There is no place in his work for lyrical development, for subjective emotions of any sort. The poet becomes a mere witness of nature; you can read his whole work without knowing anything of him. "The influence of Leconte de Lisle," writes

M. Brunetière, "has been considerable, as it was particularly exercised on rare disciples, on the chosen disciples, who suffice in everything to maintain and propagate the teachings of a master." He was more than sixty years old when he took his seat at the French Academy in the chair of Victor Hugo (who had invariably given him his solitary vote at all preceding elections); but from the age of twenty he had been the uncontested master of a school of young disciples. He seems to have had a natural gift for leading minds, and his disciples' devotion to him was absolute. M. Coppée, a brother poet, wrote in 1894: "Towards 1866, my comrades and myself used to go every Saturday evening to the house of Leconte de Lisle as believers go to Mecca."

A volume has recently appeared, written by M. Marius Ary Leblond, which gives a complete biography of Leconte de Lisle. It is interesting to enter into the details of the life of one who was so careful in his works to avoid the most distant allusion to himself. His muse was impersonal; she lived apart from the troubles, emotions, and passions of the time. The Parnassian school professed a sort of contempt and almost horror for the passionate Romantic school. The life of Leconte de Lisle, as now told to us, shows a curious contrast between the man and his poetic production. He was born in 1818 at Saint-Paul de la Réunion (called Bourbon at the time). He left the island for France at a very early age, but returned to it at the age of ten, and remained there till 1837. His first impressions were derived from the sea and from the tropical scenery. He spent his youth at Dinan in Brittany, and at Rennes, where he began to study law; but he was not attracted by this severe discipline, and turned to literature. He wrote much verse; he wrote also literary criticism for a provincial review, edited at Rennes, and gave his opinion on the writers of the time, not only in France, but also in England. The titles of some of his articles are worth noticing: "Strophes to Lamennais," "Literary Sketches," "Hoffmann and Fantastic Satire," "Sheridan and Comic Art in England"; "André Chénier and Lyrical Poetry at the End of the Eighteenth Century." He often wrote under a pseudonym. His judgment of Lamartine is rather severe:

"I at last decided to read 'Jocelyn'; I confess that the reading has not been without difficulty. . . . There are charming passages in it, magnificent pages of elevated poetry. The picture of the night, in the Eagle's Grotto, is truly sublime, and one encounters parts exquisite in sentiment; but you must confess, also, that there are long passages which much weaken this charming and incorrect work."

His admiration for Victor Hugo was entire, at the time; he calls him the "regenerating genius." He styles Théophile Gautier, the eccentric author of 'Fortunio' and of the 'Comedy of Death,' a witty "literary lion." His definition of a literary lion is: a writer "qui fait de l'art pour l'art"; and this might afterwards have been applied to himself. Balzac surprises him by his fecundity: "The present time abounds in enigmas of all sorts, as is easily conceivable, for nothing is quite stable yet in politics or in literature; but if there is a problem of which the solution is next to impossible, it is the exhaustless fecundity of M. de Balzac." Madame Sand has his entire praise and admiration; he speaks with enthusiasm of Indiana, of Geneviève, those "frank angels," those "charming and frail flowers," of Lélia, "a sublime spirit, a ray of her genius." She seduced him by her intense love of nature; her heroines are well forgotten, but her descriptions are still readable. He was very republican in sentiment, and so was Madame Sand; this community of political aspirations was another tie between them.

In these early essays we find not only literary judgments: Leconte de Lisle gives also his philosophical and social views. He wrote for a Catholic review, and could not well disagree with its religious tendencies; but he showed that he considered Christianity a system of morals, a philosophical creation. These independent views, however, were only in germ in his early writings. The review in which they appeared did not live more than a year; it ceased to appear in March, 1841. Leconte de Lisle returned to his law studies. In 1843 he left Nantes in a sailing vessel for the Isle of Bourbon. He became for a time a lawyer, but felt very solitary, and applied himself to philosophical and social studies. He began to read the *Démocratie Pacifique*, a paper founded by Victor Considérant, and became imbued with the ideas of the socialist school of the *Phalanstère*. He entered into correspondence with some of the writers for that paper, and, returning to Paris in 1845, himself became one of its contributors. At the same time, he gave sundry poems to a Fourierite paper, *La Phalange*, which have not been republished.

After the Revolution of 1848, he took a prominent part in the abolition of slavery in the French colonies. His father suppressed the small allowance which he sent him, and he was obliged to give lessons in Greek and Latin, and to make translations. He was sent as a delegate of the Provisional Government to Brittany, but had not much success in trying to reconcile the Bretons to the new Government. "You can hardly imagine," he writes from Dinan, "the state of stolidity, ignorance, natural brutality, of this unfortunate Brittany. . . . It is as clear as day that the Revolution will be cheated; the Assembly will be composed of bourgeois and of royalists. . . . How stupid the people is!" The poet adds: "This does not hinder me from living on intellectual heights, in the calm, in the serene contemplation of divine forms. There is a great tumult at the base of my brain, but its higher part knows nothing of casual happenings." Leconte de Lisle paints himself exactly in this phrase: he does not profit much by what he calls casual happenings. His *milieu* is the revolutionary world of 1848. During the terrible insurrection of June, 1848, writes Madame Dornis (a lady who saw much of him in the latter part of his life), he was observed on the barricades in company with Paul de Flotte! The two friends carried powder to the insurgents; they fought. One day Leconte de Lisle was arrested in a little street of the Faubourg St.-Germain; he had powder in his pockets, and was put in prison. 'For forty-eight hours, the longest of my life," he said, "I remained in prison; but they had left me my books, and I continued to translate Homer."

After the *coup d'état* of Louis Bonaparte he became thoroughly disgusted with politics: "I cannot express the anger which burns my heart at witnessing, in my impotence, this murder of the Republic which was the sacred dream of our life. . . . The popular masses are stupid; the Counter-Revolution is in power. France is dishonored in Europe, and we have no more blood in our veins." After the fall of the Empire there appeared a volume of 'Papiers Secrets et Correspondance du Second Empire' in which was a note, showing that Napoleon III. had paid Leconte de Lisle a pension of 3,600 francs since the month of July, 1864. The poet's friends were much disconcerted. The pension had been obtained through the influence of Madame Cornu, a personal friend of the Emperor. This revelation made a great noise at the time. Leconte de Lisle wrote to a friend: "A fatal necessity obliged me to accept the offer made me, for my allowance from the Isle of Bourbon was not paid, and I had to take charge of my mother. I had to choose between the life and the death of my people. I sacrificed myself." The Republic was generous and maintained the pension, adding to it the post of Librarian of the Senate. Leconte de Lisle was elected a member of the French Academy on the 31st of March, 1887, at the age of sixty-nine years, and died in 1894.

M. Leblond's volume is a perpetual apotheosis of Leconte de Lisle; its interest lies chiefly in the facts and dates it contains. It would give but an imperfect idea of the poet to those who had not read his works; but it may take its place among the numerous articles and reviews which have had Leconte de Lisle for their subject. The translations of the great Greek and Latin poets by Leconte de Lisle can be highly commended for their admirable exactitude; and his two volumes, 'Poèmes Barbares,' 'Poèmes Antiques,' have pages which will always be remembered.

Correspondence.

A NEW SOCIETY WANTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The late ghastly disaster on the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad, after many not much smaller ones on other American roads, "must give us pause." Other evils in the United States have been remedied by movements which began with the starting of a society for that sole end—for instance, slavery. It is my ambition to start an American Association for Putting an End to Railroad Wrecks. They are a disgrace to the United States, being more frequent and more deadly here than in any other country in the world. The reasons for the frequency of these horrors are well known: one is the public's preference for speed over its own safety; the other is the preference of the railroad managers for big profits over the safety of crews and of passengers. The sparse population in the South and West prevents such precautions as double tracks which make head-on collisions impossible, and many other contrivances nearly as expensive as the double

track; but slower travel would easily make up for the lack of them. In more densely settled parts of the country all the precautions that are taken by British, French, and German roads could be easily introduced, but the railroad management finds it cheaper to pay damages occasionally for the loss of life and limb than to prevent such loss. There is a simple remedy for this: the law should impose such heavy liability for the loss of life, for mutilation or sufferings, caused by clearly proved neglect (and a collision is always the result of neglect), as to make a disaster like the late one near Denver equal to the bankruptcy of the road.

The work of a society for stopping railroad wrecks should thus have a double aspect: first, to educate the travelling public into a preference for safety over speed; second, to strive for such legislation, both State and Congressional, as will force the railroad managements to put freedom from disaster above the desire for heavy receipts and big dividends.

My name is not too unknown and obscure to figure in originating a great movement like this: any one can find it in 'Who's Who' and some other national biographies. What I propose is this: Let those who, like myself, feel the importance of such a movement and who read these lines, either in the *Nation* or in any of the newspapers or periodicals that may copy them, give me by letter or postal card their names, with occupation and post-office address; and as soon as one hundred names are received I shall have them printed and forward the lists to all those sending their names—that is, to the founders of the new society, so that they may agree on a place of meeting and a plan of organization.

Louisville is among the greater cities of the United States nearest to the centre of population, and might do very well for the first place in which to meet for organization.

Very respectfully,

LEWIS N. DEMBITZ.

LOUISVILLE, March 18, 1906.

POOR RICHARD'S POETRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The verses which served to enliven the pages of 'Poor Richard's Almanack' (1733-1758) were collected and edited, in 1890, by Paul Leicester Ford. On the title-page they are called "Poems of Benjamin Franklin." In the introduction the editor quotes Franklin's own statement, "I need not tell thee that many of them are of my own making," and adds that he has "been able to identify but one or two pieces as from other pens." Perhaps some of your readers may be interested in a longer list of the great man's borrowings.

The verses for June, July, and August, 1733, are clipped from Dryden's translation of Virgil's first Georgic. The lines for May, "My love and I for kisses play'd," were written by William Strode (1602-1645). They are quoted in Ashton's 'Humour, Wit and Satire of the Seventeenth Century,' from 'Witts Recreations,' London, 1640. So are half of Poor Richard's verses for May, 1734. The couplet for December, 1734, "Is't not enough," etc., is from Young's 'Love of Fame,' Sat. v.

The introductory verses for 1736, "Presumptuous man," etc., and the verses for March, are from Pope's 'Essay on Man.'

The lines for February, 1737, and for November, 1738, appear in a volume of 'Miscellaneous Poems by Several Hands,' published by D. Lewis, London, 1726. The epigram for May, 1737, is from William Walsh.

The lines for April, 1738, 'The Old Gentry,' are adapted from Prior's poem of the same title.

The lines for June, 1739, 'On his late Deafness,' are conveyed from Swift's 'Complaint on his own Deafness.'

For 1740, nine pieces of verse (76 lines in all) are clipped from Gay's 'Fables.'

For 1741, five pieces are taken from Gay's 'Fables,' and three from Swift's 'Strephon and Chloe.'

In 1743, the February verses are Prior's 'Democritus and Heraclitus.'

In 1744, the twenty lines entitled 'The Country Man' are Pope's 'Ode on Solitude.' The June verses are taken from Pope's 'Essay on Criticism,' the lines for August from Pope's 'January and May.' The April and July verses are from Thomson's 'Summer.'

For 1745, five pieces are clipped from Pope's 'Essay on Man,' and one from Pope's 'Moral Essays.' The ten lines for June are from Lyttelton, 'An Epistle to Mr. Pope' (from Rome, 1730). The lines for July are from Armstrong's 'Art of Preserving Health,' Bk. iii.

In 1746, ten pieces (a total of 76 lines) are taken from Young's 'Love of Fame.' In 1747 eight pieces, and in 1750 six more, are taken from the same poem. (It was in his preface for 1747 that Franklin stated that many of these verses were his own.)

In 1751, the April and June verses are adapted from Gay's 'Trivia.'

In 1752, all the verses for the year, 'On Public Spirit,' are taken from Richard Savage, 'Of Public Spirit in regard to Public Works.' Some of the lines are changed to fit local conditions.

There are a good many other poems, especially in the later issues of the Almanack, which are probably not original. Perhaps some one who has special knowledge of eighteenth-century literature will help to identify them, and throw some further light upon Franklin's course of reading. In some cases one finds a very familiar sentiment or situation, without being able to say just who is responsible for its present form. For example, the verses for October, 1742, and May, 1743, come, through some channel, from Horace, Odes, ii. 10 and iv. 7. The simile for October, 1734, seems to come from Horace, Ars Poet., 304, and the epigram for November, 1734, from Martial, i. 38. The situation set forth for June, 1734, is the subject of the first story in 'L'Élite des Contes du Sieur d'Ouville,' and the story for March, 1741, is merrily told in Montaigne, 'Essais,' ii. 32.

WILFRED P. MUSTARD.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, March 17, 1906.

LOWELL AND MEREDITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent in the last *Nation* calls attention to the fact that Mr. Lowell gave to the Harvard University Library in 1885 a copy of George Meredith's Poems which the author had given him but two years before.

In answer to this it is only fair to notice that in 1885, when Mr. Lowell came home from Europe after an absence of eight years, his own house was leased, and he did not occupy it again for a considerable time. It seems but natural, then, that, in providing for the accumulations of those eight years, he should decide to give the books to the Harvard Library for use and safekeeping; and it should not be considered a test of his estimate of them, as your correspondent intimates, that he should so dispose even of authors' gifts.

E. L.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 18, 1906.

Notes.

'A History of Architecture,' in three volumes, by Russell Sturgis, is announced by the Baker & Taylor Co., volume one being set down to appear in the autumn, and the others at short intervals. Each will contain nearly 500 illustrations in half-tone and line, with select plates by the carbon-gravure process.

McClure, Phillips & Co. have nearly ready 'The Meaning of Good,' by G. Lowes Dickinson.

'Consumption: Its Relation to Man and his Civilization,' by John Bessner Huber, M.D., is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

The spring announcements of George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, include a 'Life of Frederick Douglass,' by Booker Washington; 'The Battles of Labor,' by Carroll D. Wright, ex-United States Commissioner of Labor; 'The Literary History of Philadelphia,' by Ellis P. Oberholtzer; and 'The Rambles of an Idler,' by Dr. Charles C. Abbott.

A 'Russian Reader,' from the French of Profs. Paul Boyer and N. Speranski, by Samuel N. Harper, is just issuing from the University of Chicago Press.

Antiquarians will be interested in a forthcoming book, on 'The Ancient Crosses and Holy Wells of Lancashire,' by Henry Taylor, F.S.A. (Manchester: Sherratt & Hughes). In order to accomplish his task thoroughly, he has not only devoted much time to personal investigation of the localities, but has made a minute study of the ordnance maps and of numerous documents bearing on the history of the district from the invasion of the Northmen to the dissolution of the monasteries, and indeed to the days when the municipal authorities triumphed over the monks, and when the Jacobin market-cross, the successor of others on the same site, became the centre of commercial prosperity. Attention will be drawn to the numerous natural fastnesses—*e. g.*, the rock in Manchester at the junction of the Irk and the Irwell—seized upon for purposes of defence not merely in the Stone, Iron, and Bronze Ages, but in Roman and post-Roman times. There will also be notes on the pre-Reformation churches and monastic institutions and the superstitions of the county. The illustrations, one hundred and forty in number, will include maps to a large scale of the six Lancashire hundreds (Leyland, Blackburn, West Derby, Amounderness, Lonsdale, and Salford), showing the course of the rivers, the strongholds, the position of

the crosses, etc. The edition will be limited to two hundred and fifty-five copies.

The death of Miss Susan B. Anthony is announced as we turn the pages of a new edition of Mill's 'Subjection of Women' (Longmans), edited by Dr. Stanton Coit, who avowedly offers it as a revived weapon for the British Women's Suffrage Movement. Working women having begun to be drawn into the agitation, Dr. Coit has made his volume inexpensive, and has prefixed the argument in outline, which any reader may be glad to avail himself of. At the end the editor reviews the disabilities of women in Mill's day and at the present, with the conclusion that there has been relatively little change. His other remarks are eminently restrained and judicious.

We noticed with approval last autumn A. Harold Unwin's 'Future Forest Trees; or, The Importance of the German Experiments in the Introduction of North American Trees'—British experiments as well. A. Wessels Company are now introducing this not bulky work to the American market.

Five years ago we reviewed M. Victor Bérard's 'L'Angleterre et l'Impérialisme,' and it is a proper tribute to the solid character of this work, well supplied with official documents, that an Englishman now translates it, viz., H. W. Foskett, M. A., Oxon., under the title, 'British Imperialism and Commercial Supremacy.' It is very handsomely brought out by Messrs. Longman. In spite of the recent general election, this must be thought a timely anti-Chamberlain tract (300 pages octavo).

A famous Puritan tract, Nathaniel Ward's 'The Simple Cobler of Agawam,' has been fitly added as No. 14 to the Publications of the Ipswich (Mass.) Historical Society. The edition followed is the fourth London, of 1647, and the title-page and some other portions are reproduced in facsimile, while the text is a literal transcript in antique fashion. This is followed by some account of the eminent author, and a summary of the pedantic farrago, in which religious intolerance and political independence jostle each other. Ipswich men have not a monopoly of interest in this local product, and every public library should seek to obtain a copy.

Dodd, Mead & Co. publish a volume of papers and addresses by Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, about one-third of which deal with the founding and early years of the Johns Hopkins University and give the volume its title, 'The Launching of a University.' The chapters of this portion of the book appeared in large part as contributions to *Scribner's* and the *Century*, two or three years ago, and received some notice in these columns at the time. The remainder is devoted to educational addresses delivered on various occasions, such as the Yale Bi-Centennial, the dedication of the Princeton Library building in 1898, and the inauguration of President Wheeler of the University of California. A fine picture of Dr. Gilman, dated 1905, forms the frontispiece, and indicates a mind and physique still good for years of profitable endeavor.

In addition to Professor Harrison's outline 'History of Greece,' which formed the opening volume of the "Story of the Nations" series, Messrs. Putnam concluded that the subject merited a more detailed treatment. The work was accordingly put into the hands of Dr. E. S. Shuckburgh, and the first of his two volumes has just appeared, covering the time from the coming of the Hellenes—not definitely dated, of course—down to the death of Augustus. In accordance with better ideas of relative importance, the emphasis is thrown upon political, intellectual, and artistic development rather than the vicissitudes of military operations.

From the Macmillan Co. we have a volume of 'Lectures on the Early History of the Kingship,' by J. G. Frazer, D.C.L. The theory of the evolution of kingship out of the primitive institution of magic, as developed in these lectures, will appear, we are told, as part of the author's well-known 'Golden Bough,' a third edition of which is promised for the near future. As Mr. Frazer's studies in this subject are there to be set forth in fuller form, it seems best to defer elucidation or criticism until the additional material shall be at hand.

We receive from Lemcke & Buechner a copy of Otto Jespersen's 'Growth and Structure of the English Language' (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner), which we have lately characterized as a very suggestive and stimulating little book. We hope the author may yet achieve the companion volume contemplated on page 246, discussing "how one form of English came to be taken as standard in reference to dialects," "all the problems connected with that pseudo-historical and anti-educational abomination, the English spelling," "provincialisms, cockneyisms, and vulgarisms," "Pidgin-English and Negro-English," etc.

Mr. James Schouler's 'Law of the Domestic Relations' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is an abridgment of the author's well-known larger work upon this subject, and "makes use, besides, of the lecture notes used by him for twenty years or more as a law-school professor." It cites over twenty-five hundred cases, and will be found a convenient manual for students. A companion volume, by the same author, on the 'Law of Bailments,' is also issued by the same house. This, too, is based on the author's larger work. Special prominence is given to the topics of Pledge and Carriers.

The opening chapter of Dr. Victor Tourneur's 'Histoire des Études Celtiques' is introductory, dealing with the history of the Celtic races, their languages, ancient and modern, the sources of their literature, and the Pan-Celtic movement. In the remaining two hundred pages this author discusses the state of learning in Ireland and Wales from the earliest times to the present day, the work of Gaelic, Manx, Cornish, and Breton scholars, etc. There are also chapters on current theories as to the Celts and their languages, on Celtic philology, and on the teaching of Celtic. The book may be had on application to the author, at 98 Rue Defacqz, Saint-Gilles, Bruxelles, Belgium.

How many years ago would a "Finding List of Music" have seemed a surprising novelty in a public library's apparatus? Not many. Such a list comes to us from the Worcester (Mass.) Free Public Library, and fills with the index nearly 100 pages. Its shortcomings, of course, are those of the collection to which it furnishes a key, but they do not seriously impair its utility in any other library.

Lemcke & Buechner send us parts 29-40 of the new (third) edition of 'Meyer's Geographischer Hand-Atlas,' of whose commendable qualities we have spoken from time to time. These parts are occupied solely with the index; so here is one more convenient and copious little gazetteer of names, handy for reference without regard to the maps on which it is based.

The weight of illustration in the March number of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* is given to the enlarged Harvard Club building in this city, along with an account of the celebration at the opening last December. But there is a pleasant innovation in two portraits of Continental lecturers contributing to the international exchange now firmly established—one of Wilhelm Ostwald, the other of Anatole le Braz. Of interest also is a plan of the college grounds and vicinity, with red coloring for buildings erected within twenty years. The Radcliffe College group is here very conspicuous, as it is to the eye of every visitor to Cambridge.

Now that the cessation of war allows the Japanese Government a free hand in Korea, the lawless and irresponsible subjects of the Mikado are seeking cover, while the forces of order are being rapidly organized for efficiency. The *Seul Press Weekly* tells of sixty-nine unemployed Japanese summoned to give account of themselves. Twenty-nine were ordered to leave the country at once, and the others received their first warning to get to work. The Japanese military administration under Gen. Hasegawa ceased on January 31, and the Marquis Ito, with his staff and subordinates, began civil government. In all places where there were consuls, Japanese, and in all others Korean, police authority will prevail. A Japanese customs cruiser and a commission for the codification of the laws are actively at work. The opportunities of unprincipled low-class Japanese for spoliation of the native peasantry are likely to be greatly curtailed. On the 25th of January, at the American Hospital for Women, in Seul, the first native Korean trained nurses were graduated. They received not only their certificates, but, as is eminently proper in the land which has a unique language and etiquette of headgear, their caps. Under the inspection of the former chief of police in Nagasaki, the Korean prisons are receiving attention and reform. The one-garment and one-meal-a-day system, with no beds, and the detention of prisoners without trial—some of them for ten years—is to give way to the Japanese system, which of late years has been reorganized after the models in Elmira and Concord and the best examples in Europe.

The near-Eastern question was the subject of a characteristic speech by Mr. Bryce at a dinner given in his honor in London, February 23, at which were present the ministers of Greece, Bulgaria, and Servia, and a member of the French Senate. He began by decrying the narrow view that the duty of a great nation was confined to the protection of its own interests. He was brought up to think that it was one of the first duties of a British citizen to be interested in the cause of liberty and human-

ity elsewhere. While he could not approve a war from the mere hope of ameliorating conditions in a foreign country, he held that a government, provided it was the sentiment and will of the people, should exert its power and influence on behalf of humanity and justice, and he believed that the British, French, and Italian peoples were willing that their Governments should act so now. The regeneration of the East would be effected, in his opinion, by the erection of the nations in the Turkish Empire into states, and, from the capacity shown by these peoples and their powerful individuality, he hoped that each nation would produce some new and distinctive type of civilization proper to its peculiar character and gifts. It would be a happy consummation, a cheering result to follow after so many centuries of misery, and it would be an honor and glory to the free peoples of Italy, France, and England if they could be associated with that work.

Prof. Ulrich Wilcken, easily the leading German papyrus authority, fills forty pages in the January issue of *Hermes* with the particulars of a surprising and valuable find he has made. He put together forty pieces, large and small, of a papyrus making a document twenty-three centimetres long by eighteen centimetres wide. The language of the writing is Greek, and the skill of the investigator has succeeded in finding in it a fragment of a hitherto unknown source for the history of the Second Punic War, and that, too, a source of the first quality, namely, the work known as the 'Deeds of Hannibal,' composed by Sosylos, the war companion, secretary, and language teacher of the great Carthaginian general. This fragment belongs to the papyri collection of the University of Würzburg, having been bought for this collection by Dr. Prym, the professor of mathematics in that institution. The Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* says we may believe Wilcken when he avers that it was hard for him "librum non scribere" on his discovery.

The tenth International Congress of Geologists has been called to convene in the city of Mexico on the 6th of September, 1906. Sr. José G. Aquilera will be the chairman, and Sr. Eziquael Ordony the general secretary. The official programme announces a number of excursions in connection with the convention, as also the four leading topics to be discussed. Applications are to be addressed to the general secretary; membership tickets cost $4.

—A correspondent writes us from Florence under date of March 7:

"*La Nazione* of yesterday had little on its first page except long and appreciative notices of two remarkable Englishwomen, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, the centenary of whose birth it was, and Jessie White Mario, who had died the day before, and whose body was to be carried in the afternoon to the crematory at Trespiano. At four o'clock a crowd stood in front of the house where she had lived, No. 125 Via Romana, and half an hour later a hearse, completely covered with flowers—callas, orchids, an immense wreath of violets, roses, lilies-of-the-valley—gifts from Signora Mario's pupils in the Istituto di Magistero Femminile, where she had been a teacher, from the city of Florence, and from various societies and friends, moved slowly down the narrow street, followed first by the hundred schoolgirls who had sent red and white roses and green palms to symbolize Italy. Behind them walked a group of distinguished men, and the procession was closed by Garibaldian and workingmen's societies carrying banners. It went from the Via Romana into the Via Maggio, where the tablet that marks Casa Guidi had been wreathed with flowers by order of the mayor in honor of Elizabeth Browning, and the English and Italian flags hung side by side; then across the Arno, by the Ponte Santa Trinità, to the Porta San Gallo on the other side of the city. There it stopped, and Prof. Pasquale Villari and Professor Eccher spoke words of farewell. Professor Villari said: 'She had only one ideal, only one affection: the love of Italy, and the worship of those who lived and died for our country. . . . In 1859 and afterwards, she was on all of Garibaldi's battlefields, caring for the wounded, whom she collected together under the enemy's fire. She always showed so much courage that Garibaldi decorated her with military honors. When the battles were over, when Garibaldi retired to Caprera, she began to write the lives of the Italian patriots. . . . All these works cost her much labor, and gave her little or no money. Her only object, and her only reward, were the glory and honor of Italy, which she loved and admired above every other nation, and for which alone she wished to live and die. . . . Her place is among the saints and heroes of our Revolution, and her epitaph may well be: "She lived and died for Italy and for duty."' *Il Nuovo Giornale*, a new daily paper of much promise, says: 'She is followed by the loving thoughts and gratitude of the younger generation of Italy, for whom she hoped, fought, and suffered so much. *Fieramosca's* notice ends with: 'The reverent salute of every Italian is paid to her sacred memory; and the gratitude of all those who feel the love of country and admire while living and mourn when dead the noble, brave Englishwoman, heroically faithful to Italy.' *La Vita* (Rome) and *Il Corriere* have appreciative personal reminiscences."

—The 'History of All Nations' (Philadelphia: Lea), to which some time ago we devoted a long article, has advanced from its tenth to its fourteenth volume. Chronologically, the tract thus covered extends from the beginning of the Reformation to the middle of the eighteenth century—the outbreak of theological disturbance forming the subject of Vol. XI; the religious wars, of Vol. XII; Louis XIV. and his era, of Vol. XIII; and the balance of power, of Vol. XIV. The author to whom we are indebted for all four volumes, is Dr. Martin Philippson, a thoroughly competent authority so far as statement of essential facts is concerned, and a more enlivening writer than some of his predecessors in the same series. For the Lutheran period and the era of the Thirty Years' War, the illustrations seem particularly good, while as we advance farther and farther into modern times the narrative becomes sufficiently detailed to embrace topics which lie outside the beaten path of political epitome. A good deal of the material here employed has been drawn from the author's previous works, but not in a slavish way nor in such wise as to catch the notice of any one save the professional student. Those who are already familiar with the views which Dr. Philippson holds regarding the agencies of the Catholic Reaction, will be interested to see whether, in a series designed for popular use, he will employ a colorless style of statement or give free vent to his private opinions. Actually, he has followed the latter course, as may be seen from his account of the Jesuits. "'Loyola cared less,' said his secretary, Father Polanco, 'for natural goodness than for firmness of character and aptness for affairs, in those who wished to join this Society: for he was of opinion that men not qualified for public affairs were not suited to the work of our Society.' Piety evidently was of slight value in what concerned the temporal interests of the Company. In an official document, Polanco, in the name of his General, requires of the novice 'good natural endowments and capacity, either for science or for external good works'; he wants young men of fine appearance, of an agreeable exterior, 'as our mode of life and our relation to our neighbours demand.' Not a word about genuine piety as a condition for those who ask to join the Company. Intelligence, worldly wisdom and a fair exterior are what Loyola requires." We quote this passage simply to show how Dr. Philippson approaches one of the most controverted subjects in an era which bristles with acute theological disputes. He certainly has not sought to mask the nature of his convictions, but, as the foregoing excerpt will show, he makes a point of giving the grounds for his judgment in any given case. Of the volumes in this series which are still to appear, several have been written by American historians like the late John Fiske and Professor Andrews.

—We had just read in E. W. Prevost's 'Supplement to the Glossary of the Dialect of Cumberland' (H. Frowde), among the "similes current in the county," "Drunk as a potter (the last stage of drunkenness)," when a New York daily paper reported the potters of Trenton, N. J., to be the special objects of temperance reform at the present moment. "Drunk as a hatter" is current on the eastern border of the same State. "Blewd," by the way, is Cumberland for slewed. In old farmhouses the ground floor consisted of "the kitchen, into which the front door opened, and the *parlor*, formerly called the Bower, also opening into the kitchen, and both facing the south. The parlor was the room in which the master and mistress slept." If, now, we turn to a recent work of Mr. Waters's on colonial Ipswich (Mass.), we read (p. 23): "There were but two rooms on the main floor, the 'hall' and the parlor, and entrance to them was made from an entry in the middle of the house. The 'hall' of the old Puritan house was the 'kitchen' of the next century. . . . It was the living-room." The parlor was the "fine-room" or spare bedroom, but sometimes it was the sleeping-place of the owner. In 1646, Joseph Morse willed "the bed and all the bedding he lyeth on, standing in the parlor." Sitting or reception room it was not, on either side of the Atlantic.

—The Glossary affords the usual instruction in country customs, many as obsolete as gross. Nearly extinct is the indigenous Greyhound Fox, whose existence is mentioned by Bewick. Perhaps the most unexpected meaning for a familiar expression is shown in "horse sense," signifying acquisitiveness. Some French influences are remarked in the dialect, and the want of the genitive in *s* is at least parallel to a grave defect in French as compared with English. The word "ask" is seldom if ever used; one is "bidden out" or "speered for." And "throw" is similarly avoided. "'At" (that) replaces who, which, whom. Final *gh* is apt to be pronounced *f*, and so dough is sounded "duff." *H* is variously aspirated, in and out of place. "'Bessy, boil me a hegg.' 'Father, you should have said an egg.' 'Then gang and boil me two neggs.'"

K "was formerly pronounced at the commencement of words like knit, knap, and knot." A grammar of the dialect is contributed by S. Dickson Brown, a member of the Philological Society. This connection should have saved him, at page 10, from going counter to the Society's new English (Oxford) Dictionary, when explaining the idiom "I had rather." He is still in the bog of "I would [I'ld] rather."

—The twelfth part of the "Anecdota Oxoniensia, Mediæval and Modern Series," contains an edition and translation by Professor Kuno Meyer of the "Cáin Adamnáin," an early Irish treatise on the law of Adamnan. The document is of much interest, both to the Celtic grammarian and to the student of early Irish institutions. It belongs to that class of texts, now known to be numerous, which, though preserved in mediæval or even in modern manuscripts, are proved by their language to have been written in the Old Irish period. In this instance the two existing manuscripts date from the fifteenth and seventeenth centuries, respectively, and are both ultimately derived from a lost Book of Raphoe of uncertain age. The composition of the treatise itself, however, is probably to be assigned to the ninth century. The linguistic difficulties, which are usually considerable in the texts thus preserved, have been adequately dealt with by the experienced editor in his notes and glossary. Dr. Meyer has also done a good deal for the historical elucidation of the material, though he has been compelled by illness to abandon for the present his purpose of writing a systematic introduction on this phase of the subject. It is earnestly to be hoped that he may soon be able to resume the task. The treatise as it stands is clearly a mixture of historical and legendary elements, and an analysis of the underlying documents would make an interesting contribution to an important period of Irish ecclesiastical history. It will be remembered that the Law of Adamnan (best known, perhaps, as the "Lex Innocentium") was promulgated during the time of controversy about Roman and Celtic usages in the Irish Church.

HALDANE'S DESCARTES.

Descartes: His Life and Times. By Elizabeth S. Haldane. E P. Dutton & Co. 8vo, pp. xxviii., 398.

The facts which render Descartes interesting to us of to-day, may be summarized under three heads. First, modern philosophists are substantially unanimous in reckoning him as the founder of modern philosophy. Secondly, some of those who are most competent to judge of such a matter, tell us that his vast influence in philosophy is closely connected with the fact that, in an age of great mathematicians, he was either the second or nearly of that rank. That is, he cannot be compared with Fermat, but his power was not far from that of Desargues. He was particularly helpful in mathematics, for it was he who gave analytical geometry to the public, went far toward settling the signs of algebra, and gave a useful rule about algebraic equations.

The third class of facts which stimulate our curiosity concerning Descartes consists of sundry characteristics of the man which seem almost inexplicably at odds with the first two. It is staggering to common sense to find metaphysicians ranking Descartes so very high, and yet denying almost everything that he pronounced to be mathematically evident. What he plumes himself upon most and almost exclusively is his institution, for inquiry into any subject, of a method which, as he maintains, perforce must absolutely exclude all danger of falling into error; and yet almost every scientific proposition to the truth of which this method led him, and which, because it so resulted, he insists is as certain as that twice two is four, is now seen to be wildly false. Such is his notion that "the brutes" have no feeling, and may be vivisected as unconcernedly as one would saw through a log; that a vacuum is unthinkable, and that consequently our universe must be unlimited; that the movements of the planets are determined by vortices or whirls in the ether; that light is a material substance, resistance to the translation of which determines the law of refraction; that colliding bodies must behave in a way in which the fact is that no bodies really do. One is further surprised to find that so great a man seemed unable to see any merit in the work of Galileo, and was so disgusted with his denials of Scripture truth that he took no interest in his work; that he could see no mark of genius in the discovery by the boy Blaise Pascal of that hexagram from which all the properties common to conic sections can be deduced; and that he even affected to look down upon the works of Fermat, of Vieta, and of Desargues.

The most surprising thing of all, however, in a mind of such unquestionable power and greatness, is that Descartes seems to have been continually engaged, and that very successfully, in deceiving himself. Thus, he plainly regarded himself as the only philosopher worthy of that name that ever lived; and yet it seems impossible that, after eight years in perhaps the most admirable Jesuit college there ever was, he should not have been perfectly aware that his famous *Je pense, donc je suis* was taken entire out of St. Augustine's 'De Civitate Dei,' or 'De Anima,' or 'De Quantitate Animæ,' for its substance, as the form of the 'Discours de la Méthode' and of the 'Meditationes' is imitated from the 'Confessiones'; nor that he should have been totally unconscious of how far he availed himself of the results of Galileo, of Thomas Harriotts, and others whom he ignores. It would seem that at two different times he persuaded himself that he had made an absolutely clean sweep from his own mind of every vestige of belief in everything; for we cannot think that the inconsistent narratives in the 'Discours' and in the 'Meditationes' refer to the same occasion. And yet each time his definite purpose—as he would have hotly maintained it to be, had it been questioned, and as he distinctly states in the dedication of the 'Meditationes'—was to put certan predesignate propositions of theology beyond question. As long as this universal and absolute doubt lasted (for he apparently had no doubt at all that in a month or two, at the most, it would be over), he decided that it would certainly be best for him to continue in all respects to conduct himself as if he retained his old belief; as if it were possible for a man for days to keep up, without fail, a line of conduct about all things without the slightest belief in the advantage of such conduct—always, for example, using the tongs to stir his fire, instead of his fingers, though he had utterly dismissed all belief that fire would burn his fingers. One of the provisional rules that he adopted for his guidance during his period of doubt was that he should firmly and resolutely adhere in his conduct to the effect of each and every item of his former beliefs, no matter how utterly improbable it might be shown to be, so long as it was not mathematically demonstrated to be false! Verily, had he included among his doubts a very strong doubt whether he really was doubting the while, his state of mind would have been less childish. The last part of his life was devoted to the study of physiology and medicine, entirely without books, as was his wont, with no view to any publication, but simply to prolong his own life. Yet he died of pneumonia at fifty-four, probably in consequence of his obstinate opposition to the physician whom he had called in.

Such are the facts that excite our curiosity about Descartes. We want to know, first of all, better than anybody has yet told us, what the particular character of his mathematical genius was; and then, what relation there was between his mathematical thought and his philosophy. We want to know what all our hand-books of the history of philosophy, except Hoefding's, leave very mysterious (and even that does not sufficiently explain), wherein and whereby he is the founder of all modern philosophy. We want as detailed a picture as possible of the wilful and irrational element of the man, or of whatever else it may have been that seems such, together with all that seems wise and practical; and after the facts have been given, we want to see them treated by scientific psychology, so that we may gain a comprehension of the make-up of this extraordinary intellect. We want to know with the utmost minuteness about the education of the boy and of the man.

On the other hand, there are facts which restrict our curiosity, or give it special directions. Descartes took not the slightest interest either in scientific politics or in the political and ecclesiastical movements of his times, excepting so far as they might have a bearing upon his own security, peace, and dignity, and, further, excepting a lively interest in some sieges and perhaps other military operations. Consequently, Miss Haldane's chapters on the general history of his "times," however interesting in themselves (and really they tell us nothing that we have not often read before), connect themselves only in their most general outlines with Descartes. He was a bachelor, and a thorough one. After he had devoted himself to philosophy he lived in more than seclusion, changing his domicile every few months from one Dutch town or village to another, and giving as his address some place sufficiently distant from where he really lived, whence letters could be forwarded to him. He used to lie abed till noon, doing his thinking. The rest of the day he spent in writing and in amusing himself in his solitary fashion, often doubtless at the

gaming-table. He took care always to have one good correspondent in Paris, for scientific and other correspondence, another at Leyden for business, and so on. The only ones in whom we are quite assured that he took a real personal interest were two royal ladies. This known, we do not particularly care in what precise order of succession he made his different abodes.

The narrative of the events of his life was told in two volumes with all-sufficient accuracy by the industrious Adrien Baillet in 1691, from information assiduously collected by an Abbé Legrand (or perhaps only later an abbé; but he must not be confounded with Père Antoine Le Grand, called the "abbreviator of Descartes" on account of his still useful 'Institutio Philosophiæ'). Baillet was not an elegant writer, but he knew, by great experience, how to write an accurate and useful book; he had all the information about Descartes that anybody can have now (barring a few minutiæ), and much besides. The volume of Blackwood's admirable "Philosophical Classics" that is devoted to Descartes is from the pen of Professor Mahaffy. We need not say that it is a very useful book, nor that it leaves much to be desired, were it only owing to its smallness. The latter must still more apply to Edward Caird's article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' It becomes clear enough, then, what was wanted in the way of an English volume on Descartes. We should have preferred something like a reproduction (abridged, if necessary) of Baillet, with annotations, and with three long appendices, one of which should explain Descartes as a mathematician, another what he did for philosophy, and a third the man himself. Of these four desiderata, Miss Haldane sufficiently supplies the first, although she omits some facts with the apparent purpose of avoiding what would be unfavorable to Descartes, such as the details of his behavior in his last illness. She evidently knows nothing of mathematics or its history—even referring to Desargues, who carried projective geometry to wonderful heights, as one "whose work in life was to make inventions which might prove of practical value to artisans and mechanical workers," and whom "we may judge to have been a popular writer and adapter rather than purely a man of science." Had she taken the trouble to refer to Moritz Cantor's work or any other modern history of mathematics, that bit of silly stuff would have been spared. Of philosophical comment there is more than enough; but it is not of the right kind, being neither critical nor elucidative of the historical position of Descartes, and simply consists in telling her readers, as if they were three-year-old tots, what they "of course" believe. Moreover, it is written from the standpoint of the vaguest and weakest variety of Hegelianism. However, the reader can skip all those parts, and probably will. The reviewer had not this happy privilege.

The nature and character of the man are insufficiently considered. We should like to have been told more of the studies at the Jesuit College of La Flèche, or, in default of that information, of the best Jesuit instruction of the time. In particular, we should like to know how much Descartes would be likely to hear there about St. Augustine and the 'De Civitate Dei.' The 'Correspondance' of Descartes, as now so ably edited in the new edition of his works by Adam and Tannery, would supply material for the exercise of a great power of psychological analysis. Instead of anything of that sort, we find only insipid, vacillating, inconsistent reflections, such as the most superficial reader would make for himself. The style of the book is easy and unperiodical; a little too much so, perhaps. Superfluous words are not avoided. We venture to guess that the phrase "later on," for an adverbial *later*, may occur, on the average, once in five pages, in the chapters where there is any occasion for it. At any rate, one tires of it. The index is sufficient. We might have picked the author up about many points; but we have endeavored to avoid fault-finding that would not touch the essential merits or demerits of the work.

IBSEN'S LETTERS.

Letters of Henrik Ibsen. Translated by John Nilsen Laurvik and Mary Morison. New York: Fox, Duffield & Co. 1905.

There are men who put so much of themselves into their letters that these remain their best biography. They are usually little affected by their surroundings, and ask only to be let alone that they may develop what is in them. Such a one was Ibsen. He realized from the first that in Norway he had small chance of being left to himself, and so he avoided his native land. Once well out of it, his career was unaffected by his setting, and he could have written just as well in London as in Rome or Dresden or Munich. He hated correspondence, but, like many persons who profess this distaste, he wrote a great many letters, and, as they appear in the present collection, they are a perfectly sufficient account of his life.

He was born at Skien in 1828, of a family once prosperous, but then reduced to poverty. The break with his parents dates almost from his fourteenth year, when he went to Grimstad to become an apothecary's apprentice, and shocked the respectable citizens by his comic verses and caricatures. From the first he hated every symptom of orthodoxy or social prejudice. His people were both conventional and orthodox, and at the age of twenty, when he went to Christiania, Ibsen severed his connection with them, convinced, as he told Brandes in more than one letter, that the only important thing is to save one's self, to develop one's talent, and to escape from those who could only condemn or misunderstand. It was more than forty years before he revisited Skien; his parents, who died in the seventies, he never saw again. Except for a few months of study in Christiania in 1850-51, there is no trace of any formal education. In the latter year Ibsen went to Bergen as stage-manager of a theatre. There he met and married Susanna Thoresen, whom nearly twenty years later he describes as having "exactly the character desiderated by a man of mind—she is illogical, but has a strong poetic instinct, a broad, liberal mind, and an almost violent antipathy to all petty considerations."

From 1857-64 Ibsen was again in Christiania as "artistic director" of the Norwegian Theatre, a position which barely provided him with the means to support himself and his wife and child. Those years of hardship were soon over. Norway may not provide an atmosphere favorable to the unconventional genius, but she makes it easy for him to live elsewhere. The first Government grant was awarded to Ibsen in 1862—the sum of £27 for the expenses of a summer tour to collect the songs and legends of Norway—and about the same amount in the following year for the same purpose. The book that was to have been the fruit of these journeys never appeared. In 1863 he was given a travelling-grant of £90. His debts, which amounted to about £112, were paid by his friends in Christiania, and he left Norway, which in the next twenty-seven years he was to revisit only twice, and then with reluctance and misgivings. What made this long exile possible was a life pension of £90 granted by the Norwegian Storthing in 1866. But until his writings began to pay, as they soon did under the auspices of his Danish publisher, it was the generosity of his Norwegian friends that supplemented the Government grants and enabled him to live in comfort in Rome. In spite, therefore, of Ibsen's dislike and disdain of Norwegian narrowness and parochialism, constantly expressed in these letters, Norway has no reason to be ashamed of her treatment of her iconoclastic son. In 1872 he writes of the "mean behavior" of the Government in refusing to increase this annuity. Ibsen never visited England, where, in the early seventies, the most sympathetic of all his critics, Mr. Gosse, had introduced his plays to the readers of the *Spectator*, in which appeared, in 1872, the first English article on Ibsen. Of the Scandinavian countries he always looked to Denmark as the place "where one is least trammelled by existing prejudices," and it was a Dane, George Brandes, who, almost from the beginning, ranged himself on Ibsen's side and interpreted him to the public. The best letters in this collection are those to Brandes, which have already been published separately in the *Revue de Paris*, in a French translation.

Before he left Norway, Ibsen had published several plays, including "Catilina" (1850), "The Feast at Solhaug" (1856), "Lady Inger of Östraat" (1857), "The Vikings at Helgeland" (1858), "Love's Comedy" (1863). In Rome he at once began his drama on Julian. But what really possessed his thought at this time was the subject of "Brand," which suddenly came into his mind "in strong and clear outlines" one day in 1865 when he strolled into St. Peter's. While he wrote it, he felt "indescribably happy, with the exaltation of a Crusader."

"If I were asked to tell you," he wrote in that year to Björnson, "what has been the chief result of my stay abroad, I should say that it consisted in my having driven out of myself the æstheticism which had a great power over me—an isolated æstheticism with a claim to independent existence. . . . I am now sufficiently serious to be very severe with myself. An æsthete in Copenhagen once said to me: 'Christ is really the most interesting phenomenon in the world's history.' The æsthete enjoyed him as the glutton does the sight of an oyster. I have always been too strong to become a creature of that type; but what the intellectual asses might have made of me if they had had me all to themselves, I know not."

'Peer Gynt' was published in 1867. Ibsen was greatly annoyed by a Danish review which refused to treat it as poetry and classed it as polemical journalism. To this Ibsen replied: "My book *is* poetry; and if it is not, then it will be. The conception of poetry in our country, in Norway, shall be made to conform to the book." That is characteristic of his perfect self-confidence, which never admitted a criticism, never confessed to external influences. If he passed through the usual agonies of the creative genius, we have no trace of the struggle in these letters. In 1873 he had finished his two plays on the Emperor Julian, into which he put "a part of my own spiritual life." His ignorance of Greek was a serious hindrance to the true understanding of one whose own writings are accessible only in the original. In using the other sources for Julian's life and the period, he could not find out whether Eunapius wrote Latin or Greek, accepting finally the assurance of a friend that this Greek sophist was a Latin author. Meanwhile, he had transferred his home from Rome to Dresden. But Munich, where he spent some years in the seventies and eighties, was, he declared in 1879, his "own spiritual home." In 1879 the "Doll's House" was written at Rome and Amalfi, "Ghosts" at Sorrento in 1881. In 1880 Ibsen gives an interesting explanation of the alternative ending of the "Doll's House." He had heard that the play was likely to be adapted, and was threatened with a happier ending. "In order to prevent such a possibility, I sent a draft of an altered last scene, according to which *Nora* does not leave the house, but is forcibly led by *Helmer* to the door of the children's bedroom; a short dialogue takes place, *Nora* sinks down at the door, and the curtain falls. . . . Those who make use of the altered scene do so entirely against my wish." It was with reference to the storm raised by "Ghosts" that he said bitter things about majorities and the Liberals:

"The minority is always right, that minority which leads the van and pushes on to points which the majority has not yet reached. When I think how slow and heavy and dull the general intelligence is at home, a deep despondency comes over me, and it often seems to me that I might just as well end my literary activity at once. . . . . Liberty is the first and highest condition for me. At home they do not trouble much about liberty, but only about liberties—a few more or a few less, according to the standpoint of their party. . . . A fighter in the intellectual vanguard can never collect a majority round him. . . . At the point where I stood when I wrote each of my books, there now stands a tolerably compact crowd, but I myself am no longer there; I am elsewhere; farther ahead, I hope."

That the minority is right was "my fundamental principle in every field and domain." As to the Liberals, he wrote to Brandes, "They are Freedom's worst enemies—freedom of thought and spirit thrives best under absolutism; this was shown in France, afterwards in Germany, and now we see it in Russia."

In 1891 Ibsen left Germany and settled in Norway, exposing himself "to the cold, uncomprehending eyes of Christiania"; but in 1897 he writes to Brandes that in Norway "all the channels of intelligence are blocked," and plans to make a home for himself near the Sound, "between Copenhagen and Elsinore, on some free, open spot. . . . Up here by the fjords is my native land. But—but—but! Where am I to find my home land?" In 1900, however, the date of the last letter, he is still at Christiania, writing an open letter to a Dutch paper which had accused him of sympathizing with England in the Boer war. His convictions, as he again asserts, were on the side of England as the nation that had done most for the civilization of South Africa.

The publication of these letters will give all English readers of Ibsen a chance to correct their previous ideas of the man and his works. How necessary such correction is one can measure by reading again Mr. Shaw's 'Quintessence of Ibsenism,' with its carefully presented picture of Ibsen's philosophy, and its almost complete lack of interest in Ibsen as a poet and imaginative writer. Mr. W. L. Courtney, when he wrote his 'Idea of Tragedy' in 1900, would certainly have modified his remarks on Ibsen if he had read the Letters. He said in that essay (p. 117) that "'Brand' and 'Love's Comedy' are especially overshadowed by the thoughts of the Danish Kirkegaard," whose influence "evaporated later." Twice, however, Ibsen states in the Letters that he "has read little of Kirkegaard and understood less." On page 125 Mr. Courtney says that, after producing "Ghosts" and finding derision where he had looked for sympathy, "he shook the dust off his feet against his native country and lived abroad." The truth is, that "Ghosts" appeared in 1881, and, as Ibsen had not been in Norway since 1874, and then only for a brief visit, he had not had much opportunity to acquire the dust of his native land. Take up any criticism of Ibsen's plays and you will find the same sort of misconception. Perhaps the most unfair criticism that we have seen is that of Mr. Pinero, who described the Grand Hotel of Christiania with Ibsen coming "to sit on a particular chair in a particular window, his mug of beer upon the window-sill, to watch the world—his world of native Norwegian townsmen and touring foreigners. . . . I felt grateful that the tragic idea (in Greece and England) had developed in a larger atmosphere than the smoking-room of a Norwegian hotel." What Mr. Pinero should have seen was an old man of seventy, who, after forty years' exile and dramatic production surrounded by influences as little Scandinavian as he could manage to make them, had come home to spend his last years, and was finding Norway and its tourists extremely uncongenial to the "tragic idea."

Ibsen is not a good letter-writer. He always wrote under compulsion, took a complete holiday from correspondence during the composition of a drama, and wasted no words. The entertaining letter-writer must waste many words, display a gift for lively description, anecdote, and epigram, and, above all, be human, showing us his weaknesses—a sight that always endears. Ibsen's readers will find little of all this. He took himself seriously as he took his plays—an attitude fatal to the charm of the epistolary manner. But he is a man who will inevitably be misunderstood by most of his biographers. Each literary critic will see in his plays the peculiar principles of social philosophy that he may wish to find. The Letters, though they were seldom written to set the critics right, and though the references to the plays are usually business-like when they are not vituperative of Norwegian narrowness, are still bound to warn off the too ingenious critic, and they show us the man as he was, not quite a poet, no dreamer, but a hard-headed, practical man, born with a hatred of every restraint that fettered the individual in the name of society, and endowed with an extraordinary talent for character-drawing and the technique of the drama. Every play is mentioned here except the last, "When We Dead Awaken" (1900), to which there seems to be an allusion on page 453. The Introduction, of 45 pages, is useful, and the footnotes are quite sufficient to explain the allusions. The index is a weak point, since it refers only to the persons to whom the letters were addressed. It should at least have included the plays.

The translation is very smooth and readable, but un-Ibsenish, as is particularly noticeable in the first half of the work. In Letter No. 38, page 131, every paragraph and almost every sentence begin with "I," whereas in the original but a single sentence so opens, "Jeg er i ordets virkelige betydning bedrövet" (I am, in the true sense of the word, grieved), but here the translation reads: "It grieves me, truly grieves me." Hence the impression conveyed that Ibsen is a sad egotist, whereas from the Norwegian the case is exactly the opposite. Elsewhere the translators do not seem to have truly caught the meaning of their text. Thus (p. 61): "On the Ancient Ballad and its Influence on the Art of Poetry." Now the "art of poetry" is not in question at all, but art poetry, *i. e.*, poetry cultivated as a fine art, in contradistinction to popular poetry. At page 66, dramatic art is said to be "a unification of all these other forms of art." What Ibsen says is, that it is "the unity of all these forms of art" (with reference to the Hegelian philosophy). Such misconceptions, wherever the original requires some knowledge beyond the most elementary, in order to be understood, are quite common.

While the proofreading is on the whole satisfactory, certain mistakes should not have occurred in a book of this kind. Thus (p. 97, note), Christi*ana* (for Christi*ania*); (p. 97), *Dic* Nygifte for *De* Nygifte (p. 111, note), the Danish poet, Carsten Hauch (1790-187*2*), published in 187*6* (read 1866); (p. 449), read 1896 for 1898 as the date of the letter to Brandes; (p. 118, note), Swedish and Norwegian *Ambassador* in Paris—such a person has never existed, but *ministers* there have been; (p. 122), Swedish Aftenblad, for Aftonblad. On page 431, Mr. Shaw's book is called 'The Quintessence of Ibsen'—read "Ibsenism."

MONOD'S MICHELET.

Jules Michelet: Études sur sa Vie et ses Œuvres. Avec des fragments inédits. Par Gabriel Monod. Paris: Hachette & Cie. 1905.

We are indebted to the editor of the *Revue Historique* for an illuminating book on the conceptions of Michelet as they affected his private life. This is not the first time that M. Monod has shown an interest in the works and career of the brilliant writer whose character he now seeks to il-

lustrate and expound. As early as 1876 he published, in the second volume of the *Revue Historique*, a series of passages from Michelet's lectures on the Roman Emperors; the article on Michelet in the 'Grande Encyclopédie' is from his pen; in 1904 he contributed to the *Deutsche Revue* an article entitled "Michelet und Deutschland"; while, more recently still, passing from husband to wife, he has edited, with an introduction and notes, Mme. Michelet's 'Les Chats.' Finally, he has become, by an indirect process, Michelet's literary executor. So long as Mme. Michelet lived there could be no other exponent than herself of one whose life she had shared in the fullest sense for twenty-five years. The twenty-five years of her widowhood (1874-1899) were wholly occupied in the publication of her husband's posthumous works, either in their original form or with clever additions of her own. A few weeks before her death, she placed in M. Monod's hands a great quantity of unpublished manuscripts, multifarious in aspect and quality, but containing among them much that is important for the due appreciation of Michelet's ideals and attainments.

Entering upon his duties in the spirit of an interpreter rather than of an annalist, M. Monod gives us seven admirable essays, bound together in one series, along with copious excerpts from Michelet's journal and correspondence. The bulk of the volume centres in the historian's activities during the period 1839-1851, though incidents of earlier and later life come into view from time to time. The narrative of events is, however, a mere thread upon which to hang that record of thoughts and emotions which furnishes the vital interest of the book. Few, we imagine, even of Michelet's most enthusiastic readers are familiar with the fact that, in addition to his multitudinous publications, he has left a journal, scrupulously kept day by day through forty years of unresting effort in the fields of history, literature, and democratic propaganda. M. Monod, in announcing his intention to publish still further papers, says that Michelet the man quite equals in interest Michelet the writer. With this remark we are inclined to agree. Michelet felt that he had written about himself with more sincerity than is revealed in Rousseau's 'Confessions'; and perhaps no one ever had a closer eye upon the operation of his own mind and feelings.

During the early part of his manhood Michelet often alludes to himself as one marked out for solitude. A professor at the Collège de France, who was surrounded by a band of enthusiastic students and possessed of admiring friends in every class from the royal family to the lower ranks of the bourgeoisie, need not have been a recluse if only he had cared to take part in the ordinary occupations of society. Michelet, from the time when he left the École Normale down to the moment when he began his attack upon the Jesuits, did command the general admiration to which we have just alluded. Even the clericals had not begun to suspect him, for he had been preserved by depth of historical sympathy from attacking the ages of faith so long as in his 'History of France' he was still dealing with them. Only on passing from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance did he reveal to the world the degree of his separation from Catholicism. Yet during the years 1838-1841, when outwardly his life seemed to be most prosperous and his position most assured, he was suffering the keenest agonies of soul from the sense of his spiritual loneliness.

By temperament most men are disciples either of the laughing or of the weeping philosopher. Those who can find unction in Leopardi or 'Vathek' or the 'City of Dreadful Night,' are likely to find congenial occupation in the anatomy of melancholy, whether it be Michelet's or their own. Even for people of different mood there may be some interest in seeking to distinguish between what is morbid and what normal among the manifestations of introspective grief. Michelet took his depression of spirits very seriously, not only recording in his journal the varieties of such woe as he experienced, but actually publishing a volume entitled "Amertumes,' wherein may be found a series of his reflections during the four years that followed the death of his first wife. Pauline Michelet had some good qualities, but did not possess either the intellectual power or the moral dignity which could have commanded her husband's thorough respect. Her death, however, not unnaturally filled him with searchings of heart and with vain regrets for his sins of omission. Always meditating upon the paradoxes of the universe, his own affliction made them seem the more intolerably oppressive. "Why," he asks, a little less than two months after his wife's death, "does the thought of God bring with it so little consolation? It is because the Christian God is a judge of the soul: it shall survive, but only to suffer! The God of Pantheism gives repose, but only through absorption."

Grief at his wife's death may be held to account for much, but in fact Michelet was so highly strung that he always stood on the verge of a spiritual or physical crisis. His intense energy worked itself off to a considerable extent in the labors of scholarship and literary composition. But even then there remained a strong erotic disposition which was sure at frequent intervals to cause him anguish. Within a year from Pauline's death he is assailed by what M. Monod styles "la tentation mauvaise de chercher une consolation dans un semblant de vie conjugale, sans la communauté de sentiment, de pensées, et de devoirs qui font la dignité et la beauté du mariage." As a result of this agitation Michelet finds it difficult to be grateful. When he wishes to bless and render thanks, the words stick in his throat. Marriage, he feels, is impossible, while on the other hand, "ces demi-mariages sont scabreux, pleins de chances." He seems particularly impressed by what Mme. Quinet has urged in seeking to dissuade him from an irregular connection. "What would happen if she should love you?" This, comments Michelet, would indeed be a danger.

The most important fact in Michelet's life during the years 1839-1842 was his friendship with Mme. Dumesnil. If, as there is good reason to suppose, the period was a decisive one in his life, no single incident bulks more largely in it than this. Michelet made the acquaintance of Mme. Dumesnil through her son Alfred, who was among his most eager disciples. She was slight, frail, and not beautiful, but possessed of great charm and sweetness. M. Monod points out that students of Michelet's career have sometimes attributed to Mme. Dumesnil a kind of influence upon the historian's ideas which she did not exercise. He did not, it is clear, owe to her his emancipation from the formulas of the Roman Church. Numerous writings show that he had gone beyond the limits of orthodox Christianity long before he met her. Far from being his leader on the path of rationalism, she was considerably the more conservative of the two. As for her influence upon him, it was purely moral and sentimental, platonic in character, and to Michelet a source of the highest inspiration. They met for the first time in May, 1840, and she died almost exactly two years later, but the second twelve months of their friendship was undoubtedly one of the happiest periods in Michelet's life. It has been said of Lewes that, after his marriage with George Eliot, he could at times speak patiently of Christianity. Without bringing this particular illustration into the analogy, Mme. Dumesnil may be said to have had the same mellowing effect upon the mood of Michelet. Her death was a fresh laceration, though it left behind a chain of more exalting memories than could have been drawn from his life with Pauline.

We have touched upon simply a few of the salient incidents which affected Michelet's development during a critical period. Between 1839 and 1842 his fame as a lecturer, scholar, and writer had not yet been marred by the rancors of controversy. By 1841 some suspicion perhaps had been aroused among the clericals. Otherwise the Parisian world admired and lauded him, nor had the clericals come to see in him an irreconcilable antagonist. With the aid of the passages which M. Monod now publishes from his journal, we can see how the trend of his thought was setting toward internationalism and the propagation of the democratic ideal. It was impossible for him to live without exercising his fertile and fiery imagination. Having lost his hold upon religious dogma, there remained the gospel of humanitarianism, and that whole body of aspirations which became to him, no less than to Quinet and Mazzini, living realities. During the last thirty years of his life he fought on behalf of his cause with all the ardor of an impassioned nature, upholding reason, justice, and mercy, condemning superstition and despotism. By the close of 1843 he had passed through the worst years of his life, had fought his doubts and gathered strength, had grappled with evil at the bottom of the pit, and, by so grappling, had prepared himself for the missionary work that lay before him. Taken by themselves, many of the passages which M. Monod cites may seem morbid, diffuse, and ineffective; but Michelet, whatever his limitations, was neither weak nor insincere, and the record of his strivings with doubt, sorrow, and contrition will be for many by no means destitute of edification.

As a contribution to our knowledge of both Michelet's thought and nature, M. Monod's chapter entitled "Yves-Jean-Lazare Michelet" is the most striking essay in the volume. In it are described the beginnings of the historian's second mar-

riage, and the emotions which were awakened in him by the birth and death of his son Yves. The whole episode is too long to discuss here, but the portion of Michelet's journal given on pages 283-290 is a very remarkable document, which should be read by all who open the book at all. Among the five remaining papers, the two most striking are those entitled "Michelet et l'Italie" and "Michelet et George Sand." For Italy, Michelet cherished the deepest reverence and affection. Virgil was the chosen author of his youth, and Vico of his early manhood. To Italy he turned when he needed physical resuscitation, and not even Mrs. Browning longed more ardently to see the triumph of the national cause. M. Monod's essay on his relations with George Sand brings out one fact almost amusingly. These two writers, who at first sight have so much in common, were quite content to admire each other at a distance. Michelet, in the preface to 'L'Amour,' styles George Sand "the greatest writer of the nineteenth century," while she, at the close of her 'Histoire de ma Vie,' styles him "a guide of generations yet to come." Both had been fed on Rousseau, both believed in intellectual emancipation and social democracy. Unfortunately, they differed so completely over the question of the wife and the family that both thought it wiser to keep at arm's length. In M. Monod's words, Michelet "trouvait que George Sand rabaissait la famille, et George Sand trouvait que Michelet rabaissait la femme."

For a variety of reasons we have endeavored to give this volume some prominence. Michelet was a man of vast historical erudition, who, quite apart from his learning, occupies a secure place in French literature by virtue of his imaginative insight. Again, his whole life was conditioned by the mutual reaction of a strong intelligence upon a high-strung, mobile, and somewhat sensuous disposition. Finally, it is extremely interesting to observe the attitude towards him of a modern historian, who, like M. Monod, has received the discipline of a science unknown in Michelet's youth and apparently antagonistic to Michelet's method of historiography. These essays, when supplemented by others that are promised in the introduction, will not only acquit M. Monod of his duties as literary executor, but will constitute an extremely valuable body of criticism. In the case of the present volume, excerpts from Michelet's journal occupy considerably more space than is represented by editorial comment. At the same time the gloss is hardly less serviceable than the text.

Astronomy in the Old Testament. By G. Schiaparelli. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905. Small 8vo, pp. 178.

This book, originally written in Italian, has been turned into very good English under the author's own supervision. He is observer at the Milan Observatory, seventy years old; his fame rests mainly on his discovery of what he calls the "canals" on Mars, and has been spread among American readers through Percival Lowell's late book, which discusses the appearance of the reddish planet. He follows the higher critics as to the ages of the Biblical books and as to the layers of which the Pentateuch is built up. He gives the ancient Hebrews very little credit for observation and thought, but believes that their work towards a higher morality and purer religion makes up for such shortcomings, and their freedom from astrologic superstitions for their ignorance of astronomy.

His astronomy takes a very wide range, sweeping into its compass earth and sea and the abysses below, rain and rivers; days, months, and years; weeks of days and of years; Sabbaths, Sabbatic years, Jubilees, and all the Mosaic laws incident to these. He remarks on the absurdity of identifying Ezekiel's Rosh, Meshech, and Tubel with Russia, Moscow, and Tobolsk—a remark rather befitting a geography than an astronomy of the Old Testament. As he lives in Catholic Italy, his Old Testament embraces Sirach, Maccabees, Judith, and other apocrypha. He is well versed in Biblical Hebrew; he knows some Aramaic, Arabic, and Assyrian; the Mishnah and Talmud he quotes only at second hand.

Schiaparelli treats first of the *firmament*, preferring this rendering of *raqiá* in the text to the *expansion* of modern interpreters. The lower heaven was rigid and transparent; above this was the heaven of heavens bearing the sun, moon, and stars, flexible as a curtain. The earth, a vast plain, extending below to a great depth, so as to embrace the mighty abyss, also Sheol, the abode of the departed, was hung (see Job xxvi.) over nothing. This view is illustrated by a rude drawing (p. 38). Schiaparelli charges the Hebrew writers, on the strength of such passages as Isaiah lv. 10, with not knowing that watery vapors rise from the sea, become clouds, and return to the sea through streams and rivers; and holds that with the exception perhaps of the more learned author of Job, they imagined rain, hail and snow to come from beyond the firmament and that the sea communicated with the sources of rivers only under ground.

No sane man could hold such a belief. In Palestine many streams run dry every summer; the autumn rains fill their beds. Lebanon is high enough for those at its crest to look down upon clouds. And fog (Heb. *qiTor*) is only a cloud that reaches the ground. A child can see that every cloud floats below the blue sky. Israel lived closely east of the sea; it saw the west wind bringing rain, the east wind dust and heat (see quotations on p. 35). The Bible almost begins with telling us: A vapor arose from the earth to irrigate the face of the garden. The plural noun *nesiim*, meaning watery vapors, but literally "lifted ones," occurs in Jeremiah, Psalms, Proverbs. Thus, Psalm cxxxv. teaches that *nesiim* are brought from the end of the earth, and by lightnings are turned into rain; which is correct to this day. In Psalm cxlviii. 8, fire and hail, snow and fog, are named among the phenomena of earth.

If other passages speak of rain, snow, and hail as if they came through the firmament, and of the sea as if it communicated with the river sources under ground, it is not because some writers are wiser or more learned than others, but because in some passages the writer uses poetic language, elsewhere the words of sober truth. The verse, Isaiah lv. 10, carefully read with attention to its tenses, proves the very contrary of Schiaparelli's inference: the prophet knows that water ascends towards heaven, for "the snow and rain cometh down from heaven and does not return thither, *but when it has* irrigated the earth." The "host of heaven," when referred to in the later reigns of the kingdoms of Judah and Israel, seems to our author to mean those of the planets that received an idolatrous worship; such as Helel (Lucifer) named in Isaiah xiv. 12, and *Kiyun* or *Kaivan* (Saturn) mentioned in Amos (v, 12). He is not positive about *Gad* (Isaiah lvx. 11) standing for Jupiter. He does not claim that the ancient Jews knew nothing of Mercury and Mars (p. 49, n. 5), but he feels sure that the recurrence of the Seven was not based on the number of the so-called seven planets of the Greeks and Romans.

The following passages contain the names of fixed stars or constellations. "Those burning incense to . . . sun and moon and mazzaloth; (2 Kings xxiii. 5): "The stars of heaven and their *Kesils*" (Isaiah xiii. 10); "The maker of *Kimah* and *Kesil*" (Amos v. 8); "He who made *Ash*, *Kesil*, and *Kimah* and the Chambers of the South" (Job ix. 9); "From the Chamber cometh whirlwind and from *Mezarim* cold" (Job xxxvii. 9); "Canst thou tie the (?) delights of *Kimah*, or loosen the bands of *Kesil*? bring out *Mazzaroth* at its time, or lead 'Ayish with her children?" (Job xxxviii. 31, 32). On *Kesil* = Orion and *Kimah* = Pleiades, Schiaparelli agrees with other Hebraists. He rejects the Great Bear as the rendering for *'Ash* or *'Ayish*; following the Talmud (Berakoth 58b), he identifies "*'Ayish* with her children" with the *Hyades;* he shrewdly derives *Mezarim* from *mizreh* (winnowing-shovel), something like our dipper; hence the two Bears, both in Job's days near the pole. In the Chamber or Chambers of the South Schiaparelli sees Canopus or bright stars in the Southern Cross, then visible in Palestine. But if visible, how were they in Chambers? More probably star-groups were meant, too southerly to be seen in Palestine, but told of by travellers in the far South. He takes *Mazzaloth* and *Mazzaroth* without sufficient reason to be identical, and applies both as plurals to the two offices of Venus as morning and as evening star, though the former is found in the Mishnah as the only name for the constellations of the Zodiac. Now, when and why did the word *Mazzal* change its meaning between its use in the Book of Kings and its use in the Mishnah?

When our author comes to the division of the days, he shows that the later word *sha'ah*, hour, does not occur in the Hebrew of the Old Testament, and in Aramaic only in the sense of "moment." But if hours were known by that name in Syria in very ancient times, as he admits, they could not be unknown to Israel, considering the close relations between Damascus, Samaria, and Jerusalem. These hours, he says (p. 101), were "seasonable," *i. e.*, each one-twelfth of the period between sunrise and sundown, longer in summer than in winter; such is also the Jewish tradition.

The book, with all its discursiveness, or rather by reason of it, is quite entertaining.

American Diplomacy: Its Spirit and Achievements. By John Bassett Moore. Harpers. 1905.

Professor Moore's volume embodies, with some revision and amplification, a series of articles which appeared originally in *Harper's Magazine*. A new chapter on Fisheries Questions has been added.

"The primary object of the work is to give, not a chronological narrative of international transactions, but rather an exposition of the principles by which they were guided, in order that the distinctive purposes of American diplomacy may be understood and its meaning and influence appreciated. Nothing could be more erroneous than the supposition that the United States has, as the result of certain changes in its habits, suddenly become, within the past few years, a 'world-power.' The United States has in reality always been, in the fullest and highest sense, a world-power; and the record of its achievements in the promulgation and spread of liberal and humane doctrines is one in which no American need hesitate to own a patriotic pride."

We have found the book entertaining as a non-chronological narrative, but less valuable as an exposition of principles. Indeed, as an expounder of principles the author writes in altogether too patriotic a vein to be weighty. Nobody disputes that the United States has played a leading part in advancing the causes of the freedom of the ocean, neutrality, arbitration, expatriation, and extradition; but we, like other countries, have been involved in disputes in which we not only did nothing to advance these causes, but have seemed for the time to be doing our very best to thwart the advance of our own principles. During the whole of the civil war, for instance, we did our best for the rights of belligerents as against neutrals, and in the *Trent* case, if we could have carried our point, we should have established the right of a belligerent to stop a neutral vessel on a neutral voyage and take away passengers as prisoners, on the ground that they were ambassadors sent by the other belligerent to the Government of the neutral. Having wholly failed to establish any right to do so, we yielded the point and surrendered the prisoners, while Mr. Seward took advantage, in the correspondence, of our old opposition to the right of search to maintain that this was a triumph of American principles. But this is what is known as putting a good face on a bad situation. Throughout the controversy we were on the side of belligerent rights, and we yielded virtually to a threat of war. So, later, when we undertook to establish an American theory of continuous voyages, it was certainly not an advancement of our pretensions as champions of neutral rights.

The truth is, that no country consistently maintains the true principles of international law, any more than individuals consistently maintain the principles of justice and right. Under the influence of self-interest we have attacked the freedom of the seas in the Bering Sea arbitration, and in the boundary dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain we abused the principles of arbitration. In our exclusion and penalization of the Chinese we have flown in the face of all our professions of liberality on the subject of expatriation.

All this may be said without detracting from what Mr. Moore extols as our "advancement of the principle of legality" (p. 252). The principle of law has, indeed, lain at the foundation of the American diplomacy of Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Webster, Seward, Fish, and Bayard—that is, we have been preëminnetly the nation which has insisted that diplomacy shall be supported by the recognized principles of the *jus gentium*. We have insisted on the legal responsibility of states. But that has not prevented our abandoning the paths of law in several instances (*e. g.*, the erection of the Republic of Panama, as to which Mr. Moore has little to say), or our resort to an elastic principle of national policy, in the Monroe Doctrine, to justify whatever we feel it for our interest to do in relation to our immediate neighbors. The development of the Monroe Doctrine is not by any means a development of the principle of legality, or of the law of nations.

In short, we think Mr. Moore's book is altogether too patriotic, and in this respect we have found it disappointing. Patriotism is an excellent thing in its place, and prescribed to all diplomats and advocates of their country's interest in any contention or polemic proceeding. But in that forum of exposition in which Grotius and Vattel and Wheaton and Kent are known as leaders, patriotism is less a panoply than a handicap. What those great men taught was that international law was of no country; and it was by studiously laboring to forget country and self that they so wonderfully advanced that great principle of legality to which we all, when at our best, try to do reverence.

International law, as we know it, is the growth of hardly more than a century. The reason why the United States was, during that period, the leader in its development, was that it was the great pacific world-power. The freedom of the seas, neutrality, arbitration, expatriation, and extradition are all bound up with the cause of peace and non-interference. Engaged in war, in annexation, in colonial expansion, or in the business of protectorates, it is capable of re-developing on American soil the early *jus belli* in all its ferocity and disregard of pacific interests. All this can be illustrated by an expounder of our true principles from our own history; but the picture would present glaring contrasts, and would not be so agreeable to our self-love as Mr. Moore's.

It is difficult to make anything connected with international law popular reading; but the author has come nearer to doing so than any one we can recall. His account of the beginnings of American diplomacy is entertaining, while that of the difficulties encountered by our Government in dealing with the question of diplomatic costume is amusing. With his main point, that the United States has been for a long period a world-power, and that its diplomacy for the most part has rested on a coherent body of principles which was not invented yesterday, we are entirely at one.

Supplementary Papers of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome. Vol. I., pp. iv, 220. 4°. 18 plates, plus 75 text illustrations. Macmillan. 1905.

The publication of this volume is a very gratifying indication of the growth of the American School in Rome, intellectually as well as in numbers. Its papers have thus far been published in the *American Journal of Archæology*, which, however, has not been able to afford space for all that have been offered and officially recommended. Some contributions from members of the School have therefore appeared elsewhere, and others have perforce been held up, if not *nonum in annum*, at least till their freshness has somewhat evaporated. This new method of publication in separate volumes is intended to supplement rather than to supersede that in the *Journal*, and will also provide a proper format for papers that call for more copious illustration than the plan of the *Journal* can admit.

The initial volume contains work of eight contributors, of whom two are officers of the American School, and a third, Mr. Ashby, the well-known vice-director of the British School in Rome, who has again shown his kindness to American students by collaborating with one of them, Mr. Pfeiffer, in valuable topographical surveys and descriptions of the sites of Carsioli, and of "La Cività" near Artena (about ten miles north of Norba).

The technical student who is interested in the dry study of brick-stamps and the historical evidence to be deduced from them, will welcome the detailed and classified analysis, with full tables and plates, of the stamped bricks and tiles recovered from the portion of the wall of Aurelian, near the Porta S. Giovanni, which collapsed in 1902. The total number of stamps and marks collected was 832, ranging, so far as dates could be ascertained, from the first century of our era to the time of Theodoric. The largest single group (309) was of the reign of Hadrian, and, of these, 145 were of the single year 123. The next largest group (49) was of the reign of Severus and Caracalla. These statistics appear to accord with what has heretofore been known about the relative activity in building during various reigns. It is not to be concluded, however, that all this material from earlier buildings was appropriated by Aurelian, for this stretch of wall shows signs of several later repairings. A considerable number of the stamps examined are not to be found in the 'Corpus.' The writers of the paper, Messrs. Pfeiffer, Van Buren, and Armstrong, are to be congratulated on a very thorough and important piece of work.

Dr. Mahler, in an interesting article, essays to prove that the "Aphrodite of Arles" is a copy of the spinning Aphrodite of Praxiteles (the *catagusa* of Plin., *N. H.* i. 19. 2); Mr. Morey subjects the Christian sarcophagus in S. Maria Antiqua to a careful and convincing examination, in which he controverts a number of Marucchi's flighty observations; and Mr. Cross describes as "a new variant of the 'Sappho' type" a head in the Art Museum at Worcester, about the genuine antiquity of which some expert doubt has been expressed. The study of palæography in the School is represented by the publication, by Mr. Van Buren, of new collations of a part of codd. S and A of Columella.

The praise deserved by the rest of the volume can hardly be extended to the last paper in it, which is a record of superficial, and for the most part not new, observations in Turkestan, expressed in a very ill-

formed style, and marked by most curious bits of reasoning.

The Life of Sir Henry Vane, the Younger. With a History of the Events of his Time. By William W. Ireland. London: Eveleigh Nash; Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd. 1905. 8vo, pp. viii., 571.

Dr. Ireland is no novice in authorship. He has appeared before the public with a personal account of the siege of Delhi, a novel, a treatise on Psychical Medicine, and other works. But in this venture into the historical field he has produced a very singular book. One may readily admit that it shows extensive knowledge of the events and characters of the Stuart period; that its style is always lively and readable, and sometimes forcible; and that the career of his hero is set forth in a narrative of events, most of them familiar, some not so well known, and all intelligently combined. Yet it can hardly be esteemed a valuable contribution to the historic literature of an age which is in imminent danger of being overwritten. In one octavo volume of moderate thickness we are to have a life of Vane and a history of the events of his time. This last half of the title may mean anything, from a work as bulky as Gardiner's to the summary of a school-book. Dr. Ireland's limits require a severe process of selection, yet he includes much that is almost offensively superfluous. We have an introduction on the growth of popular principles in England that is thoroughly commonplace; we have a detailed description of Edgehill, with which Vane had no more to do than Pym or Hyde. Other capital events, which had little bearing on Vane's career, are introduced apparently for no purpose but to impeach in one way or another what the author considers the excessive current estimate of Cromwell. Dr. Ireland's words in his preface are worth quoting:

"I have, avoiding controversies, tried to make the facts cry out. My own views have been formed upon a study of original documents. Later histories and commentaries thereon I have not read, or only looked at after my pages were composed, in order to see if they have cited any authorities not already consulted by me."

He admits, however, his obligations to Foster and Bisset for help and guidance; he might have extended the list, but his method of avoiding controversy is to dogmatize on some of the most vexed questions of history as if there never were two opinions about them. This preference for "facts" is quite in accordance with current historical taste. There is a general call for historians to give us facts, and not opinions or "settings." Some persons will not read Macaulay because he draws inferences from facts to motives. Now this would be very well if facts, as Dr. Ireland says, "cried out." But they do not, or if they do, it is like Orator Puff, with two voices. To him they cry that Strafford was a renegade tyrant, and Laud a malignant bigot; perhaps that is the correct estimate. But Professor Gardiner, who surely knows the facts, hears them "cry" with a very different tale of these men. Vane himself is to his biographer faultless; any criticisms which adhere to any of his contemporaries roll off of him as from a rock. Undoubtedly, as far as personal probity and purity, freedom from low ambition, and elevation in some great matters beyond his time go to make up character, he deserves unqualified praise. Yet his warmest admirers can scarcely deny that in some critical moments, when for such a noble soul to have secured the confidence of his fellow-citizens, and with it the just control of their affairs, would have been well, Vane, after fair trial, failed to keep that confidence and control. In early youth, his governorship of Massachusetts proved an utter failure, and gave indications of something very like moral cowardice; in advanced manhood, the successive failures of Richard and of the officers found him and his Republican colleagues of the Rump endlessly dreaming and debating of ideal commonwealths which the age neither understood nor desired. It is true of Vane, even more than of Milton, that his "soul was like a star and dwelt apart"; but stars give no heat, and their light is of value only to photograph themselves. In plainer words, Vane, with all his breadth of conception, failed when it came to sympathetic action. He abhorred persecution; yet he was most exclusive when it came to coöperation. He could not work with Winthrop, nor yet with Cromwell; but Winthrop was as saintly as himself, and so were Milton and Hale, whose services Cromwell easily secured.

But all these and further grounds of criticism might be pardoned in Dr. Ireland, if it were not for the extraordinary carelessness in the handling of his words and sentences. It would be impossible in this review to point out all the faults of type, faults of phraseology, faults of grammar that disfigure these pages. A single rapid reading has shown no less than sixty in four hundred and forty pages; pure misprints like ingenously (p. 56), relecting for reflecting (p. 251), *saluto* (in an Italian note) for *salute*, and in proper names Codrington for Coddington (p. 83), and, by way of climax, John Wilton for John Milton (p. 437). Certain proper names are now right and again wrong. Prynne's 'Histrio-Mastix' becomes 'Histro-Matrix' (p. 109), which name, if it means anything, means the source of the Danube. In quoting the title-page of the recent life of Archibald, Marquess of Argyll, his name is printed "Marquess of Montrose" (p. 273). There are such expressions as plausible entertainment (p. 46), meaning, apparently, cordial reception; acting inadvisably (p. 72); under the majority of Louis XIV., meaning after (p. 359).

The history is by no means immaculate. James I.'s reign is called twenty-four years instead of twenty-two (p. 9), the judges in the ship-money case are stated as eight to four, instead of seven to five (p. 100). The National Covenant is called the Solemn League and Covenant (p. 29), though they are distinguished later. The petition for the abolition of episcopacy is assigned to "five years after the assembly of Parliament" (p. 159), meaning five weeks after the assembling; the Second Folio of Shakspere is dated 1630 for 1632 (p. 301); De Witt is made Pensionary of the States, instead of Holland (p. 329); and the Cavalier Parliament of 1661 is given nineteen years instead of eighteen (p. 427). Nor does this exhaust the list of blunders.

To conclude with a word of praise: there is a most excellent note on page 317, showing how wantonly Carlyle criticises Burnet.

The Negro and the Nation: A History of American Slavery and Enfranchisement. By George S. Merriam. Henry Holt & Co. 1906.

After a careful reading of Mr. Merriam's volume, we are obliged to say that it falls painfully short of fulfilling the expectations legitimately aroused by its title. It does not approach the degree of completeness which severe condensation might accomplish, even within the limit of its four hundred pages, nor is it to be followed safely either in its statements of facts or in its estimates of men and events. Rather than a genuine history of the negro in his relation to the nation, it is a volume of sketchy comment on American politics and public men, with preponderant reference to the negro, though the reader will occasionally pass over many pages without detecting the preponderance. Ordinarily such comment would not call for very close examination, but when it is put forward as a serious historical treatment of one of the most important phases of American national life, it is at once necessary to raise the question whether the comment is based on careful and comprehensive study. As an example of Mr. Merriam's lack of care in statements of fact, we may take his assertion (p. 76) that, "as the last act of Tyler's administration, Texas was declared a State." The facts were, that Congress, right at the close of its session, took action making possible the annexation of Texas with its own consent; that Tyler hastily dispatched a messenger to secure that consent, which was given by the Texan Congress in June and ratified by a convention in July, and that Texas was finally erected into a State of the Union by joint resolution of the two Houses near the close of the following December, about ten months after Tyler had retired to private life.

Even more than by mistakes of this type, the book is marred by its constant failure to give a clear, complete, and connected account of any of the important events connected with the development of its declared subject. There is much, for instance, about the Reconstruction measures of Congress, but one looks in vain for any adequate information as to the full scope of a single one of them. There is something about the Freedmen's Bureau, but one must go elsewhere to learn the real scope of its work, either in its intent or in its actual practice. There are, of course, frequent references to the American Anti-Slavery Society and the successive movements for abolition or restriction of slavery through new party organizations, but of none of these movements can even a fairly complete outline sketch be derived from this volume. The truth is, as we have already intimated, that the author has given simply a volume of sketchy comment, with the result that much of it is unintelligible to anyone who has not already had a wide reading in the political history of the country. To one who has had such reading, we do not see that there is much in the volume of serious value, despite the fact that its general attitude towards the great

problems involved in the presence of the negro, past, present, and future, is correct.

As to the position of the American Anti-Slavery Society, under the leadership of Garrison, Mr. Merriam is hopelessly unable to give an account consistent with the facts. Because so much that attended the abolition of slavery, when it came, was contrary to the principles which Garrison had persistently proclaimed, he cannot see that the Garrisonian movement had any very vital relation to the outcome. Garrison saw clearly the need of a great moral work, and felt upon his own soul the burden of duty to do his part in performing it. He saw the value of an organization earnestly and definitely devoted to that line of work, and therefore used all his influence to hold the American Anti-Slavery Society steadily free from all complications which were calculated to subordinate the moral phase of the issue. If history has demonstrated anything on that point it is that the cause of abolition, and of the negro ever since, would have benefited by more, rather than less, of distinctively moral work. Mr. Garrison was not intolerant of those who strove to do something for the cause in some other way. He took the Free Soil movement of 1848 as a cheering sign of the times, proving that an effective impression had been made upon public opinion, and he did not hesitate to lift up his voice in support of the Government during the war, even before Lincoln had arrived at the point of the Emancipation Proclamation, as, for instance, in his Cooper Institute speech of January, 1862. Moreover, when his own eldest son enlisted in the war, as officer of a regiment of colored troops, he wrote: "You will bear me witness that I have not laid a straw in your way to prevent your acting up to your own highest convictions of duty, for nothing would be gained, but much lost, to have you violate these." There should be no serious difficulty in understanding his fundamental position. He wanted all to face the great fact of human slavery from the standpoint of moral duty, and he regarded it as his mission to rouse the sense of moral duty and set it upon the highest possible level. If he had been turned aside into any other channel, another might have risen up to do his work; but, whether by him or by another, freedom to the slave would never have come until that work was done.

In writing of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' Mr. Merriam quotes with approval the words of Judge Tourgee, "Scratch one of Mrs. Stowe's negroes, and you will find a white man." Yet perhaps one may find in these words the suggestion of a truth not altogether uncomplimentary to the insight of Mrs. Stowe. If we were to scratch beneath the surface of any negro, in 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' or out of it, we might find a soul more difficult to differentiate from that of the white man than is ordinarily supposed. To realize, with Mr. Higginson, that the negro is "intensely human" is possibly of more value under present conditions than success in differentiating him carefully from any other human species.

Salve Venetia: Gleanings from Venetian History. By Francis Marion Crawford. Two volumes. Macmillan. 1905.

It is unusually hard to give a just account of these volumes, for they are neither history nor romance, but a blend of both. If we judge them as history, their value is small; as romance, they are entertaining. They are such studies as the historical novelist would work up to give verisimilitude of background and local color to his story. Mr. Crawford has long proved his right to be called a born story-teller, but we are not aware that any one of the hundreds of persons in his novels has attained to more than a transient celebrity. However it may be with his fiction, there can be no doubt that he lacks the two essentials—historic sense and the power to trace historic continuity—without which no man has ever written good history.

For Mr. Crawford, Venetian history is a series of episodes, with very slight interdependence, but abounding in picturesque or romantic externals. He sees surfaces, not character; he has a skill for melodrama, not for the tragic. And so his book gives one hardly an idea of the real greatness of the Venetians, but it tells over again, in agreeable fashion, the old stories from the old unhistoric point of view. A writer with these limitations naturally pitches upon the last centuries of decadence—those centuries which no more explain how Venice came to play a great part in the world than a description of the sensuality and effeminacy of the age of Majorian and Romulus Augustulus explains how the Roman Republic became mistress of the ancient world. During the first half of her existence Venice won and preserved her independence by an adroitness which has had no parallel. She escaped from actual subjection to either the Eastern or the Western Empire; she eluded the efforts of her tyrant neighbors on the mainland to subdue her; she rejected the encroachments of the Roman Curia. In these great lines of policy lies the real dramatic interest of her growth; but a reader who depended solely on Mr. Crawford would scarcely understand their importance. In the later history, no figure stands out so conspicuously as Sarpi, and no Venetian achievement equals the resistance, led by him, to the Catholic reaction. When we say that Mr. Crawford devotes less than two pages to Sarpi, we sufficiently indicate why he cannot be regarded as an historian. The fact that he is a Roman Catholic accounts, perhaps, for his failure to do justice to what was one of Venezia's most precious contributions to civilization—her strict separation of Church and State.

Equally when it comes to details, we discover in Mr. Crawford a fatal lack of the historic sense. To cite but a single instance, he describes the treatment of criminals and prisoners so as to leave the impression that the Venetians were particularly cruel. The truth is, that for many centuries they were in advance of their neighbors in humanity. The true historian, instead of expatiating on the horrors of strangling and drowning, as if these were peculiar to Venice, would inquire what was going on contemporaneously in other countries. This criticism may be applied throughout to Mr. Crawford's chapters on manners, customs, and institutions. They are often packed with many unimpeachable details, they are always entertaining, but they lack the indispensable historic sense. We can but regret that, thanks to the popularity of Mr. Crawford, the old half-truths about Venice, the misconceptions and exaggerations which the best recent historians have been working to dispel, should gain a new lease of life. Instead of a great, sagacious, stanch, and sober nation, the stage is filled again with the *bravi* and *sbirri*, the courtesans and gamblers and decadent nobles, who have so long done service in novels and operas. The reason is of course obvious; there exists almost endless material for the last three centuries of the Republic's decline—material, moreover, in which the novelist of manners and gossip delights. We can believe that were Mr. Crawford to take up seventeenth-century England (which may Clio forfend!) he would deal very sketchily with Cromwell and Puritanism, but come out strong on Charles the Second's court and mistresses.

The illustrations of these volumes are, to the present reviewer at least, a great disappointment. They consist of two sorts. The first are reductions from sepia wash or charcoal drawings, and seem to be views of Doré's "Inferno" rather than of the incomparably bright Venice. Some, less fuliginous than others, would fairly represent the murky atmosphere of London or Chicago. A medium less adapted to Venice could not be found. The second sort of illustrations are of the nibbed and scratchy draughtsmanship which some architects' apprentices think artistic. The result is that one must strain hard to discover values and to disentangle the perspective. The drawing of Ponte Canonica (ii., 356), for instance, leaves one in doubt as to what is gondola, what bridge, what water, and so on. Nobody could possibly recognize the botch (ii., 145) of Tintoretto's house; and so we might proceed to point out the inadequacy of scores of these illustrations. Besides their false method of draughtsmanship, they frequently give an altogether false idea of proportion, making what are low bridges or narrow *fondamenta* look huge and high and broad. When fine halftones of photographs are readily procurable, it does not seem likely that this faddish style of illustration will be tolerated much longer.

The Evolution of an English Town: Being the story of the ancient town of Pickering in Yorkshire from prehistoric times up to the year of our Lord 1905. By Gordon Home. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton. 1905.

A very beautiful specimen of book-making is presented in this volume. Its title, however, is misleading. It is not the story of the unfolding of the political life of a civic community, but rather a curious mélange of geological and antiquarian lore connected with Pickering and its environs. Mr. Home, not content with Stow's semi-mythical story of the founding of the town in 270 B. C., proceeds to recount its history "in an infinitely earlier period." The geological remains dating from the palæolithic and preglacial periods are first described, and thereafter the slender thread of the early local history is spun

around the remains of Roman roads and camps.

The Forest and the Vale of Pickering have left but an attenuated impress on the Saxon period (A. D. 418-1066). The nave of the present church dates from Norman times, and, together with other quaint bits of architecture and scenery, furnishes the subject-matter for many of the beautiful pen-and-ink drawings and the photogravures with which the book is replete. The first notes of real human interest begin with the local legends of the Tudor period, and are of decided worth to the student of witchcraft, folklore, and magic. The death-blow to this mass of ignorant superstition dates from Wesley and the Methodist revival. Of curious significance to the social historian is the survival of the practice cited from Calvert "of compelling girls who had misconducted themselves to stand in the church for three successive Sundays"—a custom which continued in Pickering up through the first quarter of the nineteenth century (p. 212). Calvert also describes the local clergy in 1824 as "in the main but a despert reckless lot."

The book concludes with chapters on the scenery and zoölogy of the Forest and the Vale. So sumptuous a product of the printer's art may well subserve the pride of the local historian. It will also appeal to the lover of fine illustrations. But it should have been entitled 'The Topography and Antiquities of Pickering.'

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allbutt, T. Clifford. On Professional Education. Macmillan Co.
American Newspaper Annual, 1906. Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer & Son. $5.
Anderson, Wilbert L. The Country Town. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Babcock, Frederic Charles. The Rise of American Nationality. Harpers. $2 net.
Bachelier, Irving. Silas Strong. Harpers. $1.50.
Baillie-Saunders, Margaret. Saints in Society. Putnams. $1.50.
Barr, Robert. The Triumph of Eugène Valmont. Lippincott. $1.50.
Bayer, James [illegible]nney. A Memoir of Jacques Cartier. Dodd, [illegible]ead & Co.
Bell, Lillian, Carol[illegible]a Lee. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Benson, E. F. The Angel of Pain. Lippincott. $1.50.
Bentley, William, The Diary of. Vol. I. Salem, Mass.
Bérard, M. Victor. British Imperialism and Commercial Supremacy. Translated by H. W. Foskett. Longmans. $2.60 net.
Bérard, Victor. L'Affaire Marocaine. Paris: Armand Colin.
Berman, Henry. Worshippers. The Grafton Press. $1.50.
Biese, Alfred. The Development of the Feeling for Nature. Dutton. $2 net.
Birney, Mrs. Theodore. Childhood. F. A. Stokes Co.
Black's Medical Dictionary. Edited by John D. Comrie. Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Bliss, Frederick Jones. The Development of Palestine Exploration. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Bousset, W. Jesus. Translated by Janet P. Trevelyan. Putnams. $1.25.
Boyce, Neith. The Eternal Spring. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1.50.
Bradley, A. G. In the March and Borderland of Wales. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 net.
Brady, Cyrus Townsend. The Patriots. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Brady, Cyrus Townsend. The True Andrew Jackson. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $2 net.
Breasted, James Henry. Ancient Records of Egypt. Vol. I. The University of Chicago Press.
Brierley, J. The Eternal Religion. Thomas Whittaker. $1.40 net.
Brooks, Hildegard. The Larky Furnace. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Brooks, Stratton D., and Marietta Hubbard. Composition—Rhetoric. American Book Co.
Bryant's Poems. Edited by J. H. Castleman. Macmillan Co.
Bucolici Græci. Edited by Willamowitz Moellendorff. Henry Frowde.
Buell, Augustus C. The Memoirs of Charles H. Cramp. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.50 net.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities, 1906. London: The Scientific Press. 6s. net.
Burgess, Thornton W. The Bride's Primer. Orange Judd Co. $1.50.
Burgess, W. Watson. A Life Sentence, or Duty in Dealing with Crime. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Byron, Lord, The Poetical Works of. Edited by Ernest H. Coleridge. Imported by Scribners. $1.50 net.
Calhoun, William P. The Caucasian and the Negro. Columbia, S. C.: The R. L. Bryan Co.
Capek, Thomas. The Slovaks of Hungary. Pittsburgh: P. V. Rovnianek & Co.
Chamberlain, James Franklin. How We are Sheltered: A Geographical Reader. Macmillan Co. 40 cents.
Chiarini, C. Romeo e Giulietta. Firenze: G. C. Sansoni.
Churchill, Winston. The Title-Mart. Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.
Coates, Thomas F. G. The Prophet of the Poor: The Life Story of General Booth. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Collins, John Churton. Studies in Poetry and Criticism. Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Comstock, Seth Cook. Marcelle the Maid. Appleton. $1.50.
Congress of Arts and Science. Edited by Howard J. Rogers. Vol. I. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50 net.
Cooke, Edmund Vance. Rimes to be Read. Dodge Publishing Co. $1.50.
Cortina Method for Learning Spanish—Italian—English—German. 4 vols. R. D. Cortina Co.
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French, Lillie Hamilton. The Joy of Life. F. A. Stokes Co.
French, Samuel Livingston. The Army of the Potomac. Publishing Society of New York. $2.50 net.
Gillies, H. Cameron. The Place-Names of Argyll. London: David Nutt.
Gore-Booth, Eva. The Three Resurrections, and The Triumph of Maeve. Longmans.
Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Edited by J. A. Fuller Maitland. Vol. II. Macmillan Co. $5 net.
Gray, John Chipman. The Rule against Perpetuities. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6 net.
Gray, Maxwell. The Great Refusal. Appleton. $1.50.
Green, Olive. Everyday Luncheons. Putnams. 90 cents.
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Guimet, Emile. Conférences faites au Musée Guimet. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Hale, Louise Closser. A Motor Car Divorce. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Hall, H. Fielding. A People at School. Macmillan Co. $3.
Hall, Prescott F. Immigration. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50 net.
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Harris, William C., and Tarleton H. Bean. The Basses: Fresh-Water and Marine. F. A. Stokes Co.
Hewlett, Maurice, The Works of. Vol. III.: The Road in Tuscany. Macmillan Co. $3.
Heyck, Ed. Anselm Feuerbach. Lemcke & Buechner.
Hill, George William. The Collected Mathematical Works of. Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: Carnegie Institute.
Howell, George. Labour Legislation, Labour Movements and Labour Leaders. 2 vols. Dutton. $2.50 net.
Hubback, J. H., and Edith C. Jane Austen's Sailor Brothers. John Lane Co.
Hueffer, Ford Madox. Hans Holbein. Dutton. 75 cents net.
Hyamson, Albert M. A Dictionary of Artists and Art Terms. Dutton.
Hyde, William De Witt. The College Man and the College Woman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.
Lang, Cosmo Gordon. Thoughts on some of the Parables of Jesus. Dutton. $1.50.
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Macnaughton, S. A. A Lame Dog's Diary. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Mann, Gustav. Chemistry of the Proteids. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
McMurry, Charles A. Course of Study in the Eight Grades. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. 75 cents each.
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Munn, Charles Clark. The Girl from Tim's Place. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.
Oman, Charles. Inaugural Lecture on the Study of History. Henry Frowde.
Pfleiderer, Otto. Christian Origins. Translated by Daniel A. Huebsch. B. W. Huebsch. $1.75 net.
Phin, John. The Seven Follies of Science. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.25 net.
Post, Louis F. Ethical Principles of Marriage and Divorce. Chicago: The Public Publishing Co. $1 net.
Proceedings of the American Forest Congress, 1905. Washington: H. M. Suter Publishing Co.
Proceedings of the Thirty-first Annual Convention of the American Bankers' Association, 1905.
Reynolds-Ball, Eustace. Rome. Macmillan Co.
Riley, J. W. A Manual of Carpentry and Joinery. Macmillan Co.
Russian Reader. By Paul Boyer and N. Speranski. University of Chicago Press. $3 net.
Sainte-Beuve, C. A. Profils Anglais. Putnams. $1.
Sand, George. La Mare au Diable. Putnams. $1.
Shadwell, Arthur. Industrial Efficiency. 2 vols. Longmans. $7 net.
Solomons, David. The Management of Accumulations. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Thackeray's New Sketch-Book. Edited by Robert S. Garnett. London: Alston Rivers. 7s. 6d.
Their Husbands' Wives. Edited by W. D. Howells and H. M. Alden. Harpers. $1.
Two Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the Settlement of the Jews in the United States. New York Coöperative Society.
Valdesso, John. Divine Considerations. Translated by Nicholas Ferrar. With George Herbert's Epistle. John Lane Co.
Van Dyke, Henry. The Childhood of Jesus Christ. F. A. Stokes Co.
Vincent, Leon. American Literary Masters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 net.
Virgil's Aeneid. With translation by Charles J. Billson. 2 vols. Longmans.
Weinel, H. St. Paul: The Man and his Work. Translated by G. A. Bienemann. Putnams. $2.50.
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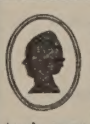

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The Week.

The Statehood bill, as it passed the House and was reported to the Senate, may as well be considered a dead measure. If any State is admitted at all, it will be Oklahoma-Indian Territory; yet the whole bill may die in conference. Whether or not it is true, as reported, that Speaker Cannon has an explicit agreement to yield in the end to the Senate amendments, there are many grounds for predicting such an outcome. The House itself, barely held in line on Thursday, when the vote was taken to send the bill to conference, could not be kept from adopting a conference report favorable to Oklahoma alone. And, finally, the country at large, which has displayed in former years only the most languid interest in the whole Statehood question, has evinced a strong and unmistakable sentiment for admitting one Territory now and letting the others wait. No one has put the case more pithily than Representative Bede. "We are looking for a quarrel with the Senate," he said. "Let us quarrel with it when the Senate is wrong and we are right. Let us not quarrel with the Senate when we are wrong and it is right."

When Senator Lodge votes against fortifications in the Philippine Islands, on the ground that on our evacuating them we shall need only a fortified harbor or two, all Americans who oppose the retention of the Philippines may well take heart. For Senator Lodge is one of those to whom the mailed fist is everything. He would have big fleets, fine armies, and awe-inspiring forts. True, he no longer twists the British lion's tail, as was once his regular habit. But, like President Roosevelt, he has a grave suspicion that there are several European Governments which are as much tempted by the amount of wealth in our New York safety-vaults as the pickpocket is attracted by a carelessly displayed purse. If, therefore, Mr. Lodge were as certain as he once was that in the Philippines we have the jewel-lands of Asia, he would not haggle over a mere $600,000 to protect them from the envious German or Japanese. But even Senators, it seems, are getting tired of squandering money on the islands from which the country gets nothing. Politically, the Philippines are nothing but a plague, and the obstinate refusal of the natives to settle down and submit to peaceful subjugation is getting on the nerves of even a Lodge. Over this and other signs of a recovery from the madness of 1898 and 1899 all true patriots may rejoice.

When is Congress in "that calm, judicial frame of mind so necessary to the preparation of a tariff act"? Never. Sereno E. Payne, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the House, kindly but firmly tells Representative S. W. McCall of Massachusetts that the subject cannot be considered, "so near the coming Congressional elections." The intellects of our statesmen are too much perturbed. Yet after election a movement for revision of the tariff is, as experience has abundantly shown, still more inopportune; for then Congressmen are more excited than ever. The artists of the country unanimously demand the abolition of the duty on art. They do not know, as Mr. Payne does, that the mere mention of paintings, engravings, and statuary throws our Representatives into convulsions, destroys their "judicial frame of mind," and renders them unfit for their exalted calling. Our manufacturers are opposed to a high tariff on alcohol; but "alcohol" is a word at which the stoutest blanch and tremble. Any right-minded Representative would rather suffer himself from chronic alcoholism than see the nation suffer from free alcohol in the arts. Mr. McCall and his Massachusetts friends are clamoring for free hides. The very phrase is more ominous than the primal eldest curse. It spells "disaster politically and commercially." No Congressman can listen to it and live. Let us therefore do nothing to upset Mr. Payne's philosophic calm as he views either the tariff or the coming election.

The Northern California Indian Association has issued an appeal for public support of a bill for the relief of the Indians of that State. C. E. Kelsey, secretary of the Association, who was made a special agent of the Government to investigate reports of destitution, has gone to Washington to lay before the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs the truth about the 10,000 tribesmen who are in distress. The plain fact is that the California Indians have been "marooned" on small reservations which are arid and of no present value. The case of the Campos in the southern end of the State is typical. This little remnant finds itself desert-bound and utterly unable to dig a living out of the sand. Last year the Government went so far as to provide for the Campos a white field matron, with an Indian assistant—a needed salving of a tribal sore, but a measure that should be supplemented by the removal of the whole band to another location. Mr. Kelsey and his associates will recommend the purchase of small arable allotments for the California Indians, in order to provide work for the adults who are willing to become self-supporting. The long, shameful history of the looting of the native tribes of the Pacific slope should be closed. Either the Government should adopt a vigorous policy of assistance, or make no further pretence of paternalistic care.

Attorney-General Moody's ridicule of the beef packers who had protested against Commissioner Garfield's use of alleged confidential communications, aroused applause in a Chicago courtroom, but hardly covered the point at issue. He represents corporate offenders of all sorts hastening to Washington for confession and absolution, if immunity from prosecution may be secured by unbosoming one's self to a Government official. The fancy is mirth-provoking, but the packers' case finds a certain weight in the ambiguous functions of the Department of Commerce and Labor. It is one thing to confess to an officer of the law; such action is equivalent to surrender at discretion. It is quite another thing to talk freely with an engaging person who is apparently concerned merely with the disinterested compilation of industrial statistics for the use of sociologists, reformers, and similar innocuous students. Nobody will believe that Commissioner Garfield would intentionally abuse the confidence of the worst Trust that ever converted a pig into food products. On the other hand, even corporations under Government scrutiny have their rights, and it is only fair that their officers should know just what consequences a frank talk at the Department of Commerce and Labor may involve. When the scope and function of this Department is more definitely understood, it is not likely that either the Secretary or any of his aides will have to sit many hours a day in the confessional.

The decision of the Federal Court in Chicago that the indicted packers are entitled to immunity, but that the indicted corporations must stand trial, lends a certain color to President Roosevelt's theory as to responsibility for misdeeds of a corporation—the theory which he applied in the case of Paul Morton. The Chicago decision, however, lets off the individual packers because the evidence against them was obtained by the Department of Commerce and Labor, on the understanding that it was not to be used in prosecutions. Judge Humphrey's opinion, if sustained by the Supreme Court, will

absolutely divorce the Department of Commerce and Labor from the Department of Justice. The facts obtained by Mr. Garfield may serve as a guide in framing new laws, but not as a weapon for the enforcement of old ones. The distinction is one which is not merely legal, but highly desirable. The Department of Commerce and Labor has not yet clearly proved its usefulness; but recent events show that, were it to become a mere bureau of the Department of Justice, it could make little or no headway. People who have been attacking the packers, privately as well as publicly, will not overlook the fact that they have escaped on a technicality. Their case has yet to be tried on its merits.

The Lacey bill, which provides for game refuges within the Federal forest reserves, will be favorably reported to the House, and deserves the serious attention of Congress. The plan is to set apart certain areas within which the killing of game—birds or fish—will be illegal. It is only by some such provision that the game supply of the country can be maintained. Otherwise recreation with rod or gun would very soon be restricted to members of the rapidly increasing sporting clubs. Unless there are forest asylums where the wild creatures may escape the annual slaughter, shooting in this country will soon be a matter of killing each autumn, *more Britannico*, the chicks and cubs that have been bred for that purpose the previous spring. Others than sportsmen are interested in the matter. Nature-lovers may well hail a measure that establishes a permanent "truce of God" for harried dumb creatures, and preserves a few portions of wild America in their original undesecrated seclusion.

The present session of the New York Legislature has seen such an extraordinary number of bills designed to remove or modify the restrictions of the civil-service law that the phenomenon deserves notice. The merit system of this State is established by the Constitution itself; it is so fortified by public opinion that the spoilsmen no longer attempt direct attacks. They have become sappers and miners, and, in the form of "exemption" bills, carry their tunnels against weak spots in the wall, ready to break through when the sentries happen to doze. The preference already given to civil-war veterans in respect to appointments and removals is the starting-point for most of these indirect attacks. It is proposed to extend the same privileges to veterans of all our other wars, recent or remote, to every soldier who has been in a skirmish, to every one who has been a soldier at all, volunteer or regular, whether there was fighting to be done or not, and to national guardsmen. Finally, as a crowning absurdity, volunteer firemen come up to ask for preferential treatment. The man behind the nozzle ranks himself with the man behind the gun. It is one of the curious features of certain of these bills that they are not for the sole benefit of classes likely to be politically useful. Some are so drawn that, as the Civil Service Reform Association points out, veterans of various classes could rush in from other States and receive the benefit—a form of carpet-bagging which the old soldiers at home would not be likely to appreciate. They include the regular, whose service in the field is an incident of his fixed calling, with the volunteer who went to the front, supposedly, from sheer patriotism, and is the peculiar care of the statesman. In fact, the logical end of legislation of this kind is not so much to aid the old soldier of the State as to make its civil machinery unworkable.

The Armstrong Insurance Committee has wisely decided to press at once the bill providing for the election of new trustees by policyholders. The proposed act postpones to November 15 next the elections of all mutual companies with a New York State charter. Four companies are affected—the Mutual Life, the Mutual Reserve, the New York Life, and the Security Mutual of Binghamton. The bill before the Legislature provides that, on November 15, "the terms of office of all the directors of said corporations respectively shall expire, anything to the contrary in the charter or by-laws thereof notwithstanding." It makes full and adequate arrangement for the nomination of independent candidates, requires the management to send out these independent ballots along with the "administration ticket," and allows no policyholder's proxy to be counted unless executed within two months of the election date. The importance of this last proviso lies in the fact that it renders invalid, for the November vote, both the proxies collected by Thomas W. Lawson and those lately solicited by the New York Life's own management. While legislating out of office all the existing trustees of these four companies, the bill lays no embargo whatever on their reëlection. If the majority of the policyholders, in any of these four companies, wish to return the present management to power next November, the opportunity is theirs. If they wish to reëlect some of the old trustees and drop others from the list, there is nothing to prevent them. Undoubtedly, the first sequel to the enactment of this bill would be the formation of policyholders' committees to name opposition tickets. It hardly need be added that their nominations, which must be made three months before the 15th of November, will be scrutinized and discussed as thoroughly as the management's ticket.

Even if "Federal control" of life insurance were feasible, it would be evident that the Armstrong committee has stolen President Roosevelt's thunder. To try a totally different experiment at the very moment when New York State's plan was on the eve of being tested, would be of itself absurd. But the thoroughness with which Mr. Roosevelt's scheme is disposed of by the House Judiciary Committee, practically removes it from the field of discussion. The President remarked, in his annual message last December, that "Congress has already recognized that interstate insurance may be a proper subject for Federal legislation"; his ground for this statement being that the Bureau of Corporations is allowed to inquire and publish information about insurance companies. The Chairman of the Judiciary Committee now rejoins:

> "Let it be said kindly, and not offensively, that it is a monstrous doctrine, subversive of our dual system of government, to even suggest, after the distribution of these great powers between the Federal Government and the States, that the Federal Government, created by the States, can take from the States the power they have always enjoyed and expressly reserved to them by the Constitution exclusive in the States."

Sound Constitutional reasoning this, especially when backed, as it is in Mr. Jenkins's report, by the Supreme Court's repeated declaration that insurance is not commerce and that Congress cannot impair the police power of the States. Much of the hazy reasoning lately prevalent in this matter resulted from a fancied analogy between Federal control of insurance companies and Federal charters for national banks. There is really no analogy, the national banking system having been created to serve the Government's fiscal purposes, and having been endowed with special powers in note circulation, which were denied to State banks through imposition of a Federal tax.

We will pass over the somewhat comic aspect of Mr. Jerome's excited protests against excitement. What are the facts? The Grand Jury asked instruction from Judge O'Sullivan on a point of law. Did the diversion of insurance funds to politicians constitute larceny? Before the judge was heard from, the District Attorney filed a brief arguing that no convictions could be had, because "felonious intent" could not be proved. Mr. Jerome asserted that no reputable lawyer in this city would disagree with him. But immediately the very judge of the court disagreed. Judge O'Sullivan instructed the Grand Jury that the facts alleged would constitute larceny, and that it was for them to judge of the in-

tent. Now we submit that, on this basis of fact, all Mr. Jerome's objections and alternative offers were beside the point, and that his public duty was straightway to urge indictments under the law as laid down by the court. His argument from terrible consequences had nothing to do with the case. He says that, if Judge O'Sullivan's law is sound, then Mr. Perkins committed a felony and Messrs. Bliss and Cortelyou were receivers of stolen goods. But if that is the law, why should he object to applying it? It is of the highest public importance that this issue be tried out; and the regular way to do it is by indictment and prosecution. If Mr. Jerome felt that his declared opinion would disable him from trying the cases, he could assign his ablest assistant, as he did in the trial of Nan Patterson. In her case the District Attorney did not proceed on the assumption that he must be absolutely certain of having evidence to convict before seeking indictment. Mr. Jerome, however, has chosen to go his own gait and has sought warrants from a police-court justice. Well, we shall in that way undoubtedly get the decision of the highest court of the State upon the law of larceny. Meanwhile, we suppose there is no reason why the Grand Jury should not composedly proceed by way of orderly indictment.

In all the discussion of railroad rebating, the shipper has been invariably described as the helpless victim of corporate oppression. His modest business beginnings are snuffed out by some tool of the Trusts who has smuggled himself into a railroad staff; his humble produce is taxed as caprice or malice dictates; his profits evaporate into freight tolls. Recent testimony taken by the Interstate Commerce Commission presents the shipper in a less pitiful aspect. He habitually mislabels freights to get the advantage of a lower classification; he plays railroad against railroad until he finds one that will agree to accept his lace window-curtains as "stamped tinware," or will engage to underweigh all his shipments. In fact, the shipper reveals to the hardened railroad man unmistakable traces of the cloven hoof and forked tail. We are unwilling to be umpire in the matter of making an award for diabolism between these contestants. In particular, no layman would willingly enter the labyrinth of freight classification—a subject which admits all possibilities of jugglery on the part of him who charges and him who pays. But the recent investigations at least show that it sits ill on many a shipper to cry harrow upon the railroads, and that Government ownership or just and even application of freight rates would be quite as unwelcome to many a private man of affairs as to the very monsters of the corporate deeps.

The memorial of the American Federation of Labor, which was the occasion of the sound admonition by Mr. Roosevelt and Speaker Cannon, ended in these terms:

> "Labor now appeals to you, and we trust that it may not be in vain. But if, perchance, you may not heed us, we shall appeal to the conscience and the support of our fellow-citizens."

Evidently, the good advice received at Washington was taken amiss, for the Federation announces that it will enter politics and organize an independent Labor party. The step is momentous. For years President Gompers has opposed meddling with politics, whether as an organization or through alliance with any of the Socialist parties. But he now gives his voice for the literal fulfilment of the warning conveyed in the "bill of complaint." On the whole, one may welcome this decision of Federation. In itself a new labor faction will tend only to perplex the political situation, affording confusing opportunities of rivalry or alliance with the Socialist groups; but, to go into politics will at least compel the representatives of trade-unionism to formulate their demands and to measure them on the scale of political possibility. To sit in Congress for a session would be no mean education for a labor leader; it would tend to reconcile him to certain inevitable administrative and economic conditions which now get scant consideration in labor circles. In any case, neither Mr. Roosevelt nor Speaker Cannon need tremble in his official chair because President Gompers has taken an appeal to the people. There are many indications that the people are thoroughly wearied of the extravagant pretensions of the unionist oligarchy. From the tribunal of average good sense, unionism in its latest phase is by no means likely to obtain a favorable verdict.

In Ohio a law has been passed imposing severe penalties upon "hazing." Any one acquainted with college life is aware of the difficulty in convincing juries of genuine criminality in hazing, except in such cases as would evidently warrant action under existing criminal law. Hence the Ohio legislation is not likely to prove effective as such; but it is significant of an irritated state of public feeling toward current manifestations of "college life." No country has been so ready to lavish its wealth upon higher institutions of learning as our own. The people tax themselves freely for great State universities, tens of thousands contribute of their little store to be duplicated by the rich in the interests of denominational colleges, and still larger numbers make heroic sacrifices that their own sons and daughters may have the advantages thus rendered possible. Most of these classes feel that there is something radically wrong when the college is continually before the public with a notoriety based upon the trivial, the lawless, the criminally reckless, or at best the merely subordinate, and not the things for which it was created to stand. But there is a defect in home training which constitutes contributory negligence.

Hustling the Hapsburgs is the latest recreation of an ever-active Administration. Ambassador Francis was confirmed as *persona grata* before Ambassador Storer's recall was formally notified to the Austrian Foreign Office. We hope Mr. Roosevelt will have no patience with the plea of doddering Continental diplomacy for its obsolete and foolish conventions. If we are ever going to teach the Old World that a wink is as good as a word, or better, Vienna is the place to begin. There the mossback tradition of Metternich still persists in the face of a telephonic age. Bless you, they don't even read the New York papers on the Ballhaus-Platz. How can they expect to know when an Ambassador has been recalled? What can you do with people like that, except plump a new Ambassador upon them and make them "sit up"? We are heartily glad that this effete chancellery is at last getting its lesson in the new diplomacy.

Gen. Kuropatkin's analysis of the cause of the Russian collapse in Mantchuria results in the not very startling statement that a rotten bureaucratic system was at the root of the disaster. This will account, in a way, for the notorious shortage of supplies and appropriate artillery early in the war; it explains rather less directly the general ignorance and lack of initiative among the Russian officers. The former commander-in-chief declares that promotion by favoritism or by routine, irrespective of merit, had driven many of the best officers out of the army. In this avowal there is a lesson for a nation that still keeps its army in politics, and regulates promotion more or less by political and personal influences. Into the deeper causes of the Mantchurian fiasco Gen. Kuropatkin, so far as the cable reports him, did not enter. Evidently these are to be found in general social conditions in Russia. The officers of the army are drawn from an aristocracy at once ignorant and dissipated, who bring to the very exacting duties of command no better qualifications than a certain good fellowship and personal courage. Gen. Kuropatkin's valedictory order thus becomes, perhaps unconsciously, a potent argument for opening the military career to talent, regardless of social rank, and for hastening the liberalizing of the Russian Government.

LABOR'S IMPOSSIBLE DEMANDS.

ORGANIZED LABOR: Call at the White House or the Speaker's Room, and you will hear of something to your advantage.

No such advertisement appeared in any Washington paper on March 21, so far as we can discover, but what happened would have justified its insertion. Various officials of the Federation of Labor saw the President and the Speaker of the House and got some of the most refreshingly straight and wholesome talk they have listened to for many a day. They will not profit by it as much as they should, but the country stands to gain by the frank words of Mr. Roosevelt and Speaker Cannon. For a long time there has been a growing, we will not say arrogance, but obtuseness, in the demands of trades unions, and it is well that they should be squarely met.

We do not say that labor leaders are without a grievance against politicians. The latter have flattered and fooled organized Labor to the top of its bent. Promises impossible of fulfilment have been made. Votes have been sought and, perhaps, obtained on what amounts to false pretences. It is not to be wondered at, then, if those who have been taken in by the hopes held out of creating a labor millennium by legislation, should descend resentfully upon the legislators with a demand for an explanation. In particular, we think that the professed guardians of labor have a just complaint against the Republican party. It has undertaken to enact laws of which the declared intent was to make American workingmen a specially favored class. It has professed to keep their wages high by a protective tariff. It has favored an eight-hour day in Government employ. Yet when it came to be a question of doing a great piece of national work at Panama on strictly business principles, both the tariff and the eight-hour day were thrown over. There is, no doubt, a deep inconsistency here. If it is right that our laws, as the tariff-makers pretend, should give special privileges to laboring men, we ought not to draw back just because the money cost threatens to be too great. This makes it look as if the Government were willing that the private consumer should be made to sweat by the tariff and by labor exactions, though it will not itself tolerate them. This is highly illogical, from the labor point of view, and so also is the refusal of the Republican party to "protect" American workmen effectually by excluding competing immigrants.

But the moment that Mr. Gompers and the others screwed their courage to the sticking-point, put their demands down in black and white, and took them in person to the responsible officers of the Government, all the world could see upon what untenable ground they stand. In effect, these great enemies of monopoly wish to perfect a monopoly of their own. They desire to be exempt from the ordinary processes of the courts—processes which, as the President showed, they are the first to invoke against employers of labor. These haters of privilege covet the most intolerable of all privileges for themselves. Many of them foreign-born, or the children of immigrants, they would cut off from others the opportunities which they themselves have enjoyed. Complaining that they suffer from discrimination, they would discriminate ruthlessly against the Chinese. Throughout, their programme is one of thoroughgoing exclusion and monopoly. The Standard Oil Company never did anything more cruel and remorseless in crushing a rival than these representatives of organized labor stand ready to do in the case of laborers from abroad or outside the unions.

For the great plainness of speech which the President used, we must all thank him. And the Speaker was not far behind. With a free use of the vernacular which the labor delegates must have appreciated, he told them that they were not "the whole shooting-match." There are the workmen to be considered who have refused to wear the shackles of unionism. There is the large interest of the country as a whole to be consulted. Labor as a "class" is as unknown to our laws and the spirit of our institutions as are doctors as a class or mine-owners or clergymen or millionaires. This is the point which the President brought out with salutary emphasis. To ask exemption from the general law of the land, to demand a special status of any kind, is to seek something un-American, revolting to the sense of fair play, destructive of the only equality we know. We hope he will keep the same principles out of the scabbard, and lay about with them as vigorously when ship-subsidy hunters come to see him and when the protected manufacturers raise their wails; but, at all events, he did one good day's work. The ring of sincerity in his indignation at the pretensions of his labor visitors was unmistakable; and the flat-footed way in which he told them what he would and would not do, without a single politician's shuffle or juggling with words, was worth a ton of abstract discourses about the square deal.

This labor descent upon Washington goes to swell that mounting wave of Socialism which, under one name and another, is, as Professor MacDonald said at Providence last week, threatening to break upon us. There is no occasion to be hysterical about it. We shall doubtless see many excesses, but most of them will effect their own cure. Politicians will play their little games. Already the Hearst papers are rushing in to say how differently *he* would have received the dear workingmen. But things will settle themselves in the end if our responsible citizenship steadies itself to fight for even-handed justice for all, with the abolition of every special privilege. We must, however, give our political truths their full scope and bearing. We cannot deny favors to laboring men as a class while continuing favors to manufacturers as a class. In a word, if we wish to attack the socialistic tendencies of the day in their great source and provocation, we are bound to do all that we can to get rid of the protective tariff.

THE SENATE AS A FOUNT OF KNOWLEDGE.

Senator Lodge uttered a timely and much needed word on Thursday. The country has been getting very anxious of late over the possibility that what Senator Spooner correctly calls a "whirlwind of abuse charged with wickedness and folly," might seriously disturb the Senate in the calm and high-minded performance of its Constitutional duties. Senator Lodge has allayed all fears. Referring to the criticisms of the Senate, "penny-a-line" and other, he said that that body would continue to perform its duty regardless of them. Both the Senate and the Executive, he asserted without fear of denial, "could take care of their own fortunes." We are not so sure about Mr. Roosevelt, but we think every candid man will agree that the members of the Senate do take extremely good care of their fortunes. Men like Senators Aldrich, Elkins, Clark, Alger, and Proctor, to mention only a few, have displayed what we may be pardoned for calling a marked aptitude in this direction.

One great cause of some of the popular misconceptions of the Senate is the limited circulation of the *Congressional Record*. The public depends too much upon brief and mangled dispatches from Washington, which often emphasize merely a sensational happening and give no conception whatever of the mingled pathos and bathos, wisdom, humor, sarcasm, the keen, incisive, self-contained yet self-assured methods of dealing with public affairs which mark the Senate in its treatment of our legislative problems. People may write us if they wish about the need of more and better public schools. We for our part should be content with things as they are if we could but place a copy of the *Congressional Record* in the hands of every man and woman in this fair land. Were this done, correspondence schools and universities by extension might fade away. Not only would the most instructive printed matter in the world be placed in the hands of the toiling plain people, but they would refuse to patronize the ten-cent monthlies, and the power of these publications to misrepresent the Senate would be a thing of the past.

Take, for instance, the Senate debate on March 20 on the great question whether the Philippines should or should not be fortified. It shows the Senate at its best, dignified, bent on knowledge, ready to regard the question from every point of view with scholarly thoroughness. The first matter to be settled was whether Subig Bay or Manila should be fortified; Senator Perkins favoring the latter, Senators Lodge and Bacon Subig Bay. Quite naturally, the drydock Dewey played an important part in the discussion. We append a brilliant extract from the debate, which speaks for itself:

"Mr. Perkins—As to the harbor of Subig Bay, there is nothing now there.

"Mr. Lodge—The Dewey dry dock will be there.

"Mr. Perkins—The dock is not yet there.

"Mr. Lodge—Well, we hope it will get there.

"Mr. Perkins—We all hope so. If it had been built in San Francisco it would have been there by this time.

"Mr. Spooner—Where was that dry dock built?

"Mr. Perkins—At a port on the Atlantic Coast—Philadelphia.

"Mr. Spooner—It seems to be a pretty plain case, as the Senator puts it, that the public interest would have been much better subserved by the construction of that dock in California; and I ask why was it not constructed there?

"Mr. Perkins—If I had had my way, it would have been; but unfortunately my friend from Massachusetts had more influence than I.

"Mr. Lodge—I did not even know where it was built.

"Mr. Perkins—The Senator spoke of the dock.

"Mr. Lodge—I asked the Senator where the dock was built, and he said it was built at League Island, Philadelphia. I merely suggested, in speaking of American labor, that there were American laborers on the Atlantic Coast.

"Mr. Perkins—I spoke of the tolls for going through the Suez Canal.

"Mr. Lodge—What bearing that has on Subig Bay I do not know.

"Mr. Perkins—The Senator said the dry dock was to go to Subig Bay, as I understood.

"Mr. Lodge—It is not yet there, but we hope it will be there.

"Mr. Frye—When is it supposed it will reach there?

"Mr. Perkins—I see it stated this morning that it is supposed it will reach there by Christmas. At the rate of progress it has been making I think it will be long after Christmas before it reaches there."

This, we submit, presents the Senate in its most characteristic mood, and our position is not changed by the fact that the Dewey was built at Sparrows Point, Maryland. Homer must nod sometimes.

But our next quotation from this masterly debate shows why we want the *Congressional Record* in the hands of the young:

"Mr. Perkins—When the dock reaches there, we have automobile topedoes, we have submarine mines and submarine boats, and we can easily protect that dock with very much less expense than it would be to build fortifications for which we have had no particular plan as yet presented to us. When I was a boy in Maine, when I went with the lumbermen into the woods to get out timber, in the first place we cut down the trees, then ran the chalk line to see what it would square up, and then they would hew to the line. If you were building a fence or a house, you would first make a plan, so as to know what that fence or house was to be constructed of and what it would cost you before you expended any amount of money upon it."

Rarely have we seen so much sound practical sense and valuable information crowded into one paragraph and stated so attractively. But this process of education did not end here. The island of Batan figures next:

"Mr. Perkins—I should like to call the attention of the Senator to the chart of Manila Bay.

"Mr. Lodge—I have not been there, but I am fairly familiar with the chart.

"Mr. Perkins—I should also like to call the attention of the Senator from Massachusetts to Batan Island.

"Mr. Lodge—I know where that is, too.

"Mr. Perkins—I am sure we did wisely in purchasing those mines.

"Mr. Lodge—Yes, but suppose we find an iron mine and it is wise to secure it; is it then to be argued that we must move the naval station over to the iron mine? The naval station is military. It is not merely to be near a coal mine. The object is the military value, and the military value of Subig Bay is admitted by every expert whose opinion is worth anything."

We are sure that nothing so useful as this could be heard in the same time in either Reichstag or Parliament, and it gains rather than loses by its marked resemblance to passages from 'Alice in Wonderland.' But while Alice had difficulty in always finding out just what play was the proper one to come next, the Senate is in no danger of being deprived of accurate information:

"Mr. Lodge—I do not think it will be necessary, if we have a strong base at Subig Bay, to enter on very extensive fortifications in Manila Harbor.

"Mr. Beveridge—It is only seventy miles away.

"Mr. Lodge—It is only seventy miles away, and Manila is such a large bay that the way to protect Manila is with a fleet. The fleet that holds Subig Bay is master of Manila.

"Mr. Perkins—There is no question about that. The only trouble is, it is seventy miles from the place we want to fortify.

"Mr. Burrows—Will the Senator allow me to correct him—that is, if the Secretary of War knows anything about it, and I think he does, because he has spent considerable time in the islands? He says it is only thirty-five.

"Mr. Perkins—That must be overland.

"Mr. Lodge—Does the Senator mean to say it is a shorter distance by land than by water?"

There was much more of this discussion—pages and pages and pages of it—and every remark shows with what utter disregard of time and labor the people's interests were safeguarded. As our readers know, the upshot of the inquiry was that no fortifications whatever were voted. After such a demonstration of the capacity and usefulness of the Senate, one would think the whirlwind of abuse might stop for at least one issue of the "ten-centers."

A TEST OF ORTHODOXY.

In the coming trial of the Rev. Algernon S. Crapsey of Rochester for heresy, the Episcopal Church must answer a grave and far-reaching question: What are the limits of orthodoxy?

The issue is presented clearly. Dr. Crapsey accepts fully and proclaims boldly the teachings of modern science and the logical implications of those teachings. He rejects, for example, the miraculous:

"Natural forces are now known to be unchangeable in their nature and uniform in their operation. They know nothing of man and care nothing for his wishes; the only way he can profit by them is by obeying them; if he puts himself under their guidance, they will help him; if he gets in their way, they will destroy him."

On this assumption of the immutability of natural law, Dr. Crapsey denies the dogmas of the virgin birth and the divinity of Christ as those dogmas are commonly understood:

"If we are told of a certain being in human form, born of a human mother, expressing consciousness in human speech, living a human life and dying a human death, we naturally predicate of such a one a human fatherhood as well as a human motherhood; for universal experience bears witness to the fact that every one who is the child of a human mother is also the child of a human father. To overcome this presupposition, which is established by universal experience, would require testimony of overwhelming force. The burden of proof lies with those who deny, not with those who assert, the validity of universal experience to establish a given fact."

This reasoning, we need hardly remind our readers, follows closely the classic argument of Hume's essay, "Of Miracles." "There must," said the eighteenth-century philosopher, "be an uniform experience against every miraculous event, otherwise the event would not merit that appellation. And as an uniform experience amounts to a proof, there is here a direct and full proof, from the nature of the fact, against the existence of any miracle; nor can such a proof be destroyed or the miracle rendered credible but by an opposite proof which is superior." Hume concludes, therefore, "that no testimony is sufficient to establish a miracle, unless the testimony be of such a kind that its falsehood would be more miraculous than the fact which it endeavors to establish."

Dr. Crapsey, however, unlike some earlier disbelievers in miracles, feels that his faith in the essentials of Christianity is strengthened rather than weakened. He is not disturbed because "the Bible is not a miraculous book, which orthodoxy claims it to be"; or because "Jesus, the son of Joseph, no longer stands apart from the common destiny of man in life and death." On the contrary, the Rochester clergyman finds cause for fresh hope and courage in the fact that Christ "is in all things like as we are—born as we are born, dying as we die; and both in life and death is in the keeping of that same divine power, that heavenly fatherhood, which delivers us from the womb and carries us down to the grave." To Dr. Crapsey the change in view is a source, not of alarm, but of relief:

"We are no longer compelled to look upon the scientific movement as irreligious, but we are able to see in it a new and greater religion, a religion based not upon

the sporadic miracle, but upon the eternal law. We are no longer compelled to look for our God in some obscure event of the past; we have but to lift up our eyes to see him in the outgoings of the evening and morning, in all the days of our pilgrimage."

Without quibbling or equivocation, Dr. Crapsey stands, doctrinally, exactly where many Unitarians and others of the unorthodox stand, and have been standing for several generations. In this situation three paths lie before him. The easiest and perhaps the simplest is to follow certain predecessors over to Unitarianism. He may feel, however, that the Episcopal Church, with its formularies, its compact and efficient organization, and its history and traditions, offers him personally greater opportunities for usefulness—provided it will tolerate his beliefs.

If he remains an Episcopalian, he still has two ways to choose from. At the close of the general convention of 1904 the House of Bishops issued a pastoral letter, saying: "If one finds, whatever his office or place in the Church, that he has lost his hold upon the fundamental verities, then in the name of common honesty let him be silent or withdraw." In the name of common honesty, Dr. Crapsey declares, he will not be guilty of that cowardly hypocrisy of silence which the bishops urge. This position the *Church Standard* commends as "absolutely just." By refusing to withdraw, he purposes to test the attitude of the Church. As a writer in the *Sun* puts it, Dr. Crapsey feels that he still holds to the fundamental verities. Under such circumstances, "the plain duty of a religious teacher" is to "throw upon his Church the responsibility of proclaiming before the world the limits of its toleration and defining the precise doctrines excluded from further inquiry or modification."

Dr. Crapsey has the support of a large number of the more liberal clergy and laymen. His case was in the minds of many who signed the circular letter printed in the *Evening Post* of January 30. Among the subscribers to that document were Dean George Hodges and several professors of the Episcopal Theological School of Cambridge, and the Revs. Loring W. Batten, Percy Stickney Grant, and John P. Peters of this city. They assert that the "historical validity" of details of New Testament narrative "must ultimately be determined in the court of trained research." George Foster Peabody, another of the signers, has written a public letter in which he says that a decision against Dr. Crapsey might "make it impossible for sincere and earnest young men in college and seminary to contemplate taking the ordination vows." He looks forward to the possibility, "within reasonable time," of "a revisal of the language now in use in the Episcopal Church." If Dr. Crapsey's heresies are accepted as ortnodoxy, a revision of the Apostles' Creed as well as the Nicene would logically follow. The doctrines set forth in these formulas of faith would no longer be binding; and the language could no longer be interpreted in the natural sense. They would be literally creeds outworn.

ASPECTS OF COMPARATIVE LITERATURE.

The appointment of a professor of comparative literature at Harvard, after the chair had remained vacant for several years, is a matter of more than academic interest. The new incumbent, Professor Schofield, is preëminently a mediævalist. He has published numerous ingenious studies in the field of legend and folklore. After the fashion of his master, the lamented Gaston Paris, he traces the affiliations of legends and stories through all the versions in what may be called the culture tongues to their crudest variant in the remotest *patois*. Such study deals chiefly with matter that is not literature at all in any but a loose sense. It is primarily an investigation of the interrelations of the stock subjects of mediæval story-tellers — a branch of historical science. It deals mostly with the least important manifestation of the mediæval spirit, and regards as literature any document whatever that affords a clue to the history of a legend. Such studies are of an engrossing sort, and require that extraordinarily discursive reading and retentive memory which Professor Schofield exemplifies so well. Occasionally, work of this kind assumes a form that may itself fairly be called literature. This was the case with Gaston Paris, and is with M. Bédier; they are almost the only mediævalists possessed by the comparative idea who themselves have contributed to modern letters.

We have no intention of denying to the literature of the Middle Age a certain place in humane letters. Yet, if one excepts Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, and Chaucer, there is scarcely a mediæval text between the First Crusade and the fall of Constantinople a knowledge of which is in any sense indispensable to culture. The sinking of the rest would lose us much interesting reading, and would efface in the period prior to the true Middle Ages a fascinating legendary world; it would, however, leave no very important tract of the human spirit uninterpreted. Whatever criticism of life there is in mediæval literature as a whole is vague and casual. Its form is relatively monotonous and inexpressive. The great emotions it professes to invoke, it seldom realizes with any poignancy. Except in a few lyrics, the structural sense of the Middle Ages is weak and faulty, in singular contradistinction to the architectonic character of its social order and its actual achievement in monumental building.

In fine, no student who has not wholly lost his sense of literary proportion approaches a mediæval writer with the reverence appropriate to the great masters. No reader of Virgil has anything very serious to do with Chrétien de Troyes or Benoît de Ste.-Maure. Indeed, most writers of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries had a very correct apprehension that they fell not only far below the Virgilian, but also measurably beneath the Ovidian standard. For this reason it would be matter of regret if Harvard were to restrict "comparative literature" to instruction in what is literature at all only in the slighter and less significant sense. The authorities at Cambridge cannot, of course, hope to develop an adequate department of comparative literature along any such narrow lines.

In any case, there is a growing dissent from the purely philological view. To an expanding school of students, best represented, perhaps, by the late Joseph Texte, comparative literature deals primarily with humane letters and with the direct or reciprocal influences of literary cultures. Texte, for example, thoroughly traced Rousseauism from its mixed French and English origins to its effects upon all the nations of Europe. At Columbia, Professor Woodberry founded courses in comparative literature which embraced particularly the literary internationalism of the Renaissance. His pupils have published comprehensive treatises on such topics as Renaissance criticism and the influence of the Spanish upon the English drama. Professor Saintsbury's portentously big and learned 'History of Criticism' is an attempt to trace the entire history of European taste in literature. Such studies have the obvious advantage of bringing the investigator into close contact with great literature. No one can have studied minutely the history of any literary influence since the Renaissance without covering a considerable portion of the field of humane letters. Furthermore, the implications of such study force one to travel the main routes of human intelligence from Grecian times to our own. No one can deny the utility of such studies for our university students. They should produce men of wide and sympathetic culture—ideal incumbents of our college chairs of literature.

It is evident that one may have threshed out the quiddity of a score of mediæval legends without having come into stimulating contact with the literature that to-day counts for culture. A personality like that of the late Francis J. Child, combining the widest reading and appreciation with minute specialization on material seldom literary, must of necessity be rare. No one will understand us as depreciating such investigations as resulted in the 'English

and Scottish Popular Ballads.' They furnish an admirable example of industry, insight, and method for all scholars; they open up to popular appreciation a *genre* of peculiar freshness and charm. Yet the drying-up effect upon most men of these minutely historical and extra-literary studies is well known. We cannot produce really educated teachers of any literature by confining the studies of their best years to what is barely literature at all.

RICHTER AND GERMAN LIBERALISM.

The death a few days ago of Eugen Richter, the last of the great German Liberal leaders who were directly inspired by the ideals of 1848 and 1849, calls fresh attention to the way in which the Liberals in that country have been ground between the upper stone of Imperialism and the nether stone of Socialism. Richter himself was truly a magnificent Parliamentary figure, both in ability and in personality. His great friend and co-worker, Ludwig Bamberger, was one of the exiles from Germany after the Revolution of 1849; Richter was too young to be active at that time. But the spirit which animated Kinkel, Kapp, Von Unruh, our own Carl Schurz, and a host of others, was Richter's as well. To his ideals he added extraordinary powers as an orator and as a statesman. Absolutely fearless, he was known as the most successful Parliamentary antagonist Bismarck ever had. As Bebel is to-day, so Richter was denounced by the great Chancellor as a *Reichsfeind*, "an enemy of the Empire," and in return he criticised, scored, badgered, and fairly drew blood from Bismarck until the latter frequently lost his temper completely.

Bamberger and Richter alike never experienced any sea changes in their Liberal, or, as they were better known, Radical opinions. Both were ardent Free Traders and followers of the Manchester school; they were Bismarck's sharpest critics in all matters financial. They championed the freedom of the individual with an earnestness which never failed to tell. They and their immediate following were thoroughgoing anti-Imperialists in that they believed the nation's first duty to be at home. But far more interesting to them than over-sea ventures were the freedom of opinion of the press and the individual in Germany, and the social progress of the masses. Others might rejoice over the beginnings of a colonial policy, which Richter lived to see a costly and terrible failure; he and his colleagues were far more concerned with Bismarck's creation of a powerful centralized government, ruling less by the consent of the governed than by the might of its police power, to which the "man of blood and iron" resorted so readily. A leader in the trades-union movements, Richter knew nothing of caste, and so he naturally became one of the chief combatants of the anti-Semite agitation. But he had the keenest eye for illicit privileges of any kind, whether those of the military autocrat or of the protectionist or the selfish agrarian.

To every cause he brought extraordinary knowledge, what the London *Times* calls "a Gladstonian faculty of making figures live and speak," and an inexhaustible power of laborious research and study. Idealists as he and his associates were, they were none the less practical men. Bamberger once wrote that their Opposition was "not that of the beer philosopher of Berlin and Frankfort, who demands that the Outs bring him the very stars in heaven—from which he would certainly run away if they did fall to earth." The Liberal Opposition, he declared, "took part in the living world, where things were actually going on, and developed itself and the common weal by copious draughts of pure, fresh air and unceasing labor." Neither he nor Richter believed that the way to the millennium was marked "Socialism." Karl Marx and Lasalle were their warm personal friends, but political enemies. Richter himself studied, years ago, some of the problems which many Americans are now approaching as if they had never been heard of before in any other clime, at any other time; and he rejected the solutions offered by the Social-Democracy. Attack him as they would, his opponents, whether repressionists or revolutionaries, found him ever on the alert and an invincible antagonist, if only because of his unfailing good humor and cheerfulness, and because his own character was so spotless, his integrity beyond all question.

Yet it was Richter's fate to see the Liberal movement, once so powerful, shrink into insignificance. Perhaps it would have been wiser if he and his comrades had opposed with greater vigor the latter-day manifestations of Imperialism. They failed, as some of their successors do to-day, to see how militarism menaces Liberalism. And so the Social-Democrats took from them a powerful weapon, which Bebel still wields with enormous advantage. Had Bismarck had even a slight sympathy with Liberal ideals, the tremendous growth of the Social-Democracy which swamped Liberalism would at least have been postponed, if not prevented. The social and political reforms for which the Liberals contended would have made the proletariat far less ready to accept the doctrines of communism. Denied them, its members have in despair thrown themselves into the arms of the revolutionists, whose ranks contain to-day greater leaders than are left to the Liberals.

But he would be pessimistic, indeed, who should say that the golden age of German Liberalism has gone for all time. The astounding triumph of the corresponding party in England is an example of the speed with which political revolutions may occur. There are already signs of an approaching Liberal reunion in Germany. Ever since the elections of 1903, efforts have been made to bring together the two Liberal groups and the *Volkspartei* of South Germany with considerable success, conferences having brought out the fact that a common programme was not impossible of adoption. In Bavaria and Baden, too, there has been much progress, particularly in the latter State, where the National Liberals have been really democratized. On the 17th of February a general assembly at Frankfort adopted a basic programme upon which all Liberals can unite. At this convention there was displayed a praiseworthy readiness to overlook minor differences. Of course, this affects only a small portion of the Liberals, but it may be fairly heralded as a promising beginning of Liberal rehabilitation.

THE SURRENDER TO SOCIALISM.

LONDON, March 9, 1906.

On the second of March the Education (Provision of Meals) Bill passed through its second reading in the House of Commons. It passed without a division. One member of Parliament alone ventured to offer any vigorous opposition. Yet the bill is no ordinary measure. It imposes a new and heavy burden of a strictly incalculable amount on the overtaxed ratepayer. It in reality extends the area of poor relief. It protects parents who in truth derive aid from the rates from the disability of pauperism. Virtual paupers will be able to vote for the man whom they find most inclined to increase the benefits which they are to receive from the state; a man, under the bill, may be a voter who calmly leaves to the public the cost of supporting his children. With the details of the bill I do not care to trouble your readers; my object is to insist upon the light thrown by the reception of this hazardous measure upon the characteristics of a modern House of Commons.

The first and most marked feature of the debate of Friday last is the extraordinary levity with which the present House of Commons accepts a proposal which, whether good or bad, amounts in principle to a social revolution. If there be one English institution which more than another ought to be touched or modified with only the greatest care and circumspection, it is the Poor Law. Our system of poor relief affects not only the wages, but also the moral tone of the whole body of wage-earners. It is admittedly the weak point in our social arrangements. Not much more than seventy years have passed since ill-considered distribution of public alms pauperized the poor whom it was meant to relieve, and well-nigh brought the country to ruin. The so-called new Poor Law was the salvation of England. The man who relaxes the Poor Law is proceeding along a path of which the perils are known; he at least

may be expected to step slowly and with the utmost discretion, to proceed gravely and even sadly. This, however, is not the spirit in which a House of Commons, fresh with the vigor of a new election, passes a bill which gives an extension to poor relief that might have astounded even the bigoted opponents of the Reform of 1834.

The House of Commons is supposed to be in a special sense the guardian of the taxpayers' money, but the House has accepted the novel principle that the nation must feed children who attend elementary schools, without making even an effort to ascertain the cost of the experiment. One member suggests, apparently with reason, that it involves an expenditure of from twelve to fifteen millions a year. He is interrupted with shouts of "No! No!" but no one gives even an approximate estimate of the expense involved in a change which commands popular support. The general tone of the House certainly is that, somehow or other, the schoolchildren must be adequately fed by the nation if their parents will not undertake to feed them. The arguments used in favor of a scheme which, conceal the matter as you will, must in many cases relieve neglectful parents from the performance of one of their most obvious duties, are singularly feeble. One member tells us that "the youth of the nation are the trustees of prosperity"; that you cannot teach a starving child, and that in his opinion free meals are no more demoralizing than free education. Mr. Birrell is a member of the Government and a man of talent. He meets the most obvious objections with witticisms that we are told raised laughter. When he announces that man "was born of a woman and not of the Local Government Board," he rouses "loud laughter." He thinks, or asserts, "that there is not much use in saying that this question [of providing food for school children] was part of a larger question," because "everything is part of a larger question." To the objection that the proposal he supports may involve future perils, he has the easy reply that he is "quite content" to leave posterity to deal with a great many other questions that might arise. *Après moi le déluge*, the silly maxim of a worthless king, seems to be the wisdom of our modern democrat.

Nor does the lack of serious argument alone show the levity of the House. One speaker after another betrayed a suspicion that the bill before them might bring considerable evils upon the nation. Yet even critics dealt with it in a very gingerly manner; their attitude is for the most part summed up by the words of a member who said that he was not "altogether in accord with the bill before the House, but he did not wish to say very much in the way of criticism." One man, it is true, Mr. Harold Cox, spoke out his mind boldly; he moved "that it is undesirable to proceed further with the measure, which would diminish the responsibility of the parents for the maintenance of their children, and would tend to lower the wages of the poorer classes." He spoke, and spoke well; but this effort of plain-spokenness sheds a curious light on the temper of the House. Not a single member seconded Mr. Cox's amendment; it fell to the ground without a division, and Mr. Burns, as a member of the Cabinet, pledged the Government to see that the bill should get through this session. The bill was not a Government measure, but it is now accepted by the Ministry.

If the levity of the House of Commons is noteworthy, the sentiment of the House, which no doubt to a great extent (though to what exact extent no one knows) represents the feeling of the nation, is also deserving of attention. There can be no real doubt that the Provision of Meals Bill, taken together with plans for the relief of the unemployed and the promises held out of the provision at some indefinite period of old-age pensions at the expense of the State, is an unmistakable sign of the prevalence of beliefs or feelings which certainly savor of Socialism. Whoever has noted the growth of opinion during the last twenty or thirty years, must feel that the prevalence of ideas absolutely opposed to the beliefs which constituted the Liberalism or Radicalism of fifty years ago, is no sudden revolution, but rather the outcome of causes the slow but constant working of which in England may be traced back through the history of a generation. The virtues no less than the defects of an Englishman of to-day make him look with something like favor on socialistic experiments—as long, at any rate, as they do not actively interfere with his own comfort. His humanity urges him to relieve physical suffering, he perceives keenly the evils and pains resulting from poverty, he is in reality much more sympathetic than were Englishmen (say) at the beginning of the nineteenth century. He has, on the other hand, no firm belief in or grasp of political or economical principles; he has grown up in a country where the power of the State is constantly on the increase; he has ceased to feel enthusiastic about self-help. Indolence no less than humanity suggests to him that he can perform his duty to his poorer neighbors by voting that their wants shall be met by money supplied by rates or taxes, *i. e.*, at the expense of the State. The wage-earners themselves, though, according to all the evidence that can be obtained, better off than were the workingmen of (say) 1850, feel the contrast between poverty and riches more acutely than did their parents. Add to this, that they too have become accustomed to receive help either directly or indirectly from the State, and have imbibed a sort of natural Socialism. Then, too, the growth of the feeling in favor of State help has coincided in England with the development of democracy. As I have already pointed out in other letters, the creation of the Labor Party is the most important political fact of the day. It is the manifest sign of a changed spirit. In so far, then, as members of Parliament honestly lean to socialistic ideas, they represent a sentiment of which account must be taken; and if a disinterested thinker may hold that in this matter members of Parliament share the failings no less than the virtues of the times, he can hardly blame the representatives of the people if they sincerely represent the sentiment of the day.

Unfortunately, the ready acceptance of a bill open to much criticism is a symptom of two of the worst diseases which undermine parliamentary life—cowardice and party spirit. It clearly betrays the cowardice which attacks men who, though they may be in private life persons of vigor and honesty, feel that their success in public life depends upon humoring the weaknesses of the constituents to whom they owe their seats. The unanimity with which the House of Commons assented to a bill of dubious expediency is of itself ominous. No man of sense can believe that there were not many members of Parliament who distrusted a measure which they hesitated to criticise and were determined not to oppose. Why could Mr. Cox find no seconder? The answer lies ready to hand: it is to be found in the existence of the Labor Party. But lack of courage was here connected with the fatal influence of partisanship. Personal selfishness is less influential than party spirit. A politician who might risk his own seat is not willing to injure his party. No Conservative will, if he can avoid it, do or say anything which might seem to show that the Tories care less for the children of the poor than do Radicals. No Radical is prepared to oppose a popular measure, even though grounded on false principles, if his action may give currency to the idea that the Tories are the real friends of the people.

We may read in that most interesting 'Memoir of Henry Sidgwick' that about twenty-one years ago he listened to a debate in the House of Commons on the Medical Relief Bill, the aim of which was to provide at the public expense medical relief to a workingman in sickness without imposing upon him the disabilities of pauperism. Sidgwick was no economical doctrinaire, but he saw at once the bad side of all legislation that aims at diminishing the discredit which a man incurs by living on public charity. The practical philanthropists were, in 1885, opposed to the Medical Relief Bill. "They have," writes Sidgwick, "been trying hard for fifteen years to teach the poor thrift, and now the moral weight of the Legislature is to be thrown into the other scale as far as medical relief is concerned." A day or two after the debate which he had heard, Sidgwick notices that the Liberal Opposition had extended instead of diminishing the effect of the bill introduced by the Conservative Government of the day. The Ministry meant to provide only medicine for workingmen struck with illness. The Liberal Opposition insisted that a wage-earner when ill should receive not only medicine, but food at the expense of the State. The Liberals saw an opportunity of proving that Short was the friend of the people after all, and not Codlin. The result was, that a sick man could receive outdoor relief paid for by the Poor Rate, and yet retain the Parliamentary franchise of which the law deprives a pauper. It needed far less than Henry Sidgwick's acumen to see that the time was fast approaching "when all paupers out of the workhouse would be enfranchised in the unseemly competition for popularity." His language exactly applies to the events of to-day. The unseemly competition for popularity is becoming more and more active. A Government supported by a gigantic majority bows the knee to the Labor Party. The men who make up the majority are themselves the slaves at once of fear and of party spirit. The weak Opposition is, naturally enough, neither bolder nor more honest than a strong Ministry. The House of Commons

has surrendered to Socialism. The interests of the country are being sacrificed to the unseemly competition for popularity.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

NIETZSCHE'S WORKS IN ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If it is not too late to return to the questions of an endowed press and the publication of Nietzsche's works in English (dealt with in a leading article on January 18, and in a letter on behalf of the Macmillan Company on February 21), I might perhaps be allowed to add a few words with regard to the matter, especially as I have had something to do with the introduction of Nietzsche to the English-speaking world from the very first.

It is certainly a very great loss—a far greater loss than the lack of half a dozen average universities and a hundred Carnegie libraries—that Nietzsche's highly original works, which throw an entirely new light on morals and the philosophy of history, should not be readily accessible to all thinking minds in English-speaking countries. No doubt the cold reception which Nietzsche has met with in England and America has been in some degree owing to the unfavorable auspices under which his books have been presented to the public, but it is partly, also, owing to the character of the Anglo-Saxon peoples, who are less ripe for the best thought than the French. The fact that most of Nietzsche's voluminous writings are already accessible to French readers, and are eagerly purchased by them, confirms the truth of Nietzsche's estimate of France as the home of the highest culture, where people are most receptive of new modes of thought. It is unfortunate that many important Continental works never become accessible to English readers, owing to the unremunerative terms for good literature which obtain in the utilitarian and materialistic Anglo-Saxon race, whose great prophet is still the shallow and shortsighted Adam Smith of 'Wealth of Nations' fame, whose doctrines Carlyle and Ruskin so vigorously combated.

How are we to remedy the evil? Especially by introducing a sounder philosophy, which, by its far-reaching influence, is really the most practical of all matters. It is far more than a mere publishers' question. It has been a far more serious matter to those of us who, acting on arrangements made under Messrs. Henry and the Macmillans, through their editor, Dr. Tille, have prepared very careful translations of about half a dozen more volumes of Nietzsche's works, which we have not got published owing to the discontinuance of the issue of the works, and Messrs. Henry being obliged to give up business owing to their losses. The publication of a book of selections ('Nietzsche as Critic, Philosopher,' etc.) has been equally unfortunate and unremunerative, owing to the bankruptcy of Mr. Grant Richards. To be sure, the English issue of Nietzsche's works has not been too well managed, and the printing of the books in Germany after a final revision at the Nietzsche Archiv (where imperfect English was too often substituted when an alteration was made) has no doubt been prejudicial to the undertaking. These evils, however, will be avoided in future.

Mr. Williams, on behalf of the Macmillan Company, suggests that the public should help the cause by purchasing the works already published. Perhaps I might be permitted to suggest something more. The question of the difficulty of issuing Nietzsche's works in English was raised to illustrate the evils resulting from the lack of an endowed press. Why, then, should not steps be taken to remedy the evil in this particular case? To be sure, there are endowments for the purpose of publishing valuable works which cannot be profitably produced otherwise—*e. g.*, the Clarendon Press and the Royal Society of Literature; but neither the one nor the other will have anything to do with Nietzsche. His originality frightens the narrow-minded delegates and trustees who have the management of these institutions; and instead of helping, they only tantalize those who are in advance of them in the foremost files of time. Nietzsche's works, however are now sufficiently recognized as most worthy of publication. Here is a sufficiently long list of eminent men who vouch for their importance: S. Alexander, M.A., Professor of Philosophy, University of Manchester; William Archer, Esq.; S. H. Butcher, LL.D., Emeritus-Professor of Greek, Edinburgh University; H. Havelock Ellis, Esq.; Edward Garnett, Esq.; the Rev. John Glasse, D.D.; Edmund Gosse, LL.D., Librarian to the House of Lords; W. S. M'Cormick, LL.D., Secretary to the Carnegie Trust; W. Romaine Paterson, Esq. (Benjamin Swift); J. G. Robertson, Ph.D., Professor of German Lauguage and Literature, London University; G. Bernard Shaw, Esq.; and Arthur Symons, Esq. Let those who have the inclination and ability contribute to help the cause, and we shall soon have Nietzsche's principal works accessible in satisfactory English translations. In any case, we shall succeed in our aim in one way or another; but we shall do so sooner and better if we get the assistance we deserve, either with the coöperation of the Macmillan Company and Mr. Fisher Unwin, or without it. Mr. Unwin has shown great indifference about the matter, and is disinclined to take the next volume which should be published, namely, 'Beyond Good and Evil,' translated by Miss Zimmern: to substitute another volume for it would be doing a great injustice to Miss Zimmern, since none of her translations of Nietzsche have yet appeared after the lapse of a decade.

It does not, however, seem to be the function of those who prepare good books to endow publishers, especially if they be indifferent. If publishers themselves cannot provide the required endowment for good books, it seems best to adopt the plan suggested by Mr. Bernard Shaw, namely, to publish the works ourselves. Owing to the causes above mentioned, we now hesitate to appeal further to the public for funds with which to subsidize publishers. We will gladly coöperate with publishers, however, if they will meet us with reasonable terms; but, in any case, we are now going to help ourselves. A thoroughly revised edition of Part I. of Nietzsche's 'Zarathustra,' with introduction, summary, and explanatory notes, will soon be issued; it is, in fact, the first authorized translation of 'Zarathustra,' being authorized before the arrangements with Messrs. Henry and the Macmillans took place, when only Dr. W. A. Haussmann and myself were interested in translating Nietzsche.

By all means, however, let the public act on the suggestion of the Macmillan Company, and purchase Nietzsche's works from them; they are most valuable books, in spite of some imperfections in the translations. Their value is attested by the fact that the greatest English author and dramatist, Mr. Bernard Shaw, read the MS. of the book of Nietzsche extracts with approval, and afterwards carried it himself to the publisher's office, where he recommended that it should be issued.

Yours obediently,

THOMAS COMMON.

8 WHITEHOUSE TERRACE, CORSTORPHINE, SCOTLAND, March 17, 1906.

NEW LIGHT ON AMERICAN HISTORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The ligneous English mind is not unique in its abnegation of reason when dealing with American subjects. My son, a student in a leading Continental university, writes me that a professor there, in a recent conversation, asserted to him in good faith that the decision to use English instead of German as the national language of the United States was carried by only one vote! He had seen this statement, so he said, in an historical work; unfortunately, he did not give his authority, nor the date of this remarkable transaction, whether before or after the adoption of the Constitution, or whether in convention or by joint vote of Congress. One would be curious to know whether the vote was taken by yea and nay, or *ja* and *nein*, and what method of coercion was to be imposed upon the minority; and if the Congressional debates would have been carried on and military orders issued in German, in case of another decision.

Whether some confused notion of the debates over teaching German in the public schools was floating in the professor's head, can only be guessed; perhaps his mind had been unhinged by reading the editorials on American affairs in the old *Saturday Review*, where statements not much less extraordinary were plentiful.

Truly yours, NEMUS.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS IN AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Lewis N. Dembitz's eloquent utterance in your issue of March 22, relative to the curse of railway accidents in the United States and the need of organized action on the part of the public to diminish their frequency, ought to elicit a loud response. It is a national disgrace that while the rest of the world is travelling in comparative safety, we Americans should be treated to a succession of unspeakable horrors, for which the railways and the travelling public, in its senseless eagerness for rapid locomotion (as Mr. Dembitz rightly says), are jointly responsible. The nature of the evil is rendered all the more appalling when we consider the ratio of accidents to the total number of

passengers carried in the region west of the Mississippi, as compared with that in the eastern half of the country. The insecurity of travel on the Western roads is nothing short of monstrous. It is a shame that the double-tracking of the railways does not proceed faster in the face of the frequent head-on collisions.

Mr. Dembitz's scheme for the formation of an American association for putting an end to railway wrecks ought to meet with a wide welcome. Perhaps it will be found practicable to extend the scope of the association so as to include the problem of the protection of the lives and limbs of trainmen. How long are we to face complacently the spectacle of a million railway employees killed and maimed in the course of a single generation? This is what our statistics gives us.

Yours truly. L. H.

NEW YORK, March 25, 1906.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Amen! ought every patriotic American to say on hearing of Mr. Dembitz's suggestion in the *Nation* for the prevention of railroad horrors in this country. There is not a civilized Government on the face of the globe, outside of the United States, that would tolerate for a week such conditions as exist unchallenged on many American railroads from year to year. I know of one Western railroad whose average of derailments is three for every two days; and when the disaster occurs, the directors of such railroads shrug their shoulders and speak of the "acts of Providence."

To realize the enormity of our national culpability in this matter, it is necessary to know the facts concerning European railroads and to have an idea of what Europeans think of the management of ours. Let me quote a few figures. It will scarcely be believed that, in the whole of last year, only six passengers lost their lives on all English railroads from causes not due to personal carelessness. The number in the preceding year was twenty-five. These figures are taken from 'Whitaker's Almanac' for 1906. For the railways of the German Empire in the decade from 1891 to 1901, the number of passengers killed each year through accidents not due to personal carelessness was as follows: 8, 2, 4, 6, 8, 2, 25, 1, 2, 29. These figures are taken from Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexikon' (article *Eisenbahnunfälle*). Comment is unnecessary. GUSTAV POLLAK.

NEW YORK, March 25, 1906.

Notes.

The Syndics of the Cambridge (Eng.) University Press have arranged for a comprehensive 'History of English Literature,' in scale and plan comparable to the 'Cambridge Modern History.' Twelve royal octavo volumes of 400 pages each will be required for the period extending from Beowulf to the end of the Victorian Age. The editors are Dr. A. W. Ward, master of Peterhouse, and Mr. A. R. Waller.

We read in the *Athenæum* that Mr. Fisher Unwin will publish the story of Signora Mario's life and work, which was arranged for some years ago and is sufficiently completed.

A French translation of Prof. A. V. Dicey's 'Law and Opinion' has just finished printing, and will shortly appear.

Cardinal Rampolla, Secretary of State to the late Pope, has, since his retirement, devoted his leisure to historical studies, and has completed a hagiographico-historical work entitled 'Santa Melania e i suoi tempi.' The volume contains, in addition to a biography of this saint, detailed studies of Rome and life in that city during the fifth Christian century. The work is very comprehensive, and, according to the Vatican correspondent of the *Corriere della Sera*, a well-known French writer is already engaged in the preparation of an abridged edition for popular reading.

The interesting announcement is made that Fox, Duffield & Co. of this city have absorbed the Chicago publishing house of Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Among the spring announcements of the Johns Hopkins Press are 'The Finances of American Trade Unions,' by Aaron M. Takolski; 'The Apprentice and American Trade Unions,' by James M. Motley; 'Labor Federations in the United States,' by William Kirk; 'Trade Agreements in the United States,' by Frederick W. Hilbert, and 'Diplomatic Relations of the United States and Russia,' by John C. Hildt.

An 'Anthology of French Poetry, from the Time of Froissart to the Beginning of the Present Century,' compiled by Frederick Lawton, and 'Days with Walt Whitman,' by Edward Carpenter, are in the press of Macmillan Company.

James Pott & Co. will bring out next month 'Robert Louis Stevenson,' by G. K. Chesterton; 'The Foundations of the Republic,' two addresses by Edward Everett Hale; and 'A Sicilian Marriage,' by Douglas Sladen.

'Paul et Virginie,' in the French text of the original edition and with the illustrations recut, will form one of the Riverside Press luxurious limited editions of the present season, along with a new selection of 'Songs and Sonnets by Thomas Bailey Aldrich.'

That philanthropic yearbook, 'Burdett's Hospital and Charities,' comes to us punctually for 1906 (London: The Scientific Press). It is, as we have annually had occasion to remark, a mine of statistical information, a directory world-wide in its scope; and regularly it discusses most intelligently and helpfully the larger problems of its theme. The preface this year offers the idea of a Hospital City. Dr. Goldwater of New York, in chapter iii., succinctly describes hospital conditions in the United States.

Another recurring repository, equally without a rival, N. W. Ayer & Son's 'American Newspaper Annual' (Philadelphia), makes its prompt appearance for the present year. In its lists, census and gazetteer statistics, and maps, as well as the vigilant care to insure accuracy, it leaves nothing to be desired. Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands are included.

Major William Wood's animated and authoritative narrative of 'The Fight for Canada' was reviewed at length in these columns about a year and a half ago, from the English edition of Constable. Meanwhile the work has attained, on both sides of the water, to five editions, and that which we now receive from Little, Brown & Co., Boston, is marked "Definitive." If so, it is a very pretty ending, in bold type, with maps, portraits, and a bibliography.

About the same time, too, we noticed, but more briefly, Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu's 'Les États-Unis au XXe Siècle,' of which an authorized translation has just been made by H. Addington Bruce and published by Funk & Wagnalls Co. The work is largely statistical, and is attractively displayed.

One may infer the defects of Albert M. Hyamson's miniature 'Dictionary of Artists and Art Terms' (London: Routledge; New York: Dutton) by such a definition as "Baroque: Ornamentation in bad taste"; and by the omission of such terms as impast, patina, eclectic (in its specific Italian usage), dry point, and aquatint. Fresco painting is described as "Painting with mineral and earthy pigments on stucco"; silver point and sanguine are ignored. The book seems as badly done as possible in so brief a compass.

It would be easy to linger over Dr. J. McKeen Cattell's 'American Men of Science: A Biographical Dictionary' (New York: The Science Press). It is an attractive small quarto of 364 pages, in double columns, and is derived from sources which enable a popular writer like Dr. William Eleroy Curtis to figure here as a scientist. He owes the fact to his membership in certain learned societies, whose members have been bodily taken over without invidious discriminations. Those who live near the rose thus claim a place in the garden of roses. The biographies are compact, and have all been submitted for revision to the respective subjects, male and female. Dr. Cattell thus professes to give "a fairly complete survey of the scientific activity of [the United States] at a given period." He does more: he stars a thousand names as the leaders in American science, and he has chosen this group for future scientific study. We have observed but a single omission of moment (one proper to figure among the Thousand), and this may have come about through no fault of the editor. There is an appended necrology of our men of science who died 1903-05. This company has now been joined by Professor Langley.

In this connection we may mention a 'Bibliography of the Life and Works of Simon Newcomb,' compiled by R. C. Archibald, M.A., Ph.D., and reprinted (as it comes to us) from the Transactions of the Royal Society of Canada. It is accompanied by an excellent portrait. One cannot but be struck by the recorded range of this savant's interests as revealed in his writings.

'Structural and Field Geology' is the title of a recent work by Prof. James Geikie of Edinburgh (New York: Van Nostrand), illustrated with many plates and figures, and intended for "students of pure and applied science." Its chief headings are: Rock-forming Minerals and Rocks, Rock Structures, Eruptive Rocks, Ore Formations, Geological Surveying, Economic Problems, Soils, and Surface Features. The different chapters seem of unequal value, some being much more elaborated than others. The student who is competent to utilize the explanations of ore formations in his field work can hardly be in need of the elementary suggestions given in the pages on field

equipment. One who can appreciate the considerable detail of the chapters on minerals and rocks, should have more information regarding the field problems of glacial deposits. References to American examples are not infrequent, but the bulk of the illustrations are from Great Britain, where the book will naturally be more useful to the student than with us.

Two useful summaries of South African geology made their appearance last year as if in connection with the visit of the British Association to the South African colonies. One, entitled 'The Geology of South Africa,' is by Messrs. Hatch and Corstorphine (Macmillan), and gives a general survey of all the southern colonies; the other, 'An Introduction to the Geology of Cape Colony,' is by Mr. A. W. Rogers (Longmans), and is limited to the colony of which the author is the official geologist. Both books are well prepared and well illustrated. The geological maps in particular serve as ready guides to the contents of the text. The manual by Hatch and Corstorphine gives an excellent account of the ancient rocks of the interior highland, among which the gold-bearing formations of the Rand are of especial interest; that by Rogers tells with more detail of the folded mountain ranges along the southern border of the continent. Both volumes give good summaries of the Dwyka glacial formation, of Permian date, and of extraordinary origin inasmuch as the ice sheet by which it was spread out accumulated in latitude 25° or 26° and moved southward, from the region of the equator towards the region of the pole.

Matthew Arnold used to tell a story of a naïve parson who, desiring to show an intelligent interest, asked Wordsworth whether he had written anything besides his 'Guide to the Lakes.' The anecdote illustrates the popularity of this essay, which has been edited this year by Mr. de Sélincourt (Henry Frowde). The reprint of 1906 represents the fifth edition of 1835, Wordsworth's final text of a work that originally appeared as an Introduction to 'Select Views in Cumberland,' by "a Mr. Wilkinson, a clergyman," published in 1810. Wordsworth soon disentangled his own from Mr. Wilkinson's ponderous work. He desired to "give a model of the manner in which topographical descriptions ought to be executed"; and when he republished the essay in 1820, with the Duddon Sonnets, he intended it to illustrate the poems. This is a guide-book that can never become antiquated, partly because it contains much autobiography interesting to Wordsworthians, partly because of its admirable prose style and a sympathy and intimacy with the Lake country which Ruskin himself never surpassed. The present reprint is got up in a most attractive little volume, light in the hand, furnished with a map and useful notes; and, as far as the beauties of scenery are concerned, apart from the question of the trains and hotels of to-day, is the best possible companion of the Lake tourist.

Those admirers of Jane Austen for whom no detail of the circumstances of her life can be superfluous, will find matter of interest in J. C. and E. C. Hubback's 'Jane Austen and her Sailor Brothers' (John Lane). They were both captains in the British navy during the Napoleonic period, and the extracts from their logs and letters here presented, though of no particular importance, give occasional glimpses of conditions at the time of the great war that are not without interest. The authors attempt to draw a parallel between some passages in Jane Austen's novels and the actual experiences of her brothers at sea.

Under the title of 'Bibliography of Printing in America,' Mr. George T. Watkins has compiled a list of about 400 titles of "books, pamphlets, and some articles in magazines relating to the history of printing in the New World." The latter term is used advisedly, as Mr. Watkins's list includes many interesting and unfamiliar Spanish titles on Mexican and South American printing. Several works relating to the history and bibliography of the press in the Philippines are also included. Useful notes are appended to many of the entries. While the list makes no pretension to absolute completeness, it is of considerable value; and Mr. Watkins—who, by the way, is a printer in the office of the Boston *Globe*—deserves hearty praise for his undertaking. Three hundred copies are printed and may be had of the compiler, whose address (20 Fenno Street, Roxbury, Mass.) we are glad to give.

Tryon County, New York, had long been under the sway of Sir William Johnson when the Revolution encouraged an element of opposition. The 'Minutes of the Committee of Safety,' with an introduction by J. Howard Hanson and notes by Samuel L. Frey, tell the story of this opposition in 1774-1775. Johnson was not the most feared by these "good people," but his allies, the Indians, whom he countenanced and to whom he supplied ammunition. To prevent an outbreak, appeal was made to Johnson, but the son, Guy Johnson, is charged with making "malevolent insinuations to the Indians of our American cause." So the committee had direct communications with the Indians, organized a militia, harassed the Tories, sat as a court of justice, and sent delegates to the Provincial Congress. The Johnsons were irreconcilable, and remained loyal to the King, eventually losing their estates and influence. The Indians were hostile, and, as was proved later, could inflict terrible suffering on the community. The record ends abruptly, some pages being lost; and many of the papers issuing from the committee were not spread upon the minutes, but were merely mentioned. Such as it is, this fragment presents a very good picture of conditions in the country at that time, and the notes and illustrations add to its value. The manner of printing is excellent. Dodd, Mead & Co. are the publishers.

One of the most successful French novels of recent years is Pierre de Coulevain's 'Ève Victorieuse.' It is an exceptionally clever piece of work, and of special interest to American readers in that the author (or rather authoress, for Coulevain is a nom de plume), has chosen a New Yorker for her heroine. Although occasionally open to criticism when she deals with such details of American life as Colonial Dames and Harvard athletics, yet in the broader questions, and especially in her attempt at a comparative psychology of her French, Italian, and American characters, she shows much real observation. The American heroine and the cause of virtue come out equally triumphant in the end.

The French side of the thorny question which the diplomats are trying to solve at Algeciras is presented to the public by M. Victor Bérard in 'L'Affaire Marocaine' (Paris: Colin). The author is as dispassionate as might be expected under the circumstances, and places before the reader numerous extracts from the recently published official dispatches. The point at issue between Germany and France is too well known to require restatement here, but it may be remarked that the author brings out in a very interesting manner the uncertainty of the policy of France towards Morocco of recent years, and leaves the reader somewhat skeptical as to whether its latest form would, if sanctioned by the Conference, be consistently adhered to. This latest form represents undoubtedly the least objectionable method of securing a colonial empire—the policy of peaceful penetration. The book reveals no diplomatic secrets and throws no new light on the causes of Germany's course of action. It further leaves French policy as open as heretofore to the initial reproach of not having made sufficient allowance for Germany's forward policy of commercial expansion and for the international character of the accord on Morocco established by the Conference of Madrid in 1880.

Morocco is the subject of the leading article in the *National Geographic Magazine* for March. Mr. Ion Perdicaris, after a brief sketch of its history and inhabitants, gives an entertaining account of his capture in 1904 by the insurgent chief Raisuli. This man, through a natural dignity and grace, attracted and interested him so much that he characterizes him as the most gentle and kindly of brigands imaginable, and adds that he was idolized by his wild tribesmen. The only reference to the present conference at Algeciras and the events which led up to it, is the remark that it may be the prelude to the closing act in the drama of Moorish independence. The reproductions of photographs of Tangier and the natives are numerous and excellent. Dr. Alexander Graham Bell's plea for the adoption of the metric system, made before the Committee on Coinage, Weights and Measures, contains a practical argument in its favor from his experience in his own laboratory. In carrying on his experiments with man-lifting kites, the calculations proved to be so laborious that he found it simpler to translate the proposed measurements into metrical terms, and then work out the solution on the metrical plan. No change was required in the machinery and tools employed, but a set of metrical weights and measures was procured to which the workmen readily accustomed themselves, and he says that they liked the new system.

The definitive arrangements for the celebration, in both Leyden and Amsterdam, of the tercentenary of the birth of Rembrandt van Rijn, as set forth in letters and missives in Dutch and English, look to permanent as well as temporary memorials. The house in the Jews' Broad Street in Amsterdam has been purchased by the municipality. It will be restored, and, as far as possible, refurnished in conformity with its internal conditions during the life of

Saskia, and of the time between the painting of "The Anatomy Lesson" and the "Night Watch." No alterations will be made on the front of the building without the sanction of the Rembrandt Society of Amsterdam. Two editions of the Bible, or rather of those parts of the Scriptures which were especially illustrated by Rembrandt's pencil, needle, or brush, and containing two hundred pictures, of a size and form to allow an almost full-size reproduction of the "Hundred Guilders Print," will be prepared. The text, in both the States-General Dutch version and the Latin Vulgate, will be compiled by Dr. Hofstede De Groot and published by Scheltema & Holtema of Amsterdam. Of necessity, these editions will be high priced. Rembrandt's biography in outline (pp. 160), written by the Dutch artist Jan Veth, and illustrated, will be issued at a moderate price. Besides this threefold commemoration, one tablet will be placed on the walls of the house in the Rosengracht where Rembrandt died, and another on his tomb in the Wester Kerk. There will be a *soirée artistique* at the Amsterdam Theatre on Monday, July 16, and the pictured walls of the Rijks Museum will be illuminated by searchlight. In harmony with the copious medallic history of the Netherlands, a medal will be struck in remembrance of the Rembrandt Day of July 15, 1906, on which day, also, the formal opening of the Rembrandt Annex to the Rijks, or National, Museum will take place. By recommendation of the Queen, the "Night Watch" will be placed in a spacious, imposing, but plainly decorated room, calling to mind by character and tone the "Doelens" and "Governors" rooms of Rembrandt's time, and thus in harmony with the picture, so that the visitor may "be given the opportunity of devoting his whole attention to the painting, without the chance of being distracted from its contemplation by disturbing factors." In the same annex the picture of the "Syndics of the Cloth Hall," and in another some of the masterpieces of Rembrandt worthy of the place of honor, will be hung.

An important informal convention recently met at the call of the Prussian Cultus Minister in Berlin, for the purpose of suggesting to the Government the proper steps to be taken in the reorganization of the secondary schools for girls. It may prove a counterpart to the famous conference of 1900, which resulted in placing the scientific preparatory schools for boys on a level with the classical in admitting the graduates to the universities. The recent conference consisted of both male and female representatives in about equal parts. The universities and the church as well as the schools were represented. As a result of these deliberations, it was decided to recommend to the Government a new type of higher schools for girls, namely, the girls' lyceum, Mädchenlyceum, which is to be followed by a higher school called the Mädchenoberlyceum. The former is to cover ten years, and its course is substantially to be that of a Latin *Real*-school, and will accordingly give prominence to the natural sciences and to mathematics. The higher grade is to cover a four years' course, and to have for its special object preparation for the university, so that a full fourteen years' course for girls is to lead up to the latter. These proposals met the approval of such men as Professors Harnack and Seeberg and the leading court preacher, Dryander. It is expected, says the *Alte Glaube* of Leipzig, that the Government will in substance adopt these far-reaching innovations.

Ex-President Cleveland's sixty-ninth birthday, just past, has been commemorated by Mr. Jacques Reich in an etched portrait on the large scale of the series of American statesmen which this artist has now for several years steadily produced, and in a manner to challenge comparison with the best. In the present instance, the Cleveland of the print is a somewhat younger man than the one entering on his seventieth year. All the substantial qualities, however, of the well-known face and head—the weight, the seriousness, the conscientiousness—are here caught with great verisimilitude, and the portrait must appeal to Mr. Cleveland's admirers, as it is said to give satisfaction to himself, evidenced by his signing a small number of proofs. In point of technique, it maintains the etcher's high level. Mr. Reich's address is No. 2 West Fourteenth Street, New York.

—The town of Lincoln, Mass., an early patchwork derived from the territory of Concord, Lexington, and Weston, and all whose streams flow outward, somehow drew in population against the current, and is now one of Boston's most charming suburbs. On April 23, 1904, it celebrated the 150th anniversary of its incorporation, and the proceedings have just been generously published in a beautifully illustrated volume. Mr. Charles Francis Adams, a recent townsman, supplied the oration, "A Milestone Planted," much of it along the lines of his latest Weymouth address, but conspicuously original in an elaborate review of prehistoric glacial conditions, which had shaped not only the face of the land, but the roads, the building sites, and the common life of the future population. Mr. Adams might have remarked further on the adaptability of all highly glaciated and morainic regions for suburban villas. After the building of the Fitchburg Railroad the town succumbed to Western competition in all its staple products except timber, but maintained itself by truck farming. "As compared with a century ago, . . . Lincoln is more populous, more temperate, and more moral." In March, 1904, the town-meeting unanimously "directed its clerk to cast one ballot for the order prohibiting during the year all sales of spirits within Lincoln's limits." Mr. Adams finds its town government typically "in a shape approaching perfection," whereas the decay of that form had been among his motives for quitting Quincy. The appended letters and plain speeches read or spoken at the succeeding banquet justify this view. Mr. Adams professed to be addressing posterity, and we venture to suggest that he has unconsciously planted a milestone in a matter of speech—we mean in his uncertain use of *shall* and *will*. Will any of the town celebrants of 1954 or 2004 remark this in rereading his oration? We very much doubt.

—As many of our readers know, Professor Oman of Oxford is editing a coöperative history of England in six volumes, and we now bring together for brief notice the two most recent contributions to this series (Putnams). In 'England under the Normans and Angevins,' Mr. H. W. C. Davis of Balliol College covers the period which lies between the Battle of Hastings and the death of Henry III. In 'England under the Tudors,' Mr. Arthur D. Innes employs a title which explains itself without special definition of dates. Both works represent a valiant endeavor to coördinate the chief results of intensive research without disclosing the painfulness of the process whereby those results have been gained. For purposes of lucid statement it is always well to invest one's subject with a certain unity, and Mr. Davis seeks to focus his volume at a given point by dwelling on the inventive and experimental features of his era as contrasted with the spirit of consolidation which marked the age of the three Edwards. But, behind all the creative efforts of the two centuries in question, one essential fact may be discerned. "It is not," says Mr. Davis, "a duel between two races, as Thierry asks us to believe. It is much rather a struggle of native against foreign ambitions and ideas; a struggle of which the influence is apparent in every class and almost every individual." Alike to Crown, Baronage, Church, and People, opposing ideals present themselves during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries—forces of nearly equal strength fighting for the control of great institutions. The Crown, divided between continental ambitions and its desire to build up an empire of the British Isles, co-exists with a Baronage which hesitates between the rival policies of personal or collective aggrandizement, and a Church which is sometimes national and sometimes papal in its aspirations. Upon these warring tendencies of the early Angevin age Mr. Davis lays stress, but without failing to show how by 1272 all of the main issues had been provisionally settled. "The policy of the Church and Baronage is stereotyped; De Montfort has given a close and consistent form to the aspirations of the masses; the Crown has reluctantly accepted an insular policy and the idea of a limited prerogative. And, as a result, England has entered upon the truly English phase of her development." From such bare generalities as the foregoing the reader may be enabled to form some preliminary idea of the way in which Mr. Davis approaches the main problems of English politics during the Norman and early Angevin periods. We must supplement a statement necessarily concise by saying that neither social nor economic history is excluded from the author's survey, while space is even found for the leading facts in the progress of culture. Mr. Davis is an excellent writer, and keeps at all points in touch with first-hand authorities.

—Mr. Innes's book is to a large extent the record of the lay spirit at work in transforming the educational system, the religious institutions, and the national activities of England during the era of Renaissance and Reformation. To be sure, the leading ministers of the Crown during the first forty years of the Tudor period were ecclesiastics, but, from the fall of Wolsey forward, the personnel of the official class undergoes a profound change. "The Cromwells," says Mr. Innes, "the Seymours, Dudleys, and Pagets, the Cecils and Wal-

singhams and Bacons, the Russells, Sidneys, Raleighs and Careys, were of stocks that had hardly been heard of in Plantagenet times outside of their own localities." Amid the Erastian impulses of that day, the political reign of the great prelates passed away, and even in the Church itself the Act of Supremacy restricted the range of their practical powers. "The political influence of the Church," says Mr. Innes, "was reduced to comparative insignificance by the treatment of the whole hierarchy as if it were a branch and a rather subordinate branch of the civil administration; by the appropriation of its wealth to secular purposes, to the enrichment of individuals and of the royal treasury; and by the suppression of the monastic orders." The rise of lay lawyers through the dwindling of the ecclesiastical courts is a further sign of the times, while still another is the failure of the clergy in England to produce political leaders of real eminence. The whole Erastian motive, indeed, is developed in Mr. Innes's hands with much effect. At the same time he has formed a very different opinion of Thomas Cromwell from that which has recently been reached by Dr. Van Dyke. "Unpitying he lived, unpitied he died. Regardless of justice he had struck down each obstacle in the way of his policy; regardless of justice, he was in turn struck down. By his own standards he was judged; his end was the end he had compassed for More and Fisher. History has no more perfect example of Nemesis."

—Apart from his treatment of the theme to which we have alluded above, we have found in Mr. Innes's character sketches the most interesting feature of his volume. For this kind of writing he evidently has a fondness, and few of his leading personages are dismissed with an adjective or a phrase. Among all the people of the sixteenth century, Mary Tudor furnishes him with the most pathetic spectacle. "Royally courageous, loyal and straightforward; to her personal enemies almost magnanimous; to the poor and afflicted, pitiful; loving her country passionately; she was blind to the forces at work in the world, obsessed with the idea of one supreme duty, and she set herself, as she deemed, to do battle with Antichrist by the only methods she knew, though they were alien to her natural disposition, facing hatred and obloquy. She whose life was one long martyrdom, for conscience' sake offered up a whole holocaust of martyrs; she who thirsted for love, died clothed with a nation's hate. Where in all history is a tragedy more piteous than that of Mary Tudor?" It may appear invidious to institute a comparison between two books each of which is admirable in design and workmanship, but, while Mr. Innes's volume is quite adequate to the purposes of the series, we have found it somewhat less carefully wrought than Mr. Davis's account of English life under the Normans and Angevins.

—The uninitiated will not realize the amount of special and valuable information contained in Anna R. Sheldon's 'Pistoia' (Brentano's). Not only is it one of the very best guide-books we have ever seen, but it is also eminently readable. Indeed, it would be difficult to praise it too highly; and it is just because it is so exceedingly good that we are tempted to indicate what we consider the one weak point of the book. If only a few more pages were devoted to the history of the town—half a dozen, written in the proper spirit, would suffice—this little volume would be as welcome in the study as it undoubtedly will be in the pocket of the tourist. As it stands, the stay-at-home reader is given no key which may enable him to unlock Pistoia's heart, while the ordinary tourist will hardly even suspect what a wonderful history Pistoia has. He will not be put upon inquiry; and he may imagine that when he has read the history of Florence, he has read that of Pistoia too—a notion not likely to be dissipated by the extensive use which Miss Sheldon has made of F. A. Hyett's 'Florence: Her History and Art.' Mr. Hyett is the only authority quoted by her in her meagre historical sketch (pages 16-19); on pages 52-53 she drags in a long paragraph from his work, almost *à propos de bottes*, touching the office of *Podestà* in Florence, while the only actual mistake which we have found in the whole book seems to be drawn from the same source. On page 17 we are told that the Florentine *carroccio* "first appears" in the war of 1228; and Mr. Hyett is quoted. Now, in the 'Gesta Florentinorum' of Sanzanome we find mention made of the *carroccio* as early as 1170 ("victorioso preeunte carroccio"), and again, at the siege of Montalto, in 1207. Of course, the matter is one of no importance. In a book dealing with Pistoia, we do not want to read about the Florentine *podestà* or the Florentine *carroccio*. Will not Miss Sheldon excise such superfluities, and, in a second edition, tell us something which concerns us more nearly? What of the two marble arms on the tower above the fortress of Carmignano, with hands which *faceano le fiche a Firenze?* What of the taking and retaking of Serravalle (the name alone is eloquent)? What of those old feuds between the Panciatichi and the Cancellieri, which wasted not only all Pistoia, but also the *contado* and the *montagna?* So competent an Italian scholar as Miss Sheldon is, could tell us of these things if she would. For the rest, the book is well illustrated and adequately indexed. It is charmingly bound in flexible leather, and will fit comfortably into any pocket.

—The seventeenth volume of the 'Annales du Musée Guimet' (Paris: Ernest Leroux) contains five lectures delivered at the Musée Guimet by Émile Guimet on "The Vocal Statue of Memnon," "The Recent Archæological Discoveries in Egypt," "The Museums of Greece," "The Antiquities of Syria and Palestine," and "The Chinese Drama." The sub-title, "Bibliothèque de Vulgarisation," indicates that these lectures are intended to interest the general public rather than specialists, and this fact may account for the somewhat overdone humor of the first lecture, in which the origin of the name Memnon, applied to the statue of Amenophis III. at Thebes, the explanation of the sound emitted by the statue when the warmth of the day succeeded to the chill of the night, and the growth of the cult of the statue in Roman times, are cleverly worked up for the amusement of a popular audience. The second lecture deals chiefly with the discoveries made by M. Amélineau at Abydos, which relate to very early times, and those of M. Gayet at Antinoë, among which the most interesting are, perhaps, the remains of silks and other stuffs, with elaborate and beautiful patterns woven in them, which belong to Byzantine or Sassanide times. The intermediate periods are, however, not altogether neglected. This lecture, like the two that follow it, was illustrated with stereopticon slides, which are catalogued, with brief explanations and a few illustrations. The lecture on the museums of Greece is a rather superficial description of the remains of ancient art to be seen in various parts of the kingdom of Hellas, with especial attention to Delphi, because that site was excavated by Frenchmen. The comparison of the work done at Delphi with that performed by the Germans at Olympia is made, with some slight disregard for the facts, to appeal to the prejudices of a French audience. The greater part of the fourth lecture is devoted to the antiquities of Asia Minor, especially Ephesus, Miletus, Priene, Pergamon, and Tralles, followed by a comparatively brief treatment of Jerusalem and Baalbek. The second, third, and fourth lectures are published from a stenographer's copy. This accounts for some peculiar mistakes, especially in proper names, such as Eberday and Wielberg for Heberdey and Wilberg. In general, the author seems to be more familiar with Egyptian than with Greek matters. The fifth lecture is perhaps the most interesting part of the book, as it gives a brief sketch of the development of the drama in China, with copious extracts from some of the curious plays of the thirteenth century. On the whole, the volume, though not important, may be recommended to those who wish to be amused, and at the same time to acquire a little superficial information on the subjects treated.

HOLMAN HUNT'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.—I.

Pre-Raphaelitism and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. By W. Holman Hunt, O.M., D.C.L. With 40 Photogravure plates and other illustrations. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Those who read through to the end the two ample volumes containing the life of Holman Hunt and the history of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, will not be inclined to regard art as a "light and irresponsible pursuit"—an idea very generally prevalent, we are told, in latter eighteenth-century days, and even early in the nineteenth century among people who knew but little of artists or of the years of hard work and strenuous endeavor which go to their making; for they were not then as sought after in general society as now. Holman Hunt had unusual difficulties to overcome in order to obtain the necessary training in his early years. His parents, while recognizing his strong natural bent towards art, had the greatest objection to his following a career which seemed both unremunerative and fraught with perils and uncertainties. His was a constant struggle with difficulties of every kind. His varied experiences accordingly offered superabundant material for a good book, and his narrative, although quite unnecessarily diffuse, is not devoid at times of a saving sense

of humor. It is natural enough that an aged man gifted with a wonderful memory should believe that all he can tell of the past is worth hearing; and we are bound to admit that the limitation of what is really significant in biography is rarely understood. Nor should we look for this self-restraint from a man as singularly endowed with self-esteem as our present autobiographer. But what much interferes with the value of the work and the pleasure of the reader is, that Holman Hunt, from the moment he treats of the formation of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, is entirely preoccupied with a contention and a grievance, which, like the grain of mustard seed mentioned in Scripture, takes quite surprising proportions, for one can never remain unconscious of the bitterness it occasions in his memories of fellow-workers. A contention may occupy a column in a newspaper, or at most be allowed to ventilate itself in a magazine article or a pamphlet, but it is quite unseemly—almost indecent—to find it bristling up continually through two lengthy and handsomely illustrated volumes.

Hunt was born in 1827. When about four years old, his home being then in the suburbs, he began to show a decided inclination for drawing, spending the intervals of noisy play in copying with a pencil any pictures he happened to see, or in representing what he knew or imagined. The child was taken on special occasions to his father's warehouse in Dyer's Court, Aldermanbury, to see the Lord Mayor's show, Bartholomew Fair, or other sights, and was often allowed to accompany the porter, who, with a knot on his head, carried a formidable pile of goods around according to approved custom. When only seven, he went with his father to the studio of an artist who was painting a landscape for him, besides being at work on a large canvas representing the burning of the Houses of Parliament. The boy was so fascinated by the process of oil painting that he begged to be allowed to remain and look on while the artist painted. This was permitted if he liked to stand on the stairs and watch through a little window they opened for the occasion. He stood in rapt attention till dark, watching the flame being spread around the buildings on the canvas, and hailing joyfully the grinding of fresh vermilion and chrome by the painter in preparation for fresh outbursts of fire. Great was his surprise when the artist turned from this exciting work to partake with his children of a substantial meal of tea and bread and butter prepared by his wife. This was the boy's first experience of studio life, with its frequent changes from the ideal to the stern realities of life; it left a pleasing remembrance in his mind, and, when questioned by his father at the age of twelve as to the profession he meant to follow, the boy declared he was determined to become a painter.

This decided intention was a great disappointment, though nothing was said at the time; but Holman Hunt soon learned from his mother that he was to leave school and begin work in a warehouse in the city. This meant no leisure for drawing, inasmuch as the distributing of invoices for goods took up eleven hours a day, and ensured promotion to a desk only after two years' work. In desperation at this outlook, hearing of a vacant post as copying clerk to an estate agent, the boy applied for it, and, having shown himself capable, was engaged on trial. Mr. Hunt was surprised at his son's having taken this independent step, but, after an interview with Mr. James, his employer, consented to the engagement. This proved a piece of good luck for young Hunt's artistic proclivities, for Mr. James was himself a lover of art, and when he by chance discovered his young assistant's talent for drawing, he revealed his own proficiency in painting landscapes in oil, and invited him to make use of his materials, which he subsequently ceded to him, teaching him how to buy crude pigments, grind and mix them with oil, and put them into bladders for use. Soon after, he was permitted to practise drawing at a mechanics' institute in the evenings, and was taken one Sunday by his father to see John Varley, the professor of watercolor landscape and "Zodiacal Physiognomy," who received the young art aspirant with encouraging cordiality, lending him drawings to copy, and his book on the occult laws, and expressing the hope that he might become as great an artist as his former pupil of the same name (William Hunt, the watercolor painter).

After this encouragement from Varley young Hunt was allowed to spend his salary on weekly lessons from a city portrait painter named Rogers, from whom he acquired a boldness of execution and other habits he had much trouble later on in eradicating. Mr. James, when he retired from business of his own accord, sought to persuade Hunt's father to allow his son to become a painter, but his efforts in this direction succeeded only in obtaining for the boy a few weeks of liberty. The first use he put his spare time to was to visit the National Gallery to see the famous works of old masters about which he had read. His account of his first visit is astonishing; he tells how he passed by the masterpieces of Italian art, anxiously searching for noteworthy pictures, and he had to be led up to them by the custodian; even then the "Bacchus and Ariadne" of Titian failed to excite his enthusiasm. But to suit the taste of the dilettante of that time, when bright coloring was disliked, the dealers had given the old masters a brown coating with tobacco decoction and other washes. When they were cleaned six years later and appeared in their pristine richness of color, the newspapers raised the outcry that they had been ruined.

His father, again excited by his objection to the career of an artist, sought to place Holman in a strict house of business, but he settled the matter for himself and entered the London agency of Richard Cobden's Manchester business. In this office unexpected opportunities in favor of art soon became manifest. His room-mate was a pattern designer. This turned his attention to ornamental design, with the conviction of its being essential in artistic education. He continued his evening lessons with the portrait painter, and on Sundays in the summer time he tried to paint landscapes from nature; but his attempts to produce color as he saw it were not successful. When he showed them to his master, he was told that nature required to be treated *in a key*, and that no one with a true eye for color would paint ivy green and grass greener as it appears. Constable was mentioned as a wrong-headed person who had done this and failed, and an example of Mr. Rogers's own work was shown him in which, according to the favorite convention, green was turned into soft yellows and rich browns, the result being very unlike anything seen in nature. Four monotonous years passed thus of daily routine in the office when, during the absence of his master, Hunt, having but little to do, invited an old Jewess, who sold oranges in warehouse offices, to sit for him. She did so willingly, bargaining for a copy of her portrait, and although the sittings were brief and often interrupted, the likeness was soon recognizable. It was pinned up on the wall to dry when his master returned. He was much struck by the portrait of old Hannah with the basket on her head and the oranges in her hand, as she appeared in life. He rushed out to call in friends to see the work, which was much admired and talked of, so that its fame reached the ears of the elder Hunt, whose displeasure seems to have been great when he learned its authorship. He complained to his son's employers of their not giving him sufficient work, and threatened to place him elsewhere if his time was not filled. Holman Hunt very justly felt that his only chance of success as an artist would be lost if he delayed any longer, by giving way to parental authority. While acknowledging the risk, he openly declared his intention of studying art seriously, and taking his life into his own hands. He gave up his place in the office, and took a room in the city, in which to paint the portraits which had been commissioned him on the strength of old Hannah's likeness. He also began to draw from the antique in the British Museum, and sent in drawings for a probationership at the Royal Academy schools.

LEE'S SHAKSPERE FACSIMILES.

Shakespeare's Poems and Pericles. Collotype Facsimile Reproduction, with Introductions by Sydney Lee. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

Among the many eminent services which Mr. Sydney Lee has performed in the cause of Shaksperean scholarship, it is questionable whether any will be rewarded with higher appreciation than the present volume. Regarded merely as a specimen of typography, the book is one of rare beauty—a real delight to the eye. The facsimiles are executed with the utmost fidelity, and the student who possesses them is in a position to form as accurate a judgment on all questions that require an exact knowledge of the texts as if he had the practically inaccessible original editions before him. Accordingly, to say nothing of those who love a beautiful book for its own sake, the work forms an addition to the resources of the textual critic and the student of Shakspere's language which will be henceforth indispensable.

In regard to the critical introductions which accompany each of the facsimiles, it is evident that no one living was so well qualified to supply these as Mr. Lee; for in the matters that concern the practical side of authorship, the relations of writers

to publishers, and generally the conditions under which the works of authors (more particularly Shakspere) found their way to the press in the latter years of the sixteenth century and the early years of the seventeenth, Mr. Lee had already performed a service which is analogous to that of Mr. Fleay in the history of the Elizabethan stage, although his industry is controlled by an infinitely sounder judgment. Whether we accept or not Mr. Lee's main contention with respect to the problem of the Sonnets, unquestionably among the benefits which the world owes to his devotion to that subject is the light which he has shed on just such conditions as we have mentioned above. The preparation of his admirable introduction to the Clarendon Press facsimile reproduction of the First Folio edition of Shakspere's Plays, to which the present work forms a supplenent (completing the facsimile reproduction of the original editions of all of Shakspere's works), led him still further into studies of this nature, not to mention those which are more strictly bibliographical, so that he approached the task which is represented by this volume with an unequalled mastery of the practical side of his subject, as well as of that other side which more immediately concerns the critic and historian of literature.

Considering more closely the results of Mr. Lee's investigations presented in this volume, we are struck, first of all, with his extremely interesting discussion of the sources of "Venus and Adonis." It is rather remarkable that so promising a theme should have received so little attention from the dispensers of subjects for dissertations in the universities of Germany and America. Mr. Lee, however, has brought to the discussion a knowledge of the literature of the sixteenth century in the different European countries which no mere apprentice in scholarship could be expected to command, so that it is, on the whole, fortunate, perhaps, that the study of "Venus and Adonis" in this important aspect has been comparatively neglected in those quarters. Our editor has traced the treatment of the legend in literature from the Greek poets of Sicily down to Shakspere's poem. It is especially his object, however, to investigate in the fullest manner the various versions of the story—Italian, French, English, and even Spanish—in the literature of the Renaissance, since it was in the atmosphere of these versions that Shakspere's "Venus and Adonis" came into existence. Mr. Lee, as it seems to us, has accomplished this very happily, for even where one may differ with him as to Shakspere's dependence on earlier works, as in the case of the Italian poems of Dolce and Tarchagnota, the parallels have undoubtedly a very great interest. Probably no student of Shakspere who has read the passages in ancient literature which deal with this legend, has failed to be struck with the fundamental difference in the conception of the relations of Venus and Adonis as compared with that with which Shakspere has made us so familiar. Neither the Greek poets nor Ovid give any ground for supposing that Adonis does not return the love of Venus; and the same is true of most of the treatments of the theme in the literature of the early sixteenth century. On the other hand, from the first it would appear that the beautiful youth was not so much the slave of love as to surrender everything for the sake of this passion, and he tears himself from the arms of the Queen of Love to give himself up to the fatal delights of the chase. This feature of the story seems to have formed the starting-point of the conception of the coyness of Adonis, which, through the influence of Shakspere's poem, has practically eclipsed the original conception; and the lover who, in the beginning, is simply not wholly the slave of passion, becomes in the course of the development of the legend positively averse to the embraces of the goddess. It was evidently this germ of piquancy which, so to speak, made the fortunes of the story in modern times, much in the same way that the infidelity of Cressida had made the fortunes of another famous story in the Middle Ages. Practically every work of fiction put forth, whether in verse or prose, offered a story of love requited, but here was an opportunity for a novel kind of interest without any sacrifice in the exhibition of passion—nay, with a situation which called for an even more intense exhibition of passion.

The new development of the story appears dimly before Shakspere in two lyrics of Robert Greene—more pronouncedly in the second of these, the exquisite appeal of Venus in "Never Too Late" (1590) with the refrain, "N'oserez-vous, mon bel, mon bel, N'oserez-vous, mon bel ami"; and again in Marlowe's "Hero and Leander" (published in 1598 after Marlowe's death, but earlier in composition than Shakspere's poem), where, as Mr. Lee says, in his translation of Musæus, the poet "went out of his obvious path in order to bring Adonis's coldness into signal relief." It seems to us that, even after Mr. Lee's discussion, however, there is room for an effort to trace more precisely the growth of the conception of the coldness of Adonis in European literature before Shakspere's "Venus and Adonis." That conception evidently existed, although imperfectly developed, before Shakspere took up his pen, but it is not clear from Mr. Lee's introduction exactly when it first appeared. The employment of the motive by Marino, who surely did not know Shakspere, proves the existence of an independent Italian tradition to that effect. We would suggest in this connection that it would be also worth while taking into account the treatment of the subject in the paintings of the Renaissance—witness the well-known picture by Titian in the National Gallery, which antedates the publication of some of the Italian poems cited by Mr. Lee—only one would encounter here the difficulty, perhaps, of deciding whether the gesture of the goddess in detaining the beautiful youth was due to an effort to overcome his amorous reluctance, or simply to hold him back from the fatal boar-hunt. In Shakspere, however, at any rate, there is no hesitation in the conception. It is the coyness of Adonis that constitutes the sole *motif* of his poem. In explanation of the boldness with which this conception is here developed, Mr. Lee makes the suggestion of certain extraneous influences which seem to have determined Shakspere in his treatment of the theme. This is the most notable part, perhaps, of Mr. Lee's introduction to "Venus and Adonis" and, it appears to us, must compel general acceptance. As Mr. Lee points out, Ovid's "Metamorphoses," which Shakspere undoubtedly used as a source of his poem (probably in its original form as well as in Golding's translation), contained not only the story of Venus and Adonis, in which the latter is "mildly responsive to Venus's embraces," but another story in which a beautiful nymph makes vehement suit to a reluctant youth—the story of Salmacis and Hermaphroditus; to say nothing of the account of the Calydonian boar-hunt, which, as Mr. Lee makes evident by parallels, obviously furnished hints (through Golding's translation) for the boar-hunt in Shakspere's poem. But the influence of Ovid's "Metamorphoses" as a source of "Venus and Adonis," curiously enough, reached Shakspere through still another channel, viz., the "Glaucus and Scilla" (1589) of Thomas Lodge. The story of this poem came likewise from Ovid, but it had been radically changed by Lodge, and, in the form in which he presents it, bears a strong resemblance to the tale of Salmacis and Hermaphroditus. This poem, which is written in the same metre as "Venus and Adonis," must be reckoned indisputably among the works which influenced Shakspere. Finally, in the consideration of this question we should not forget the influence (which, of course, escapes determination) of oral discussion of such subjects which must have taken place in the literary circle to which Shakspere belonged.

Mr. Lee's introduction to "The Rape of Lucrece" is not so fruitful of novel results as his introduction to "Venus and Adonis." In the twenty-second volume of *Anglia*, Dr. Wilhelm Ewig had already treated with great thoroughness, along with other questions pertaining to "The Rape of Lucrece," the sources of the poem. For instance, the interesting connection of "Lucrece" with Daniel's "Complaint of Rosamond"—which seems to have suggested to Shakspere even the use of the seven-line stanza in which this poem, unlike the "Venus and Adonis," is composed—is fully dealt with there. Mr. Lee, however, gives us a complete review of the treatment of this famous story in European literature down to the publication of "Lucrece," remarking that Shakspere's poem, generally speaking, has a closer affinity with Ovid's version (in the "Fasti") than with that of any other predecessor. "Like Ovid, Shakspere delights in pictorial imagery, and occasionally in 'Lucrece' he appears to borrow Ovid's own illustrations." It is interesting to observe that Mr. Lee rejects the idea that Shakspere knew Livy's version of the legend merely through Painter's "Palace of Pleasure," and gives reasons for assuming a knowledge of the original on the part of the poet. Here, as in his discussion of the earlier poem, our editor has collected many parallels in phrase, imagery and sentiment between Shakspere's work and works of his contemporaries; and if in some cases any actual dependence of the one on the other may strike the reader as accidental or fanciful—especially in the case of certain conceits which any poet might easily have lighted upon in the time of the Renaissance, when conceit-hunting was the most habitual occupation of the whole fraternity of poets—still, the results of such investigation were well worth recording.

Next to the introductions to Shakspere's two great narrative poems—or even perhaps before these—the division of Mr. Lee's work which will attract most immediately the attention of the reader is that which deals with the question of the Sonnets. It is with this branch of Shakspere's production that the editor's name is most indissolubly connected, and it is to the study of these poems that he has made the most original and valuable contributions. Mr. Lee had already threshed out the problems of the Sonnets, from his well-known point of view, so thoroughly in his 'Life of Shakspere,' and more indirectly in his 'Elizabethan Sonnets,' that there remained little for him to do but to reproduce the arguments of these earlier publications. To be sure, he has limited himself in this place mainly to the bibliographical history of the Sonnets and the problems involved in the circumstances of their publication. Nevertheless, partly by the aid of Professor McClumpha's articles on the subject, it seems to us that he has here established better than has been done elsewhere the fact that the great majority of Shakspere's Sonnets belong to the earliest period of his production—say, before 1597. Mr. Lee has also given in this volume additional details in regard to the men who were concerned in one way or another with the publication of the Sonnets. With respect to the famous dedication which Thorpe (for whom the Sonnets were published) prefixed to the collection, Mr. Lee adds new examples of "beget" in the sense of 'procure,' and, what is perhaps of even more interest, a parallel instance where the procurer of a collection of poems, 'Belvedere, or the Garden of the Muses' (1600), is addressed in a dedicatory sonnet in the name of the publisher as

"First causer and collectour of these floures."

It will be readily granted that Shakspere had nothing to do with the publication of the Sonnets, and so was not responsible for the language of the dedication; but, after all, "beget" with the signification of 'procure' was evidently rare, and, even in the case of some of the examples cited by Mr. Lee, its common meaning of 'generate,' though in figurative use, suits the passages just as well. The natural interpretation of Thorpe's words, as it appears to us, is that he knew by report who was the young man of the Sonnets, and so dedicated the collection to that person. It seems too much to assume of the impudence even of a piratical publisher like Thorpe that he should have been wishing "eternitie" (*i. e.*, of fame) to some man of obscure station in life, who, indeed, if our editor's theory be correct, is most likely to have been a mere literary scavenger. On the general question of the relative proportion of convention and personal history which underlie the Sonnets, no one can deny that Mr. Lee by his investigations has shown that the latter element is restricted to a degree that had been suspected by only a few since the revival of interest in these poems about the end of the eighteenth century. It seems to us, however, we confess, that he has not yet quite succeeded in driving the "dark lady" (as a living personality) from the field.

The sections on "The Passionate Pilgrim" and "Pericles, Prince of Tyre" demand no especial comment, but the same high level of scholarship is maintained in these parts of the volume as elsewhere. It is a pity, however, that, in his discussion of the "Pericles," Mr. Lee should make no mention of what is unquestionably the ablest book that has been written concerning the legend on which this play is based—namely, Klebs's 'Die Erzählung von Apollonius aus Tyrus' (1899); a work of a very different order of scholarship from the bibliographical compilation which is actually cited by Mr. Lee.

In conclusion we will say that not the least valuable feature of the present work is the census of extant copies of the early editions, which forms a part of the introduction to each of the poems or collection of poems here reproduced in facsimile. Each exemplar is described in detail and its history given, where practicable. And here it is interesting to observe how many of these precious volumes have taken part in the great movement which we once heard a German speaker describe as the "Bücherwanderung nach Amerika." Copies even of the first editions of most of these works have found their way to libraries in this division of what Carlyle has called the realm of King Shakspere; and of the two works which constitute exceptions—namely, "Venus and Adonis" and the mainly spurious "Passionate Pilgrim"—it may be remarked that in the case of the former even in England only one copy of the *editio princeps* survives, and in the case of the latter only two.

Canada as It Is. By John Foster Fraser. Cassell & Co. 1905.

Mr. Fraser's keynote may be assumed from the opening paragraphs to be one of disparagement:

"I have chosen the title, 'Canada as It Is,' for three reasons. Firstly, because the popular idea about the great Dominion is that it is a region clasped most of the year in ice and frost, which it is not; secondly, because the Canadians themselves, by means of Government pamphlets and subsidized lecturers, would like the world to believe it the most delightful land to live in, which it isn't; and, thirdly, because Canada has just emerged from its adolescence as a nation, has reached lusty manhood, and has become conscious of the great rôle it may play in the history of commerce."

"The chief asset in the Canadian's character is glorious enthusiasm and belief in himself and his country. Britons are predisposed to take a pessimistic view of things. The Canadian revels in optimism. He lives in a whirl of it. He is always comparing himself to John Bull, to his own satisfaction and the detriment of John. He welcomes with open arms—and his hospitality is warm and unstinted—anybody from the 'old country,' yet he is unable to conceive how any one can pass through the Dominion without being in constant ecstasy."

These paragraphs were probably written when the author first landed in Little Canada, and before he had breathed the exhilarating air and been inspired by the enthusiasm of the Greater Canada which is being so rapidly created west of the Great Lakes. These are to Old Canada what the Alleghenies were to the original Thirteen States. The Maritime Provinces are left out of Mr. Fraser's estimate altogether; but Quebec, with its antiquities, religious, social and architectural, and its peculiar racial contrasts (for they are not antitheses); and Montreal, with its growing commerce and arrogant self-importance; Ottawa, the political capital, with its governing classes and its quarrelling legislators, inflated with as much bombastic pride as though they controlled the destinies of and made laws for sixty millions instead of six millions of people; and Toronto, with its exclusively English population, tinctured by Yankeeism—are elements Mr. Fraser tries to arrange into equations from which he has deduced certain definite solutions. The conclusion is not very distinct, and the impressions were apparently not altogether pleasant.

In the paragraph quoted, he speaks of Canada as having attained to manhood. That it has not yet done, though it is rapidly growing to man's estate; but, like a healthy, well-grown youth, it feels its strength and frets under the trammels which forbid it the privileges of full manhood. It occupies and resents the nominally subordinate position of a colony, but is glad enough to enjoy the prestige of being a part of the British Empire, and to take shelter under the ægis of British protection. It submits to arbitration methods, as in defining the Alaska boundary; and yet, like a passionate, spoiled child, it howls over the award which does not give it all it cries for. These little traits (incident to immaturity among other communities than those north of the St. Lawrence) impress a stranger rather offensively; but, as our author's experience proves, there is a freer spirit abroad in the West, where, however, fewer prejudices and perhaps, therefore, fewer restraining safeguards against extremes in thought and action may act as countervailing advantages.

The Canadian West in these respects is but a faint reflection of our own, for the riotous license of the Texan cowboy has never infected the more staid cattle rancher of Calgary, and law and order have always been introduced into even such remote gold camps as Dawson, in the Klondike, at as rapid a pace as the gold hunter maintained in his headlong rush for the precious metal. Farming has always been as much ahead of mining in far-western Canada as the prairie is in extent wider than the Rocky Mountains, on the forty-ninth parallel. The development of Canada has therefore been less romantic, but also slower than our own. Nor would its present growth be as rapid as it is, were it not that Canada has still millions and millions of acres to give away, while well-nigh all fertile land south of the line has passed from under the control of our own Government. As long as land was procurable under the Homestead Act in our temperate zone, few farmers were tempted to accept it in Canada, though given away with a charming, bracing climate, where the temperature occasionally dropped to fifty degrees below zero, and where early August frosts jeoparded two out of every three wheat crops. But just as the operation of civilized man in our own arid region has extended the line of rainfall for hundreds of miles to the west and south, the cause being the disturbance of the atmosphere by our railroad trains, or the influence of the vegetation which he has raised by artificial irrigation, or some other unexplained agency, so in Manitoba

and other parts of the Canadian Northwest, by like influences and the drainage of the swamps, the severity of the climate has been notably mitigated, and fewer crops are lost by early frost than were damaged ten years ago. As a result, the immigration into Canada, mainly into the western provinces, has increased from 23,895 in 1900 to 130,331 in 1904, of which 45,229 were from this country, for the American farmer must follow his habit of improving his farm, selling it at a high figure, and occupying another piece of waste land, even though it carry him across the border.

Thanks to these causes the Canadian West shipped, as the harvest of 1905, 90,000 bushels of wheat, and every interest in the Dominion responds, as it does here, to the prosperity of the farmer. Above all, railroad building has received such an impetus that three new transcontinental lines are either under construction or under contract, intended to open up the Northwest almost to the headwaters of the Mackenzie River, and to traverse the vast forests lying between the Height of Land north of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, and Hudson Bay. Thither, as neither the rainfall nor the scenery will be interfered with by the ruthless axe of the wood-pulp maker, it is to be hoped that he will transfer his mills and his political methods from the Adirondacks and our own rapidly vanishing forests. What natural wealth is hidden in these bleak regions, in the unexplored peninsula of Labrador, and in the two million square miles of dreary country north of the Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta prairies we may calculate from the discoveries made in the Klondike and Alaska, which were supposed until lately to yield only salmon and seals.

Looking at "Canada as it is," we see it to consist of a country of 3,745,000 square miles, much of it within the Arctic circle, inhabited by less than 6,000,000 people, of whom 70 per cent. are congregated on the banks of the St. Lawrence and Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron. There is, therefore, breathing space, as the density is only 1.7 per square mile. But they are a fairly prosperous people, producing from their farms, fisheries and industries, $185 per head. They have expended above $100,000,000 on canals, and maintain 20,000 miles of paying railroads—or about the same mileage per head of population as ourselves.

But Canada as it will, or may, be is whatever one wishes to believe, and the Canadians have some reason to believe what they wish. The Trans-Canada, the Canadian Northern (the Mackenzie-Mann Railroad), and the Grand Trunk Pacific are being built across the continent to Hamilton Inlet, the point of delimitation on the Pacific Coast between ourselves and Canada. These transcontinental railroads are expected to open up a wheat area as large as our own, inasmuch as there is now confirmation of the earlier statements that a temperate climate and fertile land extend along the eastern foot of the Rocky Mountains for nearly 1,000 miles north of the international boundary. On the banks of the great Mackenzie River, which is open to navigation for almost as many summer months as the port of Duluth, oil is said to flow as freely as from the Baku wells; lead and other minerals crop out abundantly on its banks, and Hearn has told us of the native copper on his Copper River; so that imagination can run riot over what the 2,000,000 miles of unexplored territory may produce. Much of this is set forth attractively in Mr. Fraser's little book.

The Truth about the Tsar, and the Present State of Russia. By Carl Joubert. London: Everleigh Nash; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1905.

In our notice of 'Russia As It Really Is,' by Mr. Joubert, we had occasion to point out the author's "popular" style and reckless inaccuracies, bred, in part, of overconfidence, in part of neglect to verify quotations and statements of "facts." The present volume, which forms a sort of sequel to the one just mentioned, is characterized by like qualities. Evidently, they meet the approval of publishers and public, as this is the third edition. Its appearance is somewhat belated, as it contains several prophecies regarding the state of affairs after the war between Russia and Japan shall have been concluded. But as it contains much besides the interest of comparing prophecy with fulfilment (or, rather, in the present case, with non-fulfilment), which is likely to impress the non-critical or the badly informed reader, it may properly be treated as current literature rather than a dead issue.

The late author (for the bearer of the pseudonym "Carl Joubert" has just passed away) sets out with the assumption that his previous volumes were criticised because they were too much in advance of public opinion. He then says: "My predictions have been realized. The Autocrat's massacre of unarmed, peaceful Christians by hired Moslems on January 23 ended the armistice between the people and the Romanoffs." This is nothing short of amazing, but has its value in that it furnishes, at the start, an excellent example of the author's method. As the Preface from which we extract it is dated "February, 1905," the occasion alluded to can be none other than the one popularly known as "bloody Sunday," when the troops fired upon the processions of striking workmen in front of the Winter Palace and elsewhere in St. Petersburg. The Tartars and Moslems, in general, dodge military service by devices perfectly well understood, so that the proportion of them in the army is very small. The author probably refers to the Kazaks, many of whom belong to the sect of Old Ritualists in the Eastern Catholic Church.

Another typical instance of misinterpreted facts occurs in a paragraph about Alexander III. After saying that he swore like a "strugovtchik" (the Russian word is correct, for once), which would have been equally forcible had its English equivalent, "bargee" (employed immediately afterward), been used, we are told: "His courage was not equal to his bad manners. It was two years before he would trust himself to face the ordeal of coronation, dreading the fate of his father if he ventured out of his palace of Gatschina." One feels inclined to ask Mr. Joubert, Why was there any delay in crowning the present King of England? The explanation is deplorably prosaic in both cases. A gorgeous ceremonial, with its innumerable and complicated details, robes, and the rest, requires time for preparation. Before Alexander III. was crowned, the vast State rooms in the Kremlin palace, as well as the extensive private apartments, were rehung and refurnished, the cloth of gold and silver and brocades being woven for the occasion, as they were for the elaborately embroidered mantles, thrones, and so forth. It may not be amiss to remark, also, that Alexander III. was in the habit of driving about his capital daily, in open equipages, with the unostentation and freedom of a private person—not escorted by troops like Queen Victoria or the President of the French Republic.

When our author pays his respects to the Emperor Nicholas II. on the score of cowardice, he asserts that, during that sovereign's visit to France, "twice a day he received absolution from his chaplain. . . . A Pope of the Orthodox Church used to lick his left eye twice a day as a preventative [*sic*] against the machinations of the Nihilists." The first statement displays a lamentable ignorance in matters of the Church concerning which Mr. Joubert has made numerous remarkable assertions with an air of supreme authority. Absolution is given only after confession, immediately preceding the reception of the communion, which cannot possibly be taken more than once a day, even by an ordained priest. As for statement No. 2, we can only say that our author's facetious informant must have been thoroughly satisfied with the test of credulity thus applied. Equally unreliable is the assertion that the Greek Church teaches the peasant: "As great as God is in heaven, so great is our Tsar on earth." In this connection it may be remarked that, as religious freedom has been granted since the publication of this volume, most of the comments on that subject have lost whatever force they may have originally possessed; notably, the prediction that, given religious freedom, "the Greek Church throughout all Russia would be powerless." The State Church has cordially welcomed religious freedom for other sects, and desires reforms in its own affairs, with the confident expectation that these new conditions will strengthen its hold upon the affections of its members by conviction, while permitting the discontented to depart and remove with them elements of discord.

The reiterated and positive assertion that the Emperor would never accept any draft of a Constitution has been falsefied by events, and falls into the discredited category along with those on religion. As to the fitness for self-government on the part of the Russian people, Mr. Joubert is, undoubtedly, right in holding that, "with all their ignorance and fatalism, the Russian moujiks are as well fitted for self-government as some of the inhabitants of New York State, or Pennsylvania, or as the lynch-law element of the Southern States." This, although intrinsically not very high praise, at least puts the case clearly. Equally true are the sentences which follow, and a little local application might be respectfully suggested to the author:

"All that the people of Russia ask is that the rest of the world should mind their own business, and abstain from interference with the internal affairs of Russia. They have neither asked nor received any benefits from foreigners, and they have no intention of meddling in their affairs. The

development of their own country and the amelioration of their own people will keep them fully occupied for many years to come."

Later on he says: "I may be told that it is no business of mine—then I make it my business:" on the ground that he has been "a tramp" for many years in Russia.

As our author indulges in fewer Russian words than in his former volume his errors are fewer; but he seems to have acquired an inveterate habit of wedding plural adjectives or pronouns to nouns in the singular number, and "anglisky podletz" means "English scoundrel," not (as rendered) "carrion." Why he persists in confusing readers by calling the Dowager Empress Marie Feodorovna "Marie Dagmar"—she discarded the "Dagmar" forever on her reception into the Russian Church before her marriage—and Tsarskoe Selo "Natsarskoe Selo," is a puzzle, unless it be explicable by that general inaccuracy of mind to which we have repeatedly referred, instanced by "Il Troubadour" as the title of a well-known opera. His fine tribute to the ineradicable home-love of Russians is thoroughly merited, and his firm faith in Russia's future is assuredly well founded. Whether his vision of the flag of the United States of Russia flying over the Kremlin (practically, the only one of his prophecies which has not come utterly to naught within the book's little life-span of a year) is well founded, remains to be seen.

Edward MacDowell. By Lawrence Gilman. John Lane.

Fuller accounts of MacDowell's life than that contained in Mr. Gilman's volume have been printed in the *Century Magazine* and the London *Musical Times*; but as his volume comprises only seventy-seven pages, he probably felt that he could not spare more than a dozen for biographic details that do not help to throw light on the character of the composer's works. Edward MacDowell has often been called "the American Grieg," and it is an odd coincidence (as well as a fact that does throw light on his works) that America's most original composer, like Norway's, had a paternal great-grandfather who was a Scotchman. The American's paternal great-grandmother, on the other hand, was born in Ireland. His mother, Frances M. Knapp, was a young American woman of English antecedents, and his father was born in America. From him he inherited the Celtic qualities of his genius, concerning which Mr. Gilman has much to say:

"It is the heroic Gaelic world that MacDowell has made to live again in his music: that miraculous world of stupendous passions and aspirations, of bards and heroes and sublime adventure—the world of Cuchullin the unconquerable, and Laeg, and Queen Meave; of Naesi, and Deirdré the Beautiful, and Fergus, and Connla the Harper, and those kindred figures, lovely or greatly tragical, that are like no other figures in the world's mythologies."

Notwithstanding the Celtic note in much of his music, MacDowell is undoubtedly the most distinctively American of all our composers. The subtle problem as to wherein his Americanism lies, Mr. Gilman does not try to solve; he does, however, protest against the notion that an "American" art must necessarily be evolved from negro and Indian melodies. Concerning the "Indian Suite," in which songs of the Iroquois and Iowa Indians are used as themes, he says:

"Although MacDowell in this suite has admittedly derived his basic material from the North American aborigines, he has never, so far as I am aware, claimed that his impressive and noble score constitutes, for that reason, a representatively national utterance. He realizes, doubtless, that territorial propinquity is quite a different thing from racial affinity; and that a musical art derived from either Indian or Ethiopian sources can be 'American' only in a partial and quite unimportant sense."

To Mr. Gilman, MacDowell is the saviour and representative of the romantic spirit in music at a time when men like Richard Strauss, Debussy, D'Indy, Elgar, Loeffler are exhibiting other impulses and tendencies. With these "new men"—whom our author also admires, while others regard them with the same horror as they do the "new women"—MacDowell has nothing in common. His supple, broad, fresh, spontaneous melody contrasts strikingly with the "hesitant melodic contours," the "unceasing avoidance of definite patterns" in the works of the men just named. Nor does he indulge in the "intricate exfoliations" which give so peculiar a flavor to the harmonic schemes of the "new men." "It is in the novel disposition of familiar material, rather than in the discovery and exposition of new elements, that MacDowell's emphatic individuality consists," the author informs us. "Whether it is a more signal achievement to create a new speech through the imaginative readjustment of established locutions than to evolve it from fresh and unworked elements, is open to debate." This point seems well taken, but it loses some of its value when we bear in mind that the "fresh and unworked elements" in the compositions of the "new men" consist chiefly in making a sport of cacophony for its own sake, and in deliberately violating all the moral laws and conventions of music.

The least satisfactory of Mr. Gilman's chapters is that on the songs, the most satisfactory that on the sonatas. Grieg once compared the typical critic to a wet poodle who comes into the parlor and selects the best piece of furniture to lie down on. One cannot help thinking of this on reading the author's remarks on "Menie," one of the most wonderful songs ever composed in America or anywhere. In a footnote he grudgingly admits its beauty, but in the text he descants on an alleged "indifference to justness of declamatory utterance" in two or three words, which in truth is not worth mentioning, and which will bother no experienced singer. The assertion that "in his songs the composer does not often achieve an ideal correspondence between the significance of the text and the effect of his music" is preposterous. We should say, on the contrary, that the music of these songs is "dyed in the wool" of the underlying poems. It could hardly be otherwise in the case of a composer who made even his piano pieces for the most part echo the spirit of the poetic lines prefixed to them.

That MacDowell is, "in a singularly complete sense, the poet of the natural world," yet no less the "instrument of human emotion"; that the range of his emotional expression is astonishing; that he has a remarkable gift for extremely compact expression; that his music is "touched with the deep and wistful tenderness, the primeval nostalgia"; that much of its charm lies in its spontaneity and the utter lack of self-consciousness; that no musician has ever felt the spell of the ocean as has MacDowell, whose "Sea Pieces" are full of the "glamour, the awe, the mystery of the sea; of its sinister and terrible beauty, but also of its toxic charm, its secret allurement"—these and other characteristic points Mr. Gilman dwells on, thus giving his readers as good an idea of the music as can be obtained without hearing it. It is to be regretted that no bibliographic note has been appended.

The Basses, Fresh-water and Marine. By William C. Harris and Tarleton H. Bean. Edited and illustrated by Louis Rhead. The Frederick A. Stokes Co. 1905.

Fishes I Have Known. By Arthur H. Beavan. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: A. Wessels Co. 1905.

The literature of angling is of the same uncertain character as the sport itself. The net result of your hours of effort is apt to be slight in either case, and yet the devotee is never willing to admit that his time has been wasted. The brook brings you into pleasant contact with nature, even if the trout refuse to rise, and if one possess a fairly active imagination the book may do the same, even if it fails to satisfy all applicable objective tests of good literature. It is chiefly from this point of view that we must commend the sumptuous volume which Mr. Rhead has devoted to the basses, for one does not really find any striking positive merits to distinguish it from other literature available on the same subject. Friends of the late William C. Harris will, of course, be interested in his portion of the book as his last literary effort, and for that reason we deplore the blunder which has been allowed to mar his discussion of the names of the two species of black bass known to inland anglers, the one point upon which Mr. Harris doubtless expended his most laborious efforts for strict accuracy. We are told on page five that there are two species of black bass—the small-mouthed, *Micropterus Dolomici*, and the large mouthed *Micropterus Salmoides*. Those who do not need the information at all are aware that this is correct, but the uninformed will be disturbed by an exact reversal of the names only two pages further on. The carelessness cannot be fairly attributed to Mr. Harris, for he was lying in St. Vincent's Hospital, never to emerge alive, when the book went through the press. Editor and proof-readers should have done their part more conscientiously under such circumstances. Mr. Harris is like Dr. Henshall in ranking the black bass even above the brook trout as a game fish, though he is willing to admit the comparative inferiority of the large-mouthed variety—a thing Dr. Henshall could never be induced to do.

It must be said in general that there is no very good reason for grouping all the so-called basses together in a single book, as the name indicates no scientific connection, nor have the various kinds of "basses" any game qualities in common. About one-third of the present treat[illegible] given to the marine speci[illegible] described by Dr. Ta[illegible]

Rhead contributes chapters on the cooking of bass, the choice of flies, and bass in the Beaverkill. Upon the reception which this volume receives, we are told, depends the carrying out of plans for a "Library of Rod and Reel," to cover the entire field. Such a series might find a market sufficient to justify its existence from the business point of view, but the best angling literature comes when the pen is moved by the spirit, not by the call of the maker of books.

Mr. Beavan's volume might almost be described as the ichthyological section of a popular cyclopædia of natural history, so numerous and varied are the forms described. It is a book which any intelligent reader might presumably enjoy if he enjoys animate life, travel, and adventure of any kind; but we imagine the average ten-year-old boy would read it with keener interest and more profit than the angler. The yellowish-green binding is hardly an æsthetic success, nor, to revert to the other volume, does the eye find any satisfaction in the whim of decorating its cover in the likeness of the skin of a striped bass. Both books are in the main well illustrated, but if Mr. Rhead intended to represent a bass rising from the water in the picture entitled "The Best Time for Bass," he has sadly missed the likeness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baker, Franklin T., and George R. Carpenter. First, Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth, Sixth-Year Language Readers. 6 vols. Macmillan Co.
Chamberlin, Frederick. In the Shoe-String Country. Boston: C. M. Clark Publishing Co.
Dubois, Joseph. L'Empire de L'Argent: Etude sur la Chine Financière. Paris: E. Guilmoto.
Fawcett, Mrs. Henry. Five Famous French Women. Cassell & Co. $2.
Hardy, E. J. What Men Like in Women. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1 net.
International Dictionary of Booksellers. 7th issue. Rochdale: James Clegg.
Journal de l'Estoile. Edited by Armand Brette. Paris: Armand Colin.
Krausz, Sigmund. Automobile Dictionary. F. A. Stokes Co.
La Bruyère's Les Caractères. Edited by F. M. Warren. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Marshall, Thomas. Aristotle's Theory of Conduct. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
O'Shea, M. V. Dynamic Factors in Education. Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.
Paternoster, G. Sidney. The Cruise of the Conqueror. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Phillmore, Ioannes. Index Verborum Propertianus. Henry Frowde. 4s. 6d. net.
Pierce, Charles C. The Hunger of the Heart for Faith, and Other Sermons. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. $1 net.
Plutarch's Lives. Translated by W. R. Frazer. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan Co.
Salone, Emile. La Colonisation de la Nouvelle-France. Paris: E. Guilmoto.
Sidgwick, Henry. A Memoir, by A. S. & E. M. S. Macmillan Co. $4.
Thurston, Lucy Meacham. Called to the Field. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Tynan, Katharine. Dick Pentreath. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Watts-Dunton, Theodore. The Coming of Love. John Lane Co.
Westermarck, Edward. The Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas. Vol. I. Macmillan Co. $3.50.

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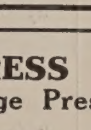

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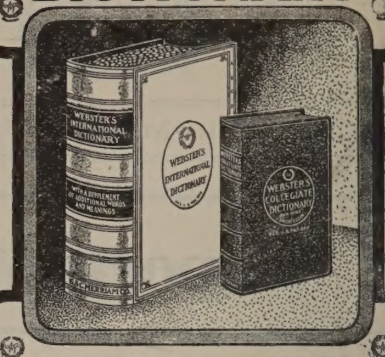

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1906.

The Week.

All students of legislation have agreed in denouncing the Congressional practice of passing general legislation as part of the appropriation bills. This year, at the hands of a group of embattled members, the House of Representatives got, as the phrase is, "just what was coming to it." Out of a difficulty of its own creation it extricates itself by an action which, however "practical," is without justification in logic, law, or precedent. In the face of the absolutely definite rule against expenditures not authorized by existing law, the Appropriations Committee has followed its own sweet will so far that the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial bill has been "riddled" by perfectly valid points of order, and can be saved only by a special rule to the effect that it shall be passed whether legal or illegal. The point of order in Congress has long been regarded simply as a club. The Speaker does not enforce the rule against new legislation or provisions not germane unless somebody brings the case to his attention. Thus many of the most necessary bills, as in the present instance, come upon the floor in a shockingly vulnerable state. As for the extraordinary expedient adopted to save the measure, we hope the incident will merely be a salutary warning to the House, and not the beginning of a line of precedent that will still further tighten the grip of the Speaker and the Rules Committee upon the organization.

Never, certainly, was there a bill which appealed to more sorts or conditions of people than that reported from the Ways and Means Committee providing for free alcohol. The farmer and the manufacturer stand side by side in its favor. The former expects to gain a new market for odds and ends of grain, potatoes, and fruit, the latter to get greatly cheapened a material important to almost every line of industry. The Trust-buster—for the Standard Oil Company is reported as strenuously opposed to free alcohol—makes common cause with the automobile-owning magnate. Even the temperance organizations, it appears, favor the bibulous-sounding bill on the psychological ground that the special kind of alcohol the production of which is to be encouraged will be poisonous, and that its general use and familiarity will cause the coming generation unconsciously to regard all alcohol as a poison, and not a beverage. The bill thus has plenty of friends. Whether they are the kind that can make an impression on a Congress, especially a Senate, which gets itself into an artificial hurry in the years of the long session, is another question. Legislation that would cheapen anything would be regarded by some as a bad precedent.

Every one interested in the preservation of Niagara Falls should second President Roosevelt's recommendation that there be enacted into law the suggestions of the American members of the International Waterways Commission. If the Falls are to be saved, there is no time to lose. The Commission was composed on both sides of able and far-sighted men, who are strongly of the opinion that any further diversion of water will bring ruin with it. There was substantial agreement on the facts by both Canadians and Americans, and the Canadian Government, it is announced, is ready to act. According to its Minister of Public Works, the right to export power will henceforth be granted only subject to revocation at short notice, while the water-power companies will be subject to such rules and regulations as the Government sees fit to impose. The preservation of the scenic beauty of the Falls will henceforth be the special care of the Government. The United States must not lag behind. Congress ought to adopt the suggestion of the Commission, which the President, with his well-known love of nature, is so prompt to reinforce. The destruction of Niagara Falls for money would forever stamp this country abroad as a nation dead to anything but what touches the pocket.

President George F. Baer was quite right in telling President John Mitchell that the order to the anthracite miners to quit work on Monday, pending an agreement, was "most extraordinary." The operators had expressed their entire readiness to meet their employees and discuss the points of difference. The postponement of such a conference till after the first of April had been in deference to President Mitchell's own desire. Under the circumstances the calling out of the miners was a gratuitous exhibition of bad manners. The act, however, relates to etiquette rather than principle; and the operators are well advised in proceeding with the conference as if nothing unpleasant had happened. Both sides are in duty bound to take up the negotiations in a conciliatory mood. The United Mine Workers have apparently begun to realize that they cannot have everything they ask for. At first they proposed to tie up every bituminous mine until every bituminous operator had yielded—a relentless and wholly unjustifiable sympathetic strike. John Mitchell, however, now urges them to work for any operator with whom they can come to terms. Unless his advice is followed in this respect, the mine workers can succeed in nothing but the alienation of public sympathy.

The "Dawkins Bill," lately vetoed by Gov. Warfield of Maryland, is a fine example of labor legislation rampant. What organized labor demanded, and what but for Gov. Warfield the Legislature would have granted, was this: Baltimore is to spend something like $10,000,000 in public improvements, including a sewer system; the work is to be done, at the direction of competent engineers, as quickly as possible under the stimulus of the "new and better Baltimore" movement; but the labor leaders of that city conceived it to be a fine opportunity to show their hand, and Mr. Dawkins introduced a bill into the Legislature providing that only registered voters of Maryland should be employed on public work in Baltimore. As first drawn, the bill included architects, engineers, contractors. Later, it was amended, as a great concession, to except "technical employees." In both House and Senate this extraordinary proposition to create a labor monopoly was passed by large majorities, the labor lobbyists threatening political vengeance in the event of an adverse vote. But, to the credit of the Governor, he disposed of the bill in so effective a veto message that upon its resubmission to the Legislature it won only the slightest showing of support.

Judge Greenbaum's reputation as a careful and firm magistrate will be heightened by his action in making permanent the injunction against violence by the striking printers. The evidence was overwhelming that the typographical union, or its agents, had resorted to assaults as well as threats, in its efforts to deter free printers from accepting the work offered them. At the hearing, this was not denied. Nor could Judge Greenbaum find that the union had ever protested against the brutal outrages committed in its behalf, or done anything to punish the guilty. It appears that the union has no "rules" covering such cases. It is quite right, therefore, and highly necessary that the courts should enjoin organized labor from acts of intimidation and violence. In Washington, also, the Typothetæ have secured a similar ruling from a judge there. He took occasion to lay

down the sound opinion that lawless acts are especially criminal when directed against the liberty of a man to take what work and wages he may please.

The Republican situation in this city is rapidly going from bad to worse. The wave of reform which put Herbert Parsons in the county chairmanship and led to the selection of Mr. Wadsworth as Speaker, seems to have spent its force, and decent Republicans are once more confronted with the fact that Odell dominates the situation. Through all the righteous attacks upon him he has held on with brazen effrontery to the State Chairmanship, and on Thursday he came to town and calmly annexed the City Committee. Twenty-two of the thirty-six district leaders joined him at the Fifth Avenue Hotel, and mapped out a Senate and Assembly reapportionment act in accordance with his desires. Mr. Parsons was deliberately ignored. Halpin, Van Cott, Alexander, and all the rest of the gang were there, and L. E. Quigg, too. It was not so very long ago that Odell, in his fine zeal to reform the city's politics, declined to see Quigg at any time or place; yea, rumor had it that he would not even hold telephonic communication with him. Bidwell, Quigg, Frank Platt, Dunn, and others were to be driven out of public life for the good of the party. Evidently, these rumors were base fabrications. Mr. Odell sees that the way to reform is to cherish the professional politicians and spurn the reformers. Mr. Parsons had better look out; a silk-stocking of his kind ought to get ready to resign. Odell is in the saddle to stay, and respectable Republicans had better submit—Choate, Root, Higgins, Roosevelt, and all the rest.

We never did think that Mr. Jerome could long be content with his strangely chosen rôle of William the Silent. So it was no great surprise to find him passing, on Friday morning, from his stern "nothing to say" to four columns of carefully prepared explanation. This, at least, is the man we knew—the Jerome of extraordinarily developed sensitiveness to popular feeling, the frank and talkative official, the "good advertiser." Better late than never is what he now says about his own campaign fund. None of it, he tells us, came from corporations; certain proffered contributions were refused, because Mr. Jerome looked the gift-horse in the mouth. So far excellent. The only wonder is that Mr. Jerome did not say as much long ago. His assumption that he was insulted by questions on that point was wholly gratuitous, and his temporary pose as the strong man contemptuous of public opinion was not at all in character. Now that he has abandoned all that, we expect him to go on and make that full statement about his campaign receipts and expenditures which their important bearing on the whole question of electoral reform renders pertinent and urgent.

Mr. Jerome's apologia as respects his handling of the insurance cases does not do much, unhappily, to explain how it was that, having advised the Grand Jury to ask instructions from Judge O'Sullivan, he became angry when those instructions did not square with his own expressed views. He does not make it clear why, after having, as he says, convinced himself in his conscience and on his oath of office that Mr. Perkins was not guilty of grand larceny, he had him arrested on that charge. We hear but one opinion about this unfortunate vacillation of Mr. Jerome's, which may easily prejudice the legal determination of the criminality of the insurance gifts to political corruptionists. But the District Attorney now practically admits his blunder. In all that remains of the insurance cases, he is evidently preparing to act with greater vigor and directness. He has asked for and obtained a special Grand Jury for May, to devote itself exclusively to the investigation of insurance offences. It will be a chastened Jerome who devotes himself to that critical inquiry, and we look for no mishandling of it.

The important amendments of the insurance bills introduced on Thursday for the Armstrong committee enlarge the permissible ratio of "contingency reserves" to outstanding insurance; extend the maximum ratio of expenditure on obtaining new business, and allow the companies to retain such collateral trust bonds as they now possess, though further investment in those securities is still prohibited. The change in the "contingency reserve" section is a concession to the argument presented by President Ide at the recent hearing. He contended with much force that absolute restriction of this fund amounted to "putting a limit on conservatives." With the proposed limitation applied in 1903, shrinkage of Stock Exchange values would have placed one of the three largest companies in a position of technical insolvency. These objections the committee now meets by raising substantially the maximum limitation on such reserves, and by permitting the companies, with the assent of the Insurance Superintendent, to go beyond even the new limitation in case of a general fall of investment values. To the original bill for limiting first expenses, three objections of weight were made at the hearing—one, that the limitation would not allow a living profit to the agent; another, Mr. McClintock's statement that so rigid an artificial limitation as was proposed "would cramp the company and increase the cost of its business"; a third, that the committee's own estimates of resonable first cost had not included due allowance for medical and other routine outlay. To these arguments the committee defers, enlarging moderately the agents' commission and renewal rights, and allowing for other necessary first charges.

These amendments have to do with technical questions, and do not affect the original aim—namely, to put an absolute barrier in the way of extravagance in the race for the "biggest showing of insurance written." A different question arose in the collateral trust bond matter. Such investment of insurance funds was forbidden in the committee's bills, on the perfectly proper ground that bonds whose sole security is the stock deposited behind them, must be classed with the stocks as an investment, and should therefore be excluded as are the stocks themselves. It developed, at the hearing of March 9, that $107,000,000 of such bonds are already held by New York insurance companies. It was then contended that compulsory sale of that amount, even in a five-year term, would seriously upset values. This was a matter of opinion; the committee, however, has deemed it best to err, if at all, on the side of conservatism in its changes, and it allows the companies to keep such collateral trust bonds as they already hold. If this is a concession in principle, it is nevertheless probable that no harm will result from it; for further purchase remains prohibited, and holdings of actual shares in other enterprises, to which the practical objection was more serious, must still be sold within the five-year period.

To all budding logicians we commend Gov. Higgins's latest utterance on the subject of investigating the Banking Department:

> "I believe that the Banking Department should be investigated, and the responsibility for action now rests with the Assembly. There is a bill before them. The Assembly passed a resolution, which the Senate did not see fit to approve. The Senate has sent to them a bill which I do not think any one can honestly question."

In other words, the Assembly passes a bill for a thorough and genuine investigation—the kind of thing which Gov. Higgins and his friend, Superintendent Kilburn, do not want. The Senate rejects the Assembly bill and proposes a limited, whitewashing investigation. No one opposes the Senate bill except those leaders of a forlorn hope who wish to see the Banking Department administered without fear or favor; and these idealists in politics do not count. If they refuse to assent to the plan of sprinkling rose-water over Mr. Kilburn,

they are, in the view of Gov. Higgins, responsible for the failure to investigate. Nothing could be plainer or more convincing.

The Assembly passed on Thursday by a large majority a resolution changing the requirement for the passage of Constitutional amendments. It was doubtless greatly influenced by the almost ridiculously small vote on the amendments last submitted and adopted. When only about 8 per cent. of those participating in an election take the trouble to vote upon such propositions at all, the process of submitting them seems farcical to many. It has been the general experience with the referendum that the affirmative sentiment on a proposition has a far better chance of casting its vote than that on the other side. Hence, it is urged, the vote does not fairly represent popular sentiment, and all sorts of proposals can be carried by the vote of a small minority of the population. On the other hand, the system provided by the resolution which on Monday passed the New York Assembly, making a majority of the total vote at the election necessary to adopt a Constitutional amendment, would render it almost impossible to carry any proposal submitted. This may be, in some ways, a good thing, but its consequences should be carefully considered. For instance, in 1903, when the canal question was submitted and carried, the affirmative vote was 673,010. The vote in the State election for judge of the Court of Appeals that year was 1,412,788. So, had the canal improvement involved a Constitutional amendment, it would have been defeated under the proposed new rule.

Whatever the final count may show, in the contest between Governor Davis and Senator Berry of Arkansas, the people of that State have really succeeded in electing a Senator by popular vote. Heretofore the Senatorship has been an issue at the party primaries, but members of the Legislature have been bound only by the vote of their separate constituencies. This year, however, Governor Davis and Senator Berry agreed to abide by the result of the Democratic primary throughout the State, and the campaign has been as active as the Montague-Martin primary fight in Virginia last year. Davis has won on the face of the returns, and if he proves to be the Legislature's choice for Senator, it will be another triumph for the "stormy petrel" school of statesmanship. In his five campaigns in Arkansas—one for Attorney-General, three for Governor, and the present one for the Senatorial nomination, Davis has made 2,000 speeches, has had half a score of personal encounters, and has ridden roughshod over all kinds of opposition in his party. He is charged with the responsibility for the reduction of a normal Democratic majority of 70,000 to less than 20,000. As a "cornfield" statesman, Davis is proud of his sharp angles, and has even made political capital out of his rebuke by President Roosevelt.

Milwaukee made the first trial the other day of the primary law passed after such a long fight. A great many citizens, according to the report, could not seem to get through their heads the distinction between the primary and the regular election. The newspapers were full of warnings against ticket-splitting on the analogy of the November election, for Republicans, seeing the name of a high-class aspirant for the Democratic nomination, were prone to put his name on their own ticket. This difficulty will doubtless disappear when the law becomes more familiar. But, for one thing, it shows strikingly how little the people knew about the process of making nominations under the old system. That is, they failed to understand the primary because the old caucuses, which theoretically corresponded, were absolutely unfamiliar to the average citizen. For a first test of the new law, the Milwaukee primary vote of 43,000 seems to us encouragingly large. While the figure is some 13,000 short of the vote in the last Presidential election, it is estimated by the *Evening Wisconsin* to be at least 16,000 greater than the attendance at the 1904 caucuses.

In fifteen inches of closely printed amendments to the football rules, we cannot find a line that is likely to improve the game. The penalties for various kinds of foul play are greatly increased, but umpires practically never enforced the old penalties. Reducing the defensive line from seven to six largely offsets the ten-yard rule. The requirement that the two rushlines must stand separated by the longest diameter of the ball is practically incapable of enforcement. An additional blind umpire is provided, but no rule is drawn by which he shall be forced to penalize foul play when he sees it. Minor prohibitions, such as that of hurdling, of kicking the ball on the ground after a kick, actually makes against a more open game. We believe there were just two ways of handling the football situation. An experimental trial of the ten-yard rule without further modification might have resulted in restoring the open game of the eighties. Failing that, there was nothing to do but to reform the game altogether, by reverting to Rugby of the English or New Zealand type. As things stand, complicated rules become more complicated than ever, and old measures of reform that have proved ineffectual are merely reduplicated.

Ever since the Taff Vale decision established the financial responsiblity of unions for damage inflicted in their behalf, labor leaders in England have been seeking legislative immunity for union funds. The present Liberal Government would virtually grant this immunity, by stipulating that unions shall be held in damages only for acts clearly authorized by their governing bodies. As a matter of fact, it is practically impossible to prove that acts of violence in a labor war are thus authorized. Common sense suggests that a certain responsibility attaches to the body that profits by the lawless deed. However, the labor members were not thus satisfied. They require not merely practical immunity for union funds, but an explicit and comprehensive release from any financial responsibility whatever. This, as the Attorney-General remarked, would confer an exceptional exemption upon the proletariat, and cries from the Laborite benches showed that precisely this was demanded. With this claim of superiority to the organic law we are only too familiar in America. Only the other day, Mr. Roosevelt had to administer a sharp reminder that one class of labor cannot set itself up as privileged beyond the rest. In England the unions have long been conducted along saner and more business-like lines. The objection of the labor members at Westminster to a measure giving more than they can reasonably demand, indicates a change of temper, and hints of a future closer alliance between British unionism of the opportunist type and the more advanced forms of Socialism.

To have changed front, or retreated outright, twice in one week, is what the new English Government may be charged truthfully with having done. Perhaps the very size of its majority gives it, with Falstaff, an alacrity in sinking. At any rate, the Colonial Office lost little time in capitulating to Natal. Of course, Lord Elgin rode off on the excuse that, if the government of that colony had kept him fully informed about the proposed execution of natives, he would not have intervened at all, but that is palpably a lame horse. The obvious inference is that the Colonial Secretary acted hastily, and then reversed himself still more hastily. Even more significant as a sign of divided counsels and of vacillation is the yielding of the Premier to the Labor party in the matter of giving trades unions what is practically immunity from the law. There may be good arguments for this course, but for Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman to turn round after the stand made by the Attorney-General and incontinently go the full organized-labor length, certainly looks like poor management and unstable convictions.

PERILS OF "CORNFIELD" LAW.

Senator Tillman has invented a new phrase to describe the attitude of men like him who make light of legal and Constitutional difficulties in legislation. He is, he says, only "a cornfield lawyer." As such, however, he gayly sallies forth to rail at the arguments of real lawyers like Senators Knox and Spooner on the Republican side, and of Messrs. Bailey and Culberson on his own. His pose is simply a variant of the old one of pitting rough-and-ready horse sense against legal expertness. The President is reported to be much taken with this method of Tillman, who continually refers to himself as merely a nurse in charge of Mr. Roosevelt's baby. There has been, the dispatches say, much hearty laughter and applause in the White House for "cornfield" law.

It has, however, its drawbacks and perils. Some of them were exposed by Senator Knox in his weighty speech on March 28. The gist of it was a plea for the courts as against the cornfield. The ex-Attorney-General contended that care and skill are necessary in drafting intricate legislation, with a knowledge of the legal effect of the language used, and some faint effort to shape your important bill so that it will not be judicially found null and void. Mr. Knox made an unimpassioned legal argument. He did not attempt to answer Tillman with homely or proverbial phrases. Had he done so, he might have reminded the South Carolina Senator, who is so willing to "chance" it with the Constitution, that it is better to be sure than to be sorry.

The Administration has just emerged from an experience with cornfield law which ought to make it a little more chary of that article. It was in the finest manner of a cornfield jurist that the President set about the prosecution of the Beef Trust. He cheerfully mixed up friendly inquiries with criminal indictments—the Bureau of Corporations with the Department of Justice. To a man with a hoe in a cornfield, this would have seemed an eminently fitting procedure. First get your suspected magnates confidentially to admit their evil deeds, then prosecute them. But the courts have had a word to say about that. There is such a thing, they held, as recognized criminal process. The Government had ignored it. It had made the defendants immune without intending to do so. They could not be first asked to make privileged communications and then tried on the strength of them. Thus one little decision by a judge upset that entire cornfield prosecution.

The cornfield lawyer, we see, is in danger of taking his own impulses, good and unselfish as he is sure they are, for sound legal maxims and trusty guides to action. They have a way, however, of proving not to be. The President strongly urged Congress, for example, to undertake the Federal regulation of life insurance. He perceived that the subject was one of national interest; hence it was clear to him that it was one under national jurisdiction. That, be it said with all respect, was the cornfield view. The legal and Constitutional view—and, incidentally, the conclusive view—has just been enunciated by the Judiciary Committee of the House. Its members did not settle the question with a hoe or cultivator, but studied law and precedent and the decisions of the Supreme Court, and came unanimously to the conclusion that the course recommended by Mr. Roosevelt was plainly unconstitutional.

What is the present status of the argument on the railway-rate question? Such, we think, as to call imperatively for the amendment of the Hepburn bill. The best lawyers of the Senate have been heard from—Foraker, Rayner, Bailey, Culberson, Spooner, and finally Knox. There is practically a consensus of opinion among them that the Hepburn bill, as it now stands, is unconstitutional, and would surely be so held by the Supreme Court. Most of the Senators named have offered amendments intended to cure the legal vices of the bill. These relate chiefly to the want of due provision for a judicial review of the findings of the Interstate Commerce Commission. On this point Senator Knox spoke with much emphasis and confessedly great authority. He has himself introduced an amendment which would remove the Constitutional objection while safeguarding the rights of both shippers and carriers, and providing for a speedy hearing and determination of all cases. Why is there any hesitation in taking the advice of so sound a lawyer, so well-approved a prosecutor of oppressive combinations? Apparently, because the word has gone out from cornfield and cottonpatch that they must have the Hepburn bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill. Pass it unamended, is the cry of the men who, like Senator Dolliver, profess to be directly inspired by the President. But this foolish attitude is becoming daily more discredited. The weight of argument is too heavily against the cornfield. And there seems now to be little doubt that an amendment guaranteeing judicial review will be adopted by the Senate, and that the President will accept it with the assurance that it is the thing above all others which he from the first ardently desired.

OUR CONSULAR DISGRACE.

The confidential report in regard to our former consuls in the East, published on Thursday, must everywhere evoke a sense of shame. This is not the testimony of a sensational writer, or of a politician in search of notoriety, but a sober, official statement filed with the Secretary of State by an Assistant Secretary of State detailed to make a special investigation. From Mr. Peirce's report it is plain that the most important consular representatives of the United States in the Far East have been either common drunkards or grafters—men who accepted office merely to fill their own pockets, legally or illegally. The official report recalls the statement of the American admiral who, returning from a long cruise in European waters, declared that half our consuls in the Mediterranean had been in jail, and that the other half ought to be there. Conditions in the East seem to have been fully as bad, for if ever men ought to go to jail, they are official representatives of this Government whose misconduct reflects upon the entire country.

Americans not in the habit of travelling abroad have often wondered why it is that the United States has stood so low in foreign estimation. They even rejoiced that the favorable outcome of the Spanish war seemed to assure this country a better position. But if any one factor has helped to give foreigners a poor opinion of the United States, it is our wretched consular representation. Of this the proof is unending, but rarely has it been put before the public so concretely and authoritatively as in Mr. Peirce's report. The more one studies it, the more the wonder grows. If there is anything that the Americans are proud of, it is their reputation as business men. Yet, with all their eagerness to obtain foreign trade, to show the back-number German, the frog-eating Frenchman, or the antediluvian Hungarian a trick or two along trade lines, they have supinely sat by and let the politicians run the foreign business of the country with men of low calibre such as no reputable mercantile house in this country would think of employing.

Because the men most severely criticised by Mr. Peirce are now out of the consular service, or because a reform bill is on its way through Congress, it must not be thought that nothing remains to be done. While there has been much progress, there are many consuls who do not reflect credit on the country. There was the one at Coburg, for instance, who turned the consulate into a disreputable resort, and made every exporter contribute a "sample" for use in furnishing the consulate or to be disposed of for the benefit of the consul's pocket. Careful investigation would have shown the man's unfitness for office before his appointment. The State Department removed him for the "good of the service," but Mr. Roosevelt, in the eyes of the Coburgers, added insult to injury by appointing as his successor that Saylor who obtained unenviable notoriety by

trying to defraud the State of Pennsylvania when serving in its Legislature, and who was officially denounced by the Governor. There are plenty of other cases on record in which the President or the State Department connived at the appointment of unfit men. Mr. Peirce found that no less than eighty-two charges were on file against Consul-General Goodnow of Shanghai. Yet Mr. McKinley knew precisely what kind of man Goodnow was when he selected him. Delegations expressing the best moral sentiment of Goodnow's home town went to Washington and protested against his appointment, on the ground that his character was detestable.

Mr. McKinley, indeed, was responsible for all the men who figure most prominently in Mr. Peirce's *chronique scandaleuse*. McWade at Canton, who was "disgracefully drunk" on one public occasion, and, while "boisterously drunk" on another, swore and wanted to fight because some one said "hurrah for Ireland," and who was believed throughout China to be notoriously corrupt, bore McKinley's commission. So did Oscar F. Williams, who was appointed to Singapore after a blemished record elsewhere. Mr. Greener of Vladivostok, "whose habits are said to be extremely bad," and Levi L. Wilcox at Hankow, who "cannot be said to be a useful consular officer," are, we believe, also of the McKinley régime. Their careers and the dishonor they have brought on the country ought to facilitate the passage of the Consular Reform bill, now in conference. Much of the "starch" has, unfortunately, been taken out of this measure; as it now stands, it is merely a changeling substitute for Mr. Root's hopeful child of the early session. Yet, such as it is, it is a great step forward, and it is bound to raise the tone of the service. The blight of politics will be largely lifted. Neither permanency of tenure nor regular promotion is guaranteed, but these may be established by special acts as time goes on.

Most of the civil-service reform features have been cut out by the Congressional spoilsmen. Much can be done by the President, however, to offset this. He can prescribe regulations precisely as he and his predecessors have done for the civil service, and he can absolutely decline to appoint men who, although able to pass examinations, are still not men of the highest character. Consuls and consul-generals are still "demanded" by Senators and Representatives, but President Roosevelt ought to be able to decide for himself. Secretary Root is certain to continue his agitation for a complete reorganization of the service, and a readiness on the part of the Administration to do its full duty would complete the reform it has so well begun.

SKY-SCRAPING TARIFF TAXES.

The Republican delegation from Massachusetts in the House of Representatives, having failed by ordinary methods of petition and argument to obtain the free hides and other tariff concessions it needs, has now announced its purpose to make itself a centre for all the revision sentiment in Congress. Without being over-sanguine, the members hope to attract to themselves, a few at a time, other disaffected Republicans, a handful who want free lumber here, a group who want the steel schedule revised there, and so on, until, possibly in some far-off happier day, the scale may turn and the revisionists compel some sort of action. It is a more courageous thing to do than the public unfamiliar with the ways of Washington understands, and, even if it does not yield results in the statute-book, it gives new and public backing to an important cause.

We noticed the other day the humorous petition of a small group of Michigan manufacturers for the imposition of a 125 per cent. duty on wooden shoes, in order that this promising, though hitherto unheard-of, American industry might be able to hold its own with foreign competitors. So far as we have yet seen, no one has regarded this request as anything but a joke. The Protective Tariff League is thus far silent, and Mr. McCleary, the higher-duty advocate, has not said a word. Apparently, such of our citizens as still wear wooden shoes are welcome to buy them in whatsoever country turns them out most cheaply. Yet the band of Massachusetts revisionists can, if it chooses, point to a large number of duties higher than the wooden-shoe makers' request, and to some quite as preposterous.

To be specific, there are twenty-one different commodities on which there were collected in the last fiscal year duties equivalent to more than 125 per cent. ad valorem. There were fifty-seven instances of duties equivalent to over 100 per cent. The facts in these cases are obtainable by any one from the reports of the Bureau of Statistics in the Department of Commerce and Labor. Mr. John Sharp Williams tabulated the particular data for use in a recent speech. Of course, there is no clause in the Dingley law which mentions any such rates. These are all specific duties or specific duties combined with moderate ad-valorem rates; but the rate actually charged may be figured from the simple ratio between stated values and duties paid. Moreover, tobacco and spirituous liquors, where a high tariff tax is laid to offset the revenue tax, are not included.

There have been extreme instances, as in the case where mica, under the turn of the law, was made to pay 4,000 per cent. on its commercial value. But these are interesting chiefly as curiosities, and the highest duty regularly exacted is, according to this table, a bare 251.73 per cent. This was collected on vanillin, the active principle of vanilla, of which $423 worth in 1905 paid $1,064.80 duty. Vanillin, it is true, is not a necessity of life, and perhaps even a prohibitive tariff would not be generally felt. But shoddy, which affects the poor only, paid the equivalent of 250 per cent. Silk handkerchiefs of a certain grade paid 221.27 per cent., and dress facings or skirt bindings, not bleached, dyed, or printed, paid 201 per cent.

The articles on which duties between 200 and 125 per cent. are collected may be briefly given here, with the understanding that in most instances the rate stated applies only to a particular grade of the product, and in some cases to unimportant or unusual ones.

Per cent.	Articles.
185.76	Bay rum.
165.11	Dress goods.
159.32	Blankets.
157.52	Dress goods.
151.93	Cloths, woollen or worsted.
151.07	Plate glass.
143.72	"Other manufactures of wool."
141.02	Plushes and other pile fabrics.
140.29	Plate glass.
140.05	Plushes and other pile fabrics.
139.7	Boracic acid.
138.06	Yarns.
136.44	Plate glass.
130.70	Flannels for underwear.
129.80	Mineral waters.
125.70	"Other manufactures of wool."
125.44	Blankets.

We have stopped this list advisedly at the rate of duty asked for in the ridiculous wooden-shoe petition. Is there a single one of the schedules above mentioned which could be defended on its merits on the floor of Congress, or anywhere else? Is there one of those duties which a nation not made up of lunatics would even think of levying if it had the task of making a tariff *de novo*? And if it is preposterous to establish a new 125 per cent. duty for the benefit of a few struggling Western wooden-shoe factories, is it not just as preposterous to retain similar duties for the benefit of other interests which have grown great on tariff favors? We have cited merely the extremes, the cases about which most men, whatever their political opinions, would agree without hesitation. But to grant that the 251 per cent. duty on vanillin differs only in degree of extortion from a dozen of the schedules on the commonest and most necessary articles of life is a logical step from which Republicans draw back. The very men who laughed at Mr. Williams's "banana speech" will not extend and apply his reasoning.

DIFFICULTIES OF RETRENCHMENT.

The case of the English Liberals just now illustrates a tendency of government which is more and more coming to prevail all over the world. We mean

the fact that public expenses are steadily rising, and that it is steadily more difficult to cut them down. A distinct item in the Liberal election programme was retrenchment. The Tories were accused of having pushed the public outlay, not only above all precedent, but beyond all reason; and the people were asked to elect a Government that would economize. Well, the economies in prospect are beggarly; the new objects of expenditure already pressed upon Parliament make lavish demands. The army bill, into which the Liberals were going to thrust so deep-cutting a knife, they have been able to pare down by only $50,000. Meanwhile, projects urging new appropriations of many millions are insistently urged upon the Government. The Chancellor of the Exchequer reminded the House the other day of the promises with which his party had taken office, and then ran over the list of measures calling for great and fresh outlay advocated by Liberals within the seven days past, ending with the sarcastic: "Pretty well for one week."

Yet this same Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Asquith, in addressing delegates from the Conference of Taxing Authorities, agreed that, in municipalities at least, it is impossible "to cut down or arrest your expenditure." The reason he gave was as follows:

> "We are constantly adopting a higher and, I may call it, a more exacting standard of municipal life. Sanitation, education, and a number of other interests of that kind, the due attention to which we all feel to be bound up with the real prosperity and welfare of the community—these are things which you cannot put upon one side or postpone without serious risk to the interests which our municipal bodies are intended to represent. Therefore it is of paramount importance that some additional reservoir should be found upon which, in justice and equality, drafts can be made to meet the ever-growing necessities of the community."

This is undoubtedly true. It is as true of American as of British cities. It is true of our State and national governments as well as our municipal. In all of them we believe that great retrenchment could be effected. The public business is extravagantly or wastefully done. Almost anywhere, a vigorous and trained administrator in public office could cut off sinecures and stop leaks. Yet his most unremitting efforts would not prevent the gradual rise in the scale of public expenditure. It mounts not alone absolutely, but relatively; and so far as we can see, is bound to do so for some time to come. Every extension of the functions of government is costly, yet the people are everywhere demanding that they be more and more extended. What they keep on demanding they are pretty certain to obtain, at the end of the chapter; and if they get a bigger tax bill along with it, they should not grumble—but they do.

This was Mr. Asquith's point, and it is the chief one to bear in mind in the whole business. Expenditure goes with taxes, and as the former mounts so do the latter. Indeed, from the statesman's standpoint, the increase in taxes is more directly significant than the increase in their outlay. He has to find the added revenue. This means either a screwing up of old taxes or the discovery of new ones. In either case the result, for the taxpayers, is the same. They are called upon to surrender a larger and larger part of their income to the State. This is really the practical aspect of the matter which it is primarily more important to understand than any question of theoretic Socialism. Hence there was point in the remark of the old professor of political economy to the eager young fellow who came asking what he should study in order to grapple with the questions of municipal and government ownership, socialistic experiments, and what not. The reply was: "Study taxation."

The duty of counting the cost thereof is too often overlooked in plans for enlarging and improving the activities of government. Yet it is vital to the whole question. Take the proposal that public schools should give the children of the poor at least one nourishing meal a day. Its latest eloquent advocate here distinctly dismisses the question of expense. Into that, he has not thought it worth while to go. He is sure that it "can be managed." Perhaps it can, but note what happens when the same proposal is brought up in Parliament and reduced to pounds, shillings, and pence. The Minister of Education, Mr. Birrell, had exact estimates of cost prepared, and showed that the total would be too great for the Imperial Exchequer to undertake at present. The step may yet be taken in England, as we presume it will be in American cities, but it certainly will make necessary new forms of taxation.

Taxes will surely become more burdensome as the functions of government are multiplied. That is a truth which ardent social reformers should not attempt to deny. They will have to pay more themselves; so will all their friends. The old professor was right. Fundamental to every new governmental experiment is the question where the money to carry it on is to be found. We are not now saying that such experiments ought not to be made, but they should be made with our eyes open to the fact that taxpayers will have to foot the bill.

THE MOROCCO SETTLEMENT.

Last Saturday, just a year after the Kaiser's sensational visit to Tangier, the Algeciras Conference arrived at the following agreement: The Sultanate is to be policed by troops under French and Spanish officers, who are jointly answerable to the Sultan and to the diplomatic corps at Fez. In the important havens of Tangier and Casablanca there will be both French and Spanish officers; Spain will have the exclusive officering of Tetuan on the Mediterranean and of Larache on the Atlantic, France that of the four Atlantic ports, Mogador, Saffi, Mazagan, and Rabat. This police agreement holds for five years. On the financial side, France gets a substantial plurality interest in the new Morocco bank, holding three out of fifteen shares, of which no other European nation controls more than one. Such, in brief, is the settlement of a highly delicate, and at times fairly ominous, dispute.

In the compromise, France gets practically all her concrete claims, but her pretensions to exclusive jurisdiction in Morocco are disallowed; Germany obtains full acceptance of her abstract championship of internationalism, but is denied all but the very smallest part in the actual administration of Morocco. One may fairly say that both the ideas of Germany and the policy of France have prevailed, with the important difference that France has renounced the monopolistic claims set up by Delcassé with the assent of Madrid and London, and has accepted a temporary but renewable trust as mandatory of the European Concert. Germany has made it plain that she must be consulted in Mediterranean matters, and has called a halt to limited agreements like that between France and England. On the other hand, the conference has shown that if the Powers admit the German principle of internationalism, they are disinclined to invite the practical aid of Germany in the Mediterranean. In fact, the most striking diplomatic result of the conference is the demonstration of the isolation of Berlin. The new friend, Russia, was as cold as the old ally, Italy, towards any plan that put Germany even indirectly in control of the police or the bank. Only Austria saved Germany from standing alone before united Europe.

Since Germany has gained all she contended for as a matter of principle, why does she appear to have suffered a rebuff? The reason must be found in the sadly mixed motives, the sudden shifts of ground, the wearisome delays that characterized all the actual negotiations of Germany before and during the Algeciras conference. Had the Kaiser made his altruistic intentions clear and unmistakable from the first, he might to-day claim an unclouded victory. Had he maintained his pose as the champion of the open door and the enemy of particularism as regards weak Powers, he would to-day be as unmistakably the hero of the play as poor M. Delcassé is, in retrospect, its villain. As a matter of fact, the position of Germany was from the first unhappily ambiguous. Professedly the tribune of Europe, Ger-

many fell under the unfortunate suspicion of taking up that policy of grab which France, by dismissing M. Delcassé and by consenting to the conference, had expressly disavowed.

Of course, anything like justice between nations is usually obtained in such tortuous ways. National motives are apt to be mixed. Yet it is clear that if the German Foreign Office had taken a passive attitude in the conference, any settlement whatever must have been hailed as a victory for German diplomacy, while no settlement was likely to have conceded more to France than she now gets. The honors are distinctly with M. Rouvier. His withdrawal of the extreme claims made by M. Delcassé, his frank, opportune, and moderate statement of the minimum programme of France, his patience under the ambiguous and obstructive policy of Germany, constitute an admirable example of straightforward, considerate, and enlightened diplomacy. Equally praiseworthy was the moderation of the French press—the better sort, we mean—throughout the controversy. Everywhere was shown a disposition to meet Germany, if possible, and to discountenance talk of war.

The general feeling that Germany has met with a check is exaggerated, perhaps, by a natural confusion between the diplomatic manners and the diplomatic aims of the Wilhelmstrasse. To do a disagreeable duty as disagreeably as possible is no royal road to popularity. It would be interesting, for example, to inquire how far the impression of German defeat is due merely to the bristling and masterful personality of Count Tattenbach. Such a temperament always gives the impression of intending more than it really intends. Yet it is fair to add that at no time has the German Government pushed the point of national prestige to perilous extremes. Retrospectively, the Kaiser and M. Delcassé must share a common regret that the conference was not called very promptly and conducted in a non-contentious spirit. M. Delcassé must see how little France had to fear from the appeal he combated so stubbornly, and the Kaiser must perceive how hopeless it always was to seek from Europe in council any admission of especial German prerogative in Morocco.

THE NEW MONT PELÉE.

FORT-DE-FRANCE, MARTINIQUE, March 11, 1906.

The better part of three years has elapsed since I last visited the great mountain whose name is still in the mouth of every inhabitant of this beautiful, even if desolate, isle of France. *Eh bien, le volcan?* It is the old inquiry which has now become almost sympathetic with the people, but which has lost none of its significance in consequence of the recent earthquake disturbances. On February 16 the capital city of the island saw thirty of its loosely constructed habitations marked out for repairs, heaps of débris stood in the place of former walls, and the affrighted people were camped in the *savane* which surrounds the noble statue of Josephine. Some two dozen or more earthquake tremors have been registered since that date, and nightfall still sees many of the less courageous departing for the *campagne*, where low wooden buildings, perched on breezy hilltops, place one, if not necessarily outside of the field of the seismic movements, at least beyond reach of the much-dreaded *raz de marée*. Naturally enough, Pelée is held largely responsible for the recent happenings, and the observations on the volcano that are at frequent intervals sent down from the observatory of Morne des Cadets, are eagerly scanned and studied. But these observations tell only that the mountain is "calm," or is "covered," or that it "disengages much vapor." Mont Pelée has, in fact, entered upon a period of repose, and not since June last has it given signs of a recrudescence of activity. It is true that its smoldering dome is still far from being a picture of quiet nature, but the luminous points have entirely disappeared, and one hears no more of that ominous rumbling and roaring which is so happily expressed by the French word *grondement*.

Pelée is to-day much less active than is Vesuvius, and it has again taken its place among the beautiful objects of nature. Vegetation is slowly but steadily creeping up its deeply rifted slopes, the desert sands have already largely disappeared beneath the new growth of tree-fern, grass, and moss; and even on the smouldering dome diminutive oases of green are being wrapped about the fuming fumeroles. It would be difficult to find a more enchanting view than that which overlooks this mountain from the Morne des Cadets. It is the Bay of Naples over again, both in mountain form and in color—lacking, of course, nearly everything that is indicative of man's activities, but exuberant in all that a bountiful tropical nature offers. The *grands bois* of Martinique, with their giant tree-ferns, bamboos, and broad-leaved cannas as the distinctive physiognomic vegetable types in a wilderness of melastomes, magnolias, cecropias, and figs still cover the rugged mountain slopes, and only here and there in the deep valleys have they yielded place to fields of cane or to planations of cacao and coffee. The forests are silent, perhaps more silent than they were before the cataclysm of Pelée, and only at rare intervals is the life within made known through the exquisite piping tones of the little bird that is here called the *siffleur de la montagne*.

Three years ago Pelée was a mountain of almost exactly the height, in its normal summit, of Vesuvius, but it was then capped by a giant obelisk of rock which carried its apex a full thousand feet higher. To-day this obelisk, except in jagged teeth that mark where it was implanted on top of the volcano, no longer exists, and, with its destruction, the geologist has noted the disappearance of one of the most remarkable features of the earth's surface. Vast blocks of rock, some of them hardly less large than the *cases* of the villagers who at one time looked up with awe to this stupendous monument of nature, lie scattered about in the wilderness of débris that helps to fill in the former crater-basin, and they read well the story of disruption and fall. I made the ascent of the volcano on the 27th of February, with the hope of being able to descend into the crater-basin and of studying these rock débris close at hand. Until now the Pelée tower had repelled direct scientific investigation, and the constitution of its rock-mass remained necessarily within the domain of hypothesis. To-day the fires of the mountain have been drawn, and approach is made possible.

I selected for my descent into the crater a position on the northwestern border, where the bounding-wall had been reduced to a height of perhaps not more than a hundred feet, and where the angle of slope hardly exceeded 65 or 70 degrees. A sharp wind swept over the knife-edge, which we were obliged to straddle, but with some caution we passed the line of first offence, and before long reached the crater-floor—the *rainure* of the French Scientific Commission. Here we were placed directly in face of the giant dome, which still carries at its summit the jagged remains of the former obelisk. The day, unfortunately, was not so favorable as one might have wished for. Clouds passed and repassed in seemingly endless masses, and only once did the dome disclose itself in its entirety. But that one occasion revealed a splendid spectacle—the giant mound of rock-débris, here and there scarred by lines or ridges of solid lava, rising to a height of about 500 feet, and from its sides puffing out noiseless streams of heated and sulphurous vapors. Carefully measuring the stability of the loose-lying débris, we slowly crawled up the steep slope of the dome; my associate, at whose *habitation* I had passed the fateful night of August 30, 1902, giving me the advantage of his personal guidance. He had attempted this same ascent a few weeks earlier. We reached a position on the dome which clearly overlooked the bounding-wall of the crater, and beyond which only bad counsel would have dictated further progress. This was the limit of our journey.

I had attained the object of my mission—the determination of the structure of the rock-mass which formed the great tower of the volcano. A vast andesitic block, as solid and compact as the more ancient masses which constitute the core of the island of Martinique, it gives evidence of having been heaved up from the deep interior in its present condition, firm and rigid—a monument of the Titanic force of the awakening volcano.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

NAPOLEON, KING OF ELBA.

PARIS, March 14, 1906.

M. Paul Gruyer has just published a very fine volume, illustrated with engravings, on a subject which cannot fail to draw attention—'Napoleon, King of the Island of Elba.' We see on the first page a fine reproduction of the well-known picture by Paul Delaroche of Napoleon at Fontainebleau, before his departure for the Island of Elba. The Emperor is sitting in a chair, bareheaded, with his high boots still

on, looking tired, grave, full of dark thoughts; his sword lies beside him on a table. He wears his gray coat, already legendary, without any decoration.

On the 11th of April, 1814, it was agreed, in Article III. of the treaty signed in Paris with the approbation of the Provisional Government of France—by the plenipotentiaries of the Allies, and by Caulaincourt and Marshal Ney for Napoleon—that the Island of Elba, "chosen by Napoleon as his place of residence, should form, during his lifetime, a separate principality, which he would possess in full sovereignty and ownership." An income of two millions, inscribed in the Grand Livre of France, was assigned him. The King of Elba was to receive all the honors due to crowned heads, but he ceased to be a French citizen. On the 20th of April, after the famous adieux to the Garde in the court, Napoleon left Fontainebleau in a post-chaise. All the incidents of his journey are well known: he was accompanied by a number of people, among them four commissioners of the armies of the Allies—an Austrian General Kohler, the Russian General Shuvaloff, the Prussian General Waldburg-Truchsess, the English Colonel Sir Neil Campbell. The Emperor went aboard the *Undaunted* at Saint-Raphaël, the very place where he had disembarked fifteen years before, on his return from Egypt. He landed at Porto Ferrajo in the island where he was to remain till the 15th of February, 1815.

"What is," asks M. Gruyer, "and what was the Island of Elba, and what did the Emperor do there during these ten months? What was the existence of the man who was yesterday at the summit of the Occidental world, and in twenty-four hours had become something like the sovereign of the Val d'Andorre or of San Marino?" Napoleon's sojourn on the Island of Elba is a period which has never much detained historians; they have been more occupied with the events which were taking place at the time in France. "The Island of Elba," says M. Gruyer, "has remained a mere name. It evokes no idea, no precise image, like Saint Helena and Corsica, which call up Hudson Lowe and the familiar house at Ajaccio." M. Gruyer had the curiosity to visit Elba. When he arrived there, in this *terra incognita*, he imagined he should find some bare rock fronting the sea, and was surprised to find a varied and picturesque surface. Civilization has not much affected it, and he had the pleasure of viewing the same houses, the same rocks, which Napoleon had often seen. Even the Italians seldom visit Elba, though the distance from Porto Vecchio or Leghorn is very short. Porto Ferrajo, where the traveller lands, was founded by Cosmo de' Medici in 1548; its bay is very fine, and resembles that of Naples. The first scream M. Gruyer heard on landing was that of a man who ran by his side: "Signor! la testa di Napoleone," and who conducted him to the church where, in an ebony coffin, he saw the bronze head of a dead Napoleon, a copy of the mask which Dr. Antommarchi took in plaster at Saint Helena after the death of the Emperor. The inhabitants of Elba pay annual honors to this tomb, with its bronze mask, on the 5th of May, the anniversary of the death. The coffin is placed on a catafalque surrounded by wax candles, and in the presence of the official authorities a solemn mass is said.

At the Town Hall is kept the flag which Napoleon adopted, white with a red band, on which are three bees. In the Council Room there is a copy of Gérard's fine portrait, sceptre in hand, a gold laurel crown on his head and an ermine mantle on his shoulders. In the library is found what remains of the Imperial Library—a motley collection, where, side by side with various scientific and military works, occur Montaigne, La Fontaine, 'Don Quixote,' Voltaire, the 'Cabinet des Fées'—forty volumes containing fables and legends.

Napoleon was received with much enthusiasm in the island. The inhabitants were proud to welcome him and to become his subjects. The Emperor landed in his green uniform, with white breeches; he wore the Legion of Honor and the Iron Crown of Italy. He had put on his "petit chapeau" the new cockade of Elba. Behind him were Gens. Bertrand and Drouot. A Te-Deum was sung in the church, and the Emperor had the Town Hall for his first residence. In his first conversation with the notable inhabitants, he astonished them by his acquaintance with all the resources of the island and its needs; he knew how much the salt tax yielded annually, how many fishing boats were employed; he was acquainted with the date of foundation of all the cities and villages, he was familiar with the topography, with the altitude of the mountains. At Fontainebleau he had before starting asked for all the official documents concerning the island, and had mastered them with the rapidity and concision to which he was used. He had studied all the maps and books concerning the island, and among others a 'Journey to the Island of Elba,' published in 1808 by Arsène Thiébaut. The day after his arrival he visited the iron mines, famous for the excellent quality of their ore. He made in turn a visit to all the communes, constantly accompanied by two chamberlains, two officers, a captain of gendarmerie, the subprefect Balbiani, whom he had appointed General-Intendant of the island; the mayor, and the presiding justice of Porto Ferrajo, by the faithful Bertrand and the English Commissioner Campbell. Everywhere he was received under rustic triumphal arches with showers of flowers. He examined with care all the forests. He rode ten hours a day without seeming to experience any fatigue. He chose for his residence a house which was called the Palace of the "Mulini." He had it rebuilt and enlarged, and was his own architect. The furniture was partly sent from the Palace of Piombino, which had belonged to his sister Eliza. There are in M. Gruyer's volume two interesting photographs, one of the garden and the terrace of the Mulini, with their fine view over the sea; another of the great drawing-room, now entirely empty.

Napoleon was allowed to keep a small detachment of his Guard. The old soldiers joined him in the island; he added to their number a battalion of Corsicans, and after a short time had a little troop of 1,592 men, which did not seem alarming to the Powers that had seen him at the head of great armies. He had besides a small fleet. He had about four millions of francs when he started from Fontainebleau; the French Government was to ensure him an income of two millions of francs. With these resources he had to cover all the expenses of the administration of his small kingdom. He entered on his new rôle with his usual ardor; issued decree after decree, created establishments of all sorts, improved the coast trade, uniformed his soldiers, fortified the coast, gave an entirely new life to the sleepy little island. His activity was partly instinctive and natural; partly it was a mask with which he covered further designs. He wished to create in the government of the Bourbons and the Allied Powers the belief that he had really abdicated, had renounced his dreams of ambition, and had retired to his little island to live in peace and quietness.

There was a witness who kept a constant eye on him, and who alone remained to watch the formidable exile, viz., Col. Campbell, the English commissioner, who had fought in Portugal and Spain under Wellington. He fulfilled his mission as a gentleman, but took daily notes of all he saw. Napoleon heard at Elba the news of the death of Josephine; he was expecting day after day Marie Louise, but she did not appear. He had a visit from the Countess Walewska, whom he had first known in Poland, who had borne him a son and had joined him at Fontainebleau. She was at first taken for Napoleon's wife. She gave him news of the Empress. She could stay but a short time, and, crossing the island on horseback during a gale, she reëmbarked for Italy at Porto Longone. Soon afterwards arrived at the same port his sister Pauline Borghese. While she was with him he learned that Talleyrand had proposed to the members of the Congress of Vienna to transport Napoleon to a safer place than Elba. Several islands of the Atlantic Ocean were mentioned, among them Saint Helena. The Emperor affected not to be moved by the alarming information he received from different quarters. "Europe," said he, "will not do such a thing. From the point of view of England especially, Saint Helena above all is impossible. I should be too near India. And, after all, I can defend myself here for two years." In reality he was alarmed. An unknown visitor, who stayed only two hours with him, seems to have precipitated the crisis. Napoleon was afraid of being kidnapped or even assassinated; he received warning and confidential letters from many sources; he became very restless. M. Gruyer enters into the most minute account of the life he led, going from place to place incessantly, occupied with a thousand details, receiving visits, trying to keep his little army disciplined, and to get recruits in the place of the old soldiers who were leaving him.

There can be no doubt that the idea of a return to France never left him for a moment; he had kept the secret to himself from the day when he left Fontainebleau, but it became more and more imperious in the solitude of Elba. The agitation in which he lived was factitious; his little government of Elba was a mere comedy. He was determined to try fortune once more. The return from Elba is well known; history has followed Napoleon from the day when he landed with his small troop on the French coast at Antibes to the battlefield of Waterloo, and to the island of Saint Helena.

M. Gruyer's volume is a very interesting

contribution to Napoleonic literature. It has been published with much care by Hachette, and its illustrations bring vividly before the reader the incidents of Napoleon's brief sojourn in the lonely little island of the Mediterranean.

Correspondence.

MEYER'S WORK ON RAILWAY RATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the review of Prof. Hugo R. Meyer's book on Government Regulation of Railway Rates in the issue of the *Nation* for March 8, may I call the attention of your readers to a review of the same book in the January-February number of the *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* by Dr. Alfred v. d. Leyen, a recognized authority upon the subject of transportation, who has written much concerning both American and German railways? This review, which is devoted mainly to a consideration of the portion of the book relating to Germany, shows that Professor Meyer's treatment, under cover of an apparent erudition, is quite superficial, and that he is in many places guilty either of deliberate misrepresentation or of inexcusable ignorance. I feel constrained to call attention to this review because the book has been widely read in railroad circles, and has been accepted as a true statement by those who are either unable or unwilling to test its assertions by an investigation of the facts.

Frank Haigh Dixon.

Hanover, N. H., March 27, 1906.

POOR RICHARD'S POETRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I add a postscript to my letter in the *Nation* for March 22?

A good deal of the poetry printed in Poor Richard's earlier almanacs was derived from 'Witts Recreations,' a humorous miscellany published in London in 1640, and reprinted, under the title of 'Facetiae,' in London in 1817. This volume accounts for ten pieces of verse in each of the first two almanacs, for six pieces in the issue for 1736, for the two "fantasticks" set down for September and October, 1738, and for a dozen of the shorter epigrams printed between 1735 and 1746. In some cases the space which the almanac devoted to poetry ("on the heads of the months") was filled by combining two four-line epigrams, not always on closely related subjects. Examples may be seen in the verses for August and November, 1734, and for August and September, 1736.

Another volume which ought to be mentioned here is 'A Collection of Epigrams,' printed for J. Walthoe, second edition, London, 1735. This collection seems to have supplied Poor Richard with about twenty pieces of verse (eight for 1737, five for 1738, two for 1741, and three couplets for 1739). And perhaps it is worth while to add that the verses for March, 1737, and January, 1739, occur in 'The Muses Choice: or The Merry Fellow,' London, 1754.

W. P. Mustard.

Haverford, Pa., March 29, 1906.

Notes.

One of the features of the International Exposition to be held at Milan next autumn will be the meeting of the first Historical Congress of the Italian Risorgimento, which has been organized under the direction of the most eminent historical authors and students in Italy. The congress will open on November 1, and, besides sessions at which papers and discussions will be in order, there will be an exhibition, chronologically arranged, of documents, letters, and memorials of all kinds concerning the Risorgimento—the period, that is, between 1796 and 1870. Committees have been appointed for each section of Italy and for France, England, Germany, and the United States. The delegate for the United States is Mr. William Roscoe Thayer, who will be glad to communicate with any persons who may have documentary or other material which they may be willing to lend to the congress. His address is No. 8 Berkeley Street, Cambridge, Mass.

A Life of Sir Henry Irving, by Bram Stoker, is to appear in the autumn with Macmillan's imprint. Other announcements by this firm are a Life of Lord Leighton, in two volumes, by Mrs. Russell Barrington; a Life of Walter Crane; and 'Vacation Rambles in London,' by E. V. Lucas.

We welcome the seventh issue of Mr. James Clegg's handy and valuable 'International Directory of Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual,' whose further description of itself merits quotation *in extenso:* "Including lists of the Public Libraries of the World, Publishers, Book Collectors, Learned Societies and Institutions, Universities and Colleges; also, Bibliographies of Book and Library Catalogues, Concordances, Bookplates, etc., etc." And if we proceed to analyze the etcetera, we must add as novelties in the present triennial revision Bookbinders in London and the Provinces; Record and Literary Searchers, Translators, and Indexers; Colonial and Foreign Learned and Scientific Societies; Literary Agents; South African Public Schools; and American Educational Institutions. But we can assure our readers that there is much more beside for one who carefully examines this compact thesaurus. It should be in every public library. Mr. Clegg's address is the Aldine Press, Rochdale, England.

Two more volumes have just appeared in the charming series of "Les Classiques Français" (Dent-Putnam). One is George Sand's 'Mare au Diable,' the other a selection from Sainte-Beuve's "Lundis," 'Profils Anglais'—the first profile being of Franklin, and the others of Mary Stuart, Gibbon, Chesterfield, and Cowper; solid entertainment. Each volume has the author's portrait, a biography with appreciations, and a choice bibliography. In Sainte-Beuve's, one may read a French translation of Wordsworth's "Scorn not the Sonnet."

Mr. Eustace Ball, a writer by no means inexperienced in this sort of composition, has issued a small guidebook to Rome (London: Black; New York: Macmillan), about which the most that can be said is that it is perhaps no worse than some others of the same sort. The author had apparently several of the best-known guidebooks in English open before him, and has drawn upon them, but to no useful issue. No one ought to write even briefly upon the remains of ancient Rome who must pick up miscellaneous scraps of information from various, and often discordant, tertiary authorities, and trust to luck about his reconstruction of them. The result is sure to be an incongruous and misleading conglomeration, and to abound in blunders that are sometimes ludicrous. The publishers are perhaps responsible for inserting a plan of the Forum which is labelled as up to date (1904), but is merely a slight modification of J. H. Middleton's plan, and even leaves the Comitium and the Basilica Æmilia still buried.

No two artists could well be more unlike, either in person or in production, than the subjects of two of the latest of the Knackfuss "Künstler-Monographien," Anselm Feuerbach and Constantin Meunier (Lemcke & Buechner). Feuerbach never tired of painting his own handsome face, and, from the pretty boy of 1846 to the splendid swell of 1878, it is always the romantic ideal of an artist that he represents. Of Meunier we have only photographs vividly presenting the home-spun ugliness of an elderly workingman. Yet the romantically beautiful Feuerbach was that most tiresome of created beings, a German classicist; the plain Belgian artisan was a true Romanticist of great individuality and power. To look over the plates of Feuerbach's pictures and the preliminary studies for them is be appalled at the result of the misapplication of so much knowledge; to glance at the cuts after Meunier's sculpture is almost to wonder, at first, whether any academic knowledge is necessary to an artist of native force. Of course the truth is that Meunier's work is much more learned than it looks, and that Feuerbach's learning is much less sufficient than it seems. The remedy for any revolutionary feeling into which one may be betrayed is a course of the old masters or of the greatest Frenchmen.

E. B. Greenshields has made an oddly composite book of 'Landscape Painting and Modern Dutch Artists,' which is published by the Baker-Taylor Co. It begins with a brief history of landscape painting, goes on with a discussion of the theories on art of various artists and critics, and then, at page 127, comes to the real business of the book, which is a presentation of the work of seven Dutch painters, Bosboom, Israels, Mauve, the three Marises, and Weissenbruch. The gist of the first part is the elaborate proof of what, at this day, seems hardly worth proving, viz., that art should be "subjective." The result of the method is to give the impression that not only are these Dutchmen fine painters, but that they are the heirs of the ages, for whom the world has been waiting—the first truly great landscape artists. Fine painters they are, but there were heroes before Agamemnon.

'Bruges and West Flanders' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) is one of the typical books of travel, illustrated in colors, which modern methods of color-printing have made common. The text, by G. W. T. Omond, accompanies thirty-seven water-colors by A. Forestier, interesting in subject, and sound, if not distinguished, in drawing; but, whether

through the fault of the artist or of the process of reproduction, rather violent and sometimes quite inharmonious in color. In especial there is a prevalent raw purple which we find most distressing.

Prescott F. Hall's 'Immigration' (Henry Holt) is the first of a proposed series of volumes dealing with the political and economic problems of the day, which is to be brought out under the editorial direction of R. C. Ringwalt. The author is secretary of an association formed to advocate the restriction of immigration. It was time for a new book upon this subject to appear, since Mayo-Smith's treatise is already out of date and represents a point of view long outgrown. Mr. Hall has made a careful study of a mass of materials, and has produced a readable work containing a large amount of valuable information. He advocates various additional restrictions upon immigration, but does not take a narrow or illiberal attitude towards the question. Especially to be commended, is the discussion of the racial effects of immigration. The book would make an even more favorable impression if the footnotes did not sometimes indicate a lack of discrimination in the use of materials. It may be accepted, however, as a trustworthy general guide; and to college debating societies—which, we suspect, the editor of the series has especially in mind—it should prove a godsend.

'Studies in American Trade Unionism' (Henry Holt), edited by Professors Hollander and Barnett, is a volume of essays by members of the seminary of economics of Johns Hopkins University. The several papers deal with the organization, government, finances, and policies of leading labor unions, and conclude with an essay upon the Knights of Labor and the American Federation of Labor. They are based, in considerable part, upon original researches made possible by a private gift of money and a grant from the Carnegie Institution. Though confined to particular features of particular trade unions, the data dealt with are comprehensive and typical; so that the result is a substantial contribution to our knowledge of trade-union structure and functions, even though the discoveries of the investigators do not always have the charm of novelty. The preface, by Professor Hollander, is devoted largely to the consideration of economic method, in which the only thing that calls for criticism is his apparent conviction of the importance and necessity of such a discussion. Whatever may or may not have been true some twenty years ago, it seems unnecessary to-day to remind us that safe theorizing in matters economic must be based upon "qualitative data," amassed as deliberately and laboriously as chemical or physical data are collected by the natural scientist. It is needless also to dwell upon the "unwholesome relation which existed between political economy and the laboring class for the first three-quarters of the nineteenth century." However, if any of our readers need reassurance upon either of these points, they will find comfort in the excellent studies brought together in this volume.

Dr. Alfred A. Woodhull's 'Personal Hygiene' (John Wiley & Sons) contains within 200 pages the substance of lectures on personal hygiene given at Princeton "in the last few years." It embodies in the first place a short but practical and sufficient account of the anatomy and physiology of the different organs and functions of the body, and then considers, one by one, the reasons that should guide us in exercise, in food, in bathing, in our choice of clothing, and in reference to stimulants and narcotics. The position which the writer takes in reference to these questions is temperate and sensible, and while total-abstinence reformers will not find support for their extreme position, both they and all moderate-minded people cannot fail to be pleased to note in the author's arguments a decided leaning toward pronounced temperance.

In the 300 pages of Dr. Edward Curtis's 'Nature and Health' (Henry Holt & Co.) very interesting subjects are taken up. The reason why we should ventilate our houses, and the arguments for and against open windows at night; the chemical principles and the social considerations that should guide us in the choice of food and in the manner of serving it; the alcohol and tobacco question; the risks to which we are exposed as regards our sight and hearing; how we should keep the body and mind properly exercised without fatigue; even the problems of living and dying, and many other questions of like sort, are all touched upon in a practical fashion. The style of the writing is easy and unconventional, possibly at times a little too colloquial.

A dictionary is a book which does not lend itself to brief reviewing, and it is perhaps enough to say that 'Black's Medical Dictionary' (Macmillan) is well executed, and that the illustrations are interesting and well chosen, at least from the physician's point of view. It and the two foregoing works are all unusually good presentations of practical medicine for those who wish to be their own physicians. Black's Dictionary, indeed, goes further than this, and furnishes good food for many a practitioner or studious layman.

The Essex Institute of Salem, Mass., has recently published a valuable monograph on the 'Physical Geography, Geology, Mineralogy and Paleontology of Essex County, Massachusetts,' the result of twelve years of patient work by John Henry Sears, curator at the Peabody Museum, in Salem; a quarto of 417 pages, with many plates and figures, and a geological map. The rocks are elaborately described according to modern petrographic methods, and their intricate structure is unravelled. Glacial geology is also treated in detail, and a discussion of postglacial subsidence is presented, with the conclusion that it is still progressing at the rate of about two feet in a century. Although fossils are rare in this district, careful search has found some specimens in the ancient (Cambrian) rocks of Nahant and in the postglacial (Leda) clays at various points. The list of minerals includes over 100 kinds.

The learned world has waited forty-five years for the appearance of the second volume of the Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts in the Bodleian Library. The first volume, by Aufrecht, did not contain all the titles (some being accidentally omitted) of the manuscripts then in the library, so that a nucleus of material for the second volume was at hand even before the first volume was published. In the meantime there have been many accessions, and the present volume, begun by Professor Winternitz and completed by Mr. Arthur Keith ('Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS. in the Bodleian Library,' Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), makes good the deficiencies of the first volume and continues the work to date. Among new acquisitions are the famous Bower MS. and the Weber Fragments (of the fifth century), several MSS. of the tenth and eleventh centuries, and nearly five hundred MSS. of the Hultzsch collection. The importance of the present volume will therefore be apparent to all Indic scholars. It should be in every public and university library. The imprint of the Clarendon Press is a guarantee of the care with which the work has been done, and the excellence of its typography.

Dr. Paul Cohn of the Industrial Museum in Vienna, who visited this country in 1904 as a member of the International Jury of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, and prepared an important report to the Austrian Handelsministerium on the Chemical Industries at that Exposition, has collected his observations on American educational affairs in a pamphlet, 'Das Bildungswesen in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika' (Vienna: Hölder). The bulk of his notes is devoted to the colleges and universities, and gives as clear a view of the difference in administration and organization of the various kinds of our higher educational institutions as could well be expected in the small compass of forty-seven pages. The author has evidently made very careful studies, and might well have filled a much larger volume to advantage, had he been so inclined. Especially do the introductory and concluding chapters, on "The Creation of the American Nation" and on "The Future of the American Nation," seem too condensed. The latter contains a much-needed warning to "Europeans who pay a short visit to the United States and want to see and study everything on the run, and who turn up their noses at everything because everything is not arranged according to European notions, which they regard as 'higher.'" A well-made index—not a common thing in a German book of this size—enhances its value as a book of reference.

The report of the Geographical Society of Berne for the year 1903-04 contains an account by Dr. W. Volz of his impressions of the Sandwich Islands, together with some facts in regard to the fauna and flora. Other articles are by Dr. M. Groll on the Oeschinensee, a Swiss mountain lake, and an interesting paper on weather prophets by Prof. E. Brückner. The earliest whom he mentions were the priests of Apollo at Delphi, who for money would foretell the weather at any required time. The Roman astrological forecast, in which Cicero, Virgil, and Tacitus were believers, was obtained by dividing the year by seven, the remainder indicating the planet which ruled the weather for that year. The planet for 1906 is Venus, whose characteristics are an excess of moisture and heat. In treating of modern weather prophets, Brückner confines himself to the Germans, and especially to the late Rudolf Falb.

The first number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for the present year opens with

the route notes of an expedition for the geologic study of the Bolivian Andes headed by Prof. G. Steinmann. Among the places of interest visited in the heart of the mountains was Cochabamba, a flourishing city of 30,000 inhabitants, the centre of a rich and well-cultivated region, the granary of the land. Rittmeister Isachsen summarizes, in a series of quotations from the reports of Arctic explorers, beginning with our Capt. Hall of the *Polaris*, 1871-3, the condition of the palæocrystic ice; and concludes that the existence of glaciered land to the north of Greenland and America is highly improbable. Some of the results of an investigation of the four atmospheric strata of the Atlantic, a continuation of the work of the Prince of Monaco by Professor Hergesell, are given by the editor, Professor Supan. The departure is chronicled of Dr. Sven Hedin on his new expedition, the expense of which is borne by King Oscar, E. Nobel, and others. After an examination of the deserts of Eastern Persia, he will visit the sources of the Indus and Brahmaputra Rivers, and from thence go to the great lake region of central Tibet. A German scientific expedition has sailed in the steamer *Planet* to determine, among other things, the temperature and salinity of the waters of the Bismarck-Archipelago, as well as to analyze the gases suspended in the sea-water and to study the atmospheric strata.

Prof. Edward G. Bourne, chairman of the Historical Manuscripts Commission of the American Historical Association; Mr. Worthington C. Ford, of the Library of Congress; and Dr. J. Franklin Jameson of the Carnegie Institution, have issued jointly a four-page leaflet of suggestions respecting the transcription and printing of historical manuscripts. The suggestions are eminently sensible, and follow as a rule the accepted practice of the best modern editors. The leaflet should be carefully studied by all whose duty or pleasure it is to prepare historical documents for the press.

The American Committee of the Egypt Exploration Fund, which was constituted in 1902 upon the discontinuance of the long-standing relation between the Fund and its active representative in this country, has now resigned, and, after July 31, 1906, the London Committee will itself assume direct control of the work of the Fund in the United States. Mr. Edward R. Warren and Miss Grace I. Gay, who will serve respectively as treasurer and secretary for America, will continue the Boston office of the Fund in the Pierce Building, Copley Square.

The University of Aberdeen has issued invitations to certain academic bodies to send delegates to her celebration next September of the happy completion of her fourth century of life. The older of the colleges that now form the single university was founded in 1494; but the birthday party was postponed till it could be held in the new academic buildings, which are now completed. The precise date has not yet been fixed, apparently in expectation of adjusting it to accord with the convenience of King Edward, whose presence at the festival is hoped for.

The authorities of the Royal Library in Berlin, of which Professor Harnack is now the head, have appointed a commission, consisting of recognized experts in the department of incunabula, or imprints of the fifteenth century (the total number of which is estimated to be about 30,000), in order to furnish an exhaustive historical and literary description of these precious publications, and thus eventually prepare a *Gesamtkatalog*. It is estimated that the work will take about ten years, and that the total cost will be nearly 100,000 marks. For the first year's work 12,000 marks has been appropriated.

The town of Montmorency in France has opened an international subscription towards erecting there a statue to J. J. Rousseau. A century and a half ago this genius was composing on the spot his masterpieces, the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' the 'Contrat Social,' and 'Émile'; and this fact, with the ineffaceable memories of the Hermitage of Mme. d'Houdetot, Mme. d'Épinay, and the Maréchale de Luxembourg, will forever make Montmorency a literary and political Mecca. Subscriptions of any size may be addressed to M. le Receveur Municipal de Montmorency.

Announcement is made of a meeting commemorative of Paul Laurence Dunbar, the well-known colored poet, lately deceased, in the vestry of the Rev. Dr. Hale's church in Boston next Sunday. Col. Higginson will read some of Dunbar's short poems; some of his best songs will be sung; and there will be addresses. Contributions will be solicited for a modest memorial to be erected at the poet's grave in Dayton, Ohio.

—The *Atlantic* is particularly strong this month in reform literature, taking the term in its better meaning, and not in the sense of the yellow journalist. Willard G. Parsons pleads for more definite aims in education, and especially for the rescue of cultural courses of study from would-be scientific methods, which are appropriate only to vocational courses. Mrs. Justine Bayard Ward writes of the movement back towards the Gregorian Chant as the appropriate form of church music, confining herself chiefly to the music of the Catholic Church, where the movement has the earnest support of the Pope. Her chief argument is that appropriate church music must pass the test not only of its beauty as music, but also of its capacity to weld harmoniously with the spirit of prayer. From this point of view, she holds, the modern forms, with all their beauty simply as music, are far inferior to the Gregorian. George W. Alger presents the necessity for reform in the substance and methods of the criminal law, if it is to win the respect of the masses and answer present social needs. He does not strengthen a good argument, however, by attributing lynching almost wholly to disgust with the non-enforcement of the law against murderers, since lynching is and has been most prevalent in a class of cases in which the law would work with all due speed if left to itself. In fact, the only great danger in such cases would be that the law would proceed too swiftly to ensure proper identification and proof of guilt. In reviewing a group of books on the Far East, John W. Foster makes use of the occasion to plead for justice in our dealings with China, while William S. Rossiter of the Census Bureau asks for reform in the publication and distribution of public documents. Alexander D. Noyes writes of railway securities as an investment, and here, too, we have an incidental plea for reform, in the matter of publicity of accounts on the part of enterprises appealing to outside investors. Four short stories, three poems, and a few miscellaneous topics save the predominant note from danger of monotony.

—The *Century* opens with the hitherto unpublished narrative by Lady De Lancey of her experiences during the last days of the life of her husband, Col. Sir William Howe De Lancey, who was mortally wounded in the battle of Waterloo. In 1825 the manuscript was shown to Scott, who said that he had never read anything which affected his feelings so strongly. Dickens read it in 1841, and referred to it as an astonishing and tremendous account, the perusal of which constituted an epoch in his life. The narrative is introduced by the comments of Scott and Dickens, contained in letters written to Capt. Basil Hall, Lady De Lancey's brother. The harrowing features of the account, however, are personal, and involve no general description of the horrors of the battlefield. It is hard to see that the reproduction of Romney's painting of Lady Hamilton as a Bacchante illustrates the sad narrative in any fitting way, notwithstanding such mention of Lady Hamilton as it contains. Christian Brinton contributes a short paper on Constantin Meunier, the sculptor of the laborer, with a half-dozen reproductions. Mr. Bryan's manifold energy attempts, in four pages of space, to reconcile the individual and the socialist, as two workers who are both striving for the good of society and may each have something of value to contribute.

—*Harper's* opens with another English paper by Mr. Howells, an account of a visit to Great and Little Brington, famous as the residence of the Washington family after the vicissitudes of the civil war had driven them from Sulgrave. The science article of the month, by Robert Kennedy Duncan, borders a little on the sensational in setting within very narrow limits, about nineteen years hence, the date when the starvation of the human race is to begin, provided some new source of nitrogen for fertilizing purposes is not discovered in the meanwhile to take the place of the saltpetre beds of Chili, then to be depleted. But, of course, there is hope left, as nitrogen-fixing microbes innumerable are waiting for the job, and the raw material immerses the whole earth at the rate of about 33,880 tons over each acre. The Senate may as well go on with the Rate bill discussion, and there may even be time to revise the tariff before the nitrogen supply is wholly exhausted. Professor Lounsbury comes to the defence of usage against the pedants again, this time in behalf of the very common employment of the present tense with future significance, and of a direct object with a passive verb. An extremely interesting bit of biography is given by two ladies who for eight years, 1889-1897, kept house for Herbert Spencer, and have felt disconcerted that all that has been said of him comes either from great men who care only for his philosophy, or little men who can see only his quaint peculiarities. A youthful disappointment in love, lingering still after fifty years, is one of the incidents related, and will doubtless serve as a basis for much

theorizing as to the subsequent course of his life.

—In *Scribner's*, Mr. Brownell's appreciation of Cooper challenges special attention. Cooper's early environment rendered his literature inevitably unliterary. It was perhaps even a piece of good fortune that he did not know the meaning and value of literary art, for he was thus left unhampered by a consciousness of his artistic deficiency. No writer of one-tenth his ability would to-day commit his faults, but the vitality and largeness of his conceptions triumph over all defects. The "stock" Indian generally supposed to derive from Cooper, is not Cooper's at all. His Red Men are at once Indian to the core, and thoroughly individualized as well. A whole section is devoted to a spirited defence of Cooper's women against the shafts of Professor Lounsbury, "who is the wittiest of writers, and, in consequence, a little at the mercy of a master faculty." As to the phenomena of nature, "nowhere else has prose rendered the woods and the sea so vividly, so splendidly, so adequately—and so simply." The assertion of critics that Balzac derives largely from Cooper is taken as striking evidence of the vivid reality of Cooper's characters, for nothing but a very energetic vitality could impose imitation on a romancer conspicuously noted for his originality. Again, Cooper was distinctively, but rationally, American. It is slander to attribute his democracy in Europe to pure idealism, and explain his disgust with demagogy on returning home, as due to an irascibility which changed his opinions. The discriminating American must naturally be an advocate of democracy when abroad, and a critic of it at home, as shown by the example of Lowell, for instance. That some of Cooper's work is inferior is willingly admitted, but his good work is so abundant and so good as fairly to earn negligibility for such exceptions as 'Mercedes of Castile' and 'The Ways of the Hour.' Mr. Brownell's paper, and the discussion which it has already set in motion, are likely to result in a distinct revival of interest in Cooper's works.

—Mr. Duncan Campbell Scott, whose stories and poems have given pleasure to many readers of *Scribner's Magazine*, now appears in the rôle of a historian. Besides acting as editor of the "Makers of Canada" Series (Morang), he contributes to this work its latest volume, the life of John Graves Simcoe. Sometimes a transition from the domain of pure literature to that of biography involves but a slight wrench, since so many lives are neither more nor less than a glorified romance. In the present case, however, the hero's career offers little of the picturesque. Simcoe did, indeed, see much active service during the Revolution, and won personal recognition from George III. by his activity in leading the Queen's Rangers; but there is nothing in his personal or professional experiences to make him stand out brilliantly from many soldiers and colonial administrators of his time. For example, he possesses neither the individual interest nor the historical importance of Lord Dorchester, with whom his views clashed on more than one occasion. Here, as Mr. Scott points out, fortune was unkind, not that Simcoe failed to reach Dorchester's eminence (for that is a separate question), but that, like his father before him, circumstances prevented him from realizing public expectation. With health impaired by the hardships of guerrilla warfare, he came to Upper Canada as its first governor under the Act of 1791. His chief function during the next five years was to organize according to the terms of recent legislation a region whose inhabitants were drawn largely from the stern and unbending Loyalists of New York. Simcoe, as a Tory of somewhat more pronounced views than Lord Eldon, enjoyed the opportunity thus afforded him of guiding Upper Canada into the paths of conservatism. Gifted with excellent parts, he added thoroughness and geniality to his other qualifications for a post which imposed considerable responsibilities. *Non tibi sed patriæ* was the self-effacing motto of his family, and Mr. Scott considers that he lived up to this lofty sentiment by accepting an office which made heavy demands upon his health while at the same time retarding his promotion in the army. Simcoe's limitations as a colonial governor are to be found in his lack of sympathy for democratic aspirations, and in a stubbornness which sometimes degenerated into unworthy suspicion of his opponents. The crisis of 1793 disclosed the nature of his trials more clearly than they are illustrated by any other episode of his career in Canada. Considering that his part of the British dominions was certain to be attacked by his old foes, the Americans, he took the most active measures for the defence of the frontier, and probably would have welcomed a brush with Wayne. At the same time, his official letters show how inferior he was to Dorchester in control of temper and in power to take a broad view of the problem. This lucid and well-ordered sketch by Mr. Scott exhibits a sturdy and active Briton whose resentments were seldom kindled save by those whom he looked upon as enemies of his king, his church and his nation.

—One of the latest publications of the British Academy is Dr. F. J. Haverfield's 'Romanization of Roman Britain' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). The author is the leading epigraphist of the United Kingdom; and it is on archæological data, not on considerations suggested by law or philology, that he bases the results of this paper. According to most English writers the Romans remained as distinct from the Britons as the modern English from the Indians. They left them almost as Celtic as they had found them. Dr. Haverfield maintains, on the contrary, that, in the south and east at any rate, Britain shared the fortunes of the other western provinces. Before the age of Constantine, Romanization had obliterated the differences between conquerors and conquered in material civilization, in politics, and in language. Relying on the evidence of extant remains—those at Silchester for instance—Dr. Haverfield points out that the public buildings in the civilian area, the private houses, the decorations and household furniture were almost always on the Italian pattern. Art, it is true, shows survivals of Celtic traditions, notably in the New Forest urns and the Castor ware from the banks of the Nen. But, in spite of exceptions, Dr. Haverfield holds that the rule stands that the external fabric of life was Roman. He thinks that this was true also of the legal and economic framework. The province must have been made up of Roman municipalities, of imperial estates, and, most numerous of all, of tribal "civitates" constituted on Roman lines. Again, he shows reason for believing that Latin was spoken in the towns not only by the upper classes, but, judging from the Silchester graffiti, by the lower classes as well. Possibly, too, it may have been the language of the rich in the country districts. While he thus lays stress on the Romanization of Britain, Dr. Haverfield denies that there, any more than in other provinces, it uniformly and at once destroyed all traces of national sentiments and fashions. Under the superimposed layer of Roman culture there must have remained, at least in the remoter districts, a native element which, if not actually Celtic, was capable of atavistic reversion. The departure of the legions was followed not only by an English invasion, but, in the military areas, in Cornwall and Devon, in Wales and the North, by a Celtic revival.

"SALLY."

The Dissociation of a Personality: A Biographical Study in Abnormal Psychology. By Dr. Morton Prince. Longmans, Green & Co. 1906. Pp. x, 569.

In the scientific study of abnormal psychology, in which France was the first to take the lead, she is now being outstripped by America, as regards both the intrinsic interest of the cases observed and the manner in which their observation is recorded. A year or two ago Drs. Sidis and Goodhart described the strange case of "Mr. Hanna," which stands alone in the completeness of the amnesia it exhibited, and in the wealth of suggestion it contained for psychologists, moralists, and philosophers in general (cf. *Nation*, No. 2067). And now Dr. Prince regales us with the full biography of the "Beauchamp" family, of which he had already published a fascinating but somewhat tantalizing sketch five years ago, in the Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research (Part 40). The present work is intended as a preparation for a more technical and theoretic study yet to come of the problems of abnormal psychology (for the purpose of furthering which we are glad to note that Dr. Prince and Dr. Sidis are also establishing a special journal); but it is complete in itself, well written, and, despite its length and some little repetition, of absorbing interest, even to such as usually confine their reading to lighter literature. But even those who take up Dr. Prince's book in this spirit will find the fortunes of the "Beauchamp family" a first-rate romance of the "detective novel" order, whose interest clusters round the search for "the real Miss Beauchamp," and the question, "Who was Sally?"; and we can assure them that the secret of the first is well kept to the end, while the problems presented by the latter will probably exercise psychologists for years to come.

"The Beauchamp family," it is now high time to explain, was a group of secondary personalities into which the original "Miss Christine L. Beauchamp" was dissolved in 1893, as a consequence of a severe nervous

shock. As finally added up by Dr. Prince (p. 465), their total number amounted to no less than sixteen, all occupying, or inherent in, the same body, and coming to the fore as the vicissitudes of life compelled, or the ingenuities of experimentation evolved them. The chief actors, however, in the dramatic history of this very distracted family were only three, to wit, "B I," "the Saint," who came under Dr. Prince's care in 1898 as a pronounced neurasthenic; "B IV.," the irascible "Idiot," so called because she awoke in 1899 with no knowledge of the past six years; and "B III," the irresponsible but continuously conscious and ever-entertaining "Sally."

The medical problem, of course, was to reconstitute the original "Miss Beauchamp" out of the fragments into which she had been shattered, and thereby to cure the neurasthenia of "B I." For both purposes hypnotism was resorted to. All the personalities could be hypnotized and given suggestions to remember each other's lives; and the theory was that if "B I" and "B IV" could be thus amalgamated, they would have so great a working majority of the psychic processes connected with "Miss Beauchamp's" body that "Sally" would be suppressed. That such methods are effective was proved by the Hanna case; but the results here were different. When "B I" and "B IV" were made aware of each other's nature and past, they were shocked and disgusted, and so far from agreeing joyfully to recombine, like "Mr. Hanna's" two selves, "B IV" resisted her own extinction and formed a coalition with "Sally," who also declined to be "squeezed" back into subconsciousness. How together they resisted Dr. Prince's curative suggestions, baffled him for years, and nearly defeated him, how they fought and tormented each other, and afflicted their common body, must be read in full in the chronicles of the "Beauchamp" family. It would not be fair to Dr. Prince to betray the secret of his triumph and the dénouement of his tale. Suffice it to say that in the end "the real Miss Beauchamp" was reintegrated, and that she now seems capable of maintaining herself so long as she is not subjected to too much emotional disturbance. When this happens, "B I" and "B IV" resume their interrupted lives and dissensions for a season, and "Sally" her pranks. Still, with "therapeutic suggestion at regular intervals to offset the wear and tear of her life," "the real Miss Beauchamp" can manage to exist in comfort. At the time of writing, Dr. Prince tells us, she had persisted without a relapse for six months.

Thus the restoration to existence and health of the real Miss Beauchamp has settled the medical aspect of the case. For the psychologist, however, "Sally" remains over as a unique and fascinating problem. Who or what was "Sally"? She came upon the scene when the hypnotized "B I" (= "B II") was allowed to rub her closed eyes until she got them open; and ever after was able periodically to control the organism until "the real Miss Beauchamp" was restored, when not even automatic signals could any longer be elicited from "Sally" to prove her continued existence. But though thus born into the external world so late as 1899, she at once claimed to have existed internally long before. Indeed, she professed to go back to "Miss Beauchamp's" earliest infancy, to have had memories and points of view distinct from those of the primary personality from the first, to have experienced and watched her whole life, though impotent to act, to be continuously and unsleepingly conscious of all that happened to the organism, to know everything that the other personalities did, and everything that all but "B IV" thought. She had, moreover, great power over them; she could "bring" either "B I" or "B IV"; she could instruct them by visions or afflict them with illusions and hallucinations (positive and negative), often of the most painful and terrifying sort (as, *e. g.*, the grisly story on p. 484), even when she was not in control of the organism.

Now these are large claims to credit on the *ipse dixit* of so enigmatical a being, and Dr. Prince shows commendable caution in his mode of presenting them. At the same time, they were verified so far as they could be tested, and Dr. Prince not only plainly shows that he himself was convinced of their substantial truth, but also succeeds in imparting this conviction to his reader. The latter's sympathies, indeed, will mostly be with "Sally." She was by far the most interesting member of the "Beauchamp" family, and her racy and unconventional letters and amusing pranks contribute vastly to the literary value of the book. Scientifically, also, "Sally," despite her dislike of "psychological rot," was a godsend; without her priceless information and co-operation, Dr. Prince would hardly have achieved success. Morally her self-sacrifice in assenting to her own extinction (p. 487-9) is pathetic, and her inability to resist "B IV's" bribes (pp. 499-501) most human. And so Dr. Prince's suppression of her seems a little cruel. His theory about her was that she was the subliminal or subconscious self, in the sense of "a co-acting mind of which the primary self is not aware," and a phenomenon of dissociation. We venture to think this far from proved. "Subconsciousness" is clearly nothing but a provisional label put upon perplexing facts. And as a subconsciousness "Sally's" case is certainly unique; it goes definitely beyond anything that has so far been indicated as to the existence of double consciousness and hypnotic selves (cf. 49). Nor can she be simply disposed of as pathological. It was no doubt a disturbance of the normal psychological structure that gave her an opening; but the evidence goes to show that, even when suppressed, she continues her latent existence, and manifests again whenever the pressure is relaxed. She must therefore be regarded as a normal constituent also of the *healthy* "Miss Beauchamp." And if it be true that the "abnormal" arises only out of the perversion of the "normal," does not the whole case strongly suggest that something analogous to "Sally" exists normally in all of us, though we become aware of our subconscious double only when a disturbance of equilibrium enables it to manifest itself through the various forms of automatism?

Psychologists, indeed, have yet to realize how entirely "normal" certain dissociations of personality really are. That our dream self, *e. g.*, is normally dissociated more or less from our waking self, is proved by our rapid forgetfulness of dreams. But even this is not all, for the dream-self does not *make* its own dreams; it is the victim of an unknown "maker of dreams" behind the scenes. And the "Beauchamp" case seems strongly to suggest that what came to the surface as "Sally" is really this mysterious dream subconsciousness. She confesses that she is conscious of the dreams of the other personalities, and that what she thinks they sometimes dream (p. 332); she has the power to produce dream-like visions and hallucinations in them even in their waking life. She herself, on the other hand, neither sleeps nor dreams (pp. 340, 376). Dreams, moreover, have in general just such a character as might be given them by a childish, sportive, teasing imp like "Sally," relieving the tedium of a pent-up existence by a fantastic play with the contents of our consciously or subconsciously noted memories. "Sally" does not, indeed, confess to quite so much, but this can hardly be regarded as untruthfulness, seeing that apparently she was never asked about her relation to the dreams of the other personalities. It is to be hoped, therefore, that when Dr. Prince discusses the theory of the case, he will consider the possibility that in "Sally" science has at last caught and dragged to light the dream-constructing imp that lurks in all of us. And whether or not Dr. Prince can solve the mystery of "Sally," only an incorrigible skeptic could doubt that he has shown the "Beauchamp" case to be in truth, as he says, "a perfect gold mine of abnormal psychology"—a mine, it may be added, likely to be fraught also with much enlightenment as to the normal functioning of the human soul.

HOLMAN HUNT'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.—II.

Pre-Raphaelitism and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. By W. Holman Hunt, O.M., D.C.L. With 40 Photogravure plates and other illustrations. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

It was while drawing in the British Museum that the acquaintance with Millais began, which soon ripened into a warm friendship, and was one of the completely fortunate events of Hunt's life, for no changes of fortune or differences in aim and style of work altered the affection of those two friends. Hunt gives a most attractive description of the talented young fellow whose success began at the early age of eight, when he carried off the medal of the Society of Arts. Millais's facile talent and luck were extraordinary; he had also every encouragement and aid of adoring parents to further in every way his progress. This especially struck Hunt as remarkable, his own experience of the family attitude towards art being exactly the reverse. The pages in which Hunt tells of his relations with the Millais family are perhaps the most charming in the book: the mother finding subjects for her son, making up costumes for his pictures, looking up questionable points for him; the father ready to sit for various figures in the same work in any disguise, the devoted and admiring elder brother and the delightful boy full of happy self-assurance and high spirits, never demurring at difficulties, because certain of success in the end, sure of getting his own way at home by affectionate flattery and bluster, however wayward and absolute he might be. This

friendship was of great importance and encouragement to Hunt at that juncture. The young men consulted each other about the pictures they were carrying on at home while they were still working in the Academy.

Illumination came from an unexpected channel. While Hunt was copying the "Blind Fiddler" of David Wilkie, a visitor, looking over his shoulder, remarked that Wilkie's system was to thoroughly finish each bit day by day without any dead coloring. The speaker, Claude Lorraine Nursey by name, had been a pupil of Wilkie's. He subsequently showed his own work, which he carried on in this manner. This proved to be of immense value to Hunt, for he recognized that the purity of color of the quattrocentist painters was due to the surety of touch which fresco-painting exacted. From that time he practised this method, his taste for clear forms and tints developing the while. The reading of Lanzi further convinced him that

"all the great Italian artists, including the cinquecentists, had grown in a training of patient self-restraint imposed by masters who had never indulged their hands in uncertainty and dash, and that the wise and enthusiastic pupils had delighted in the devotion of humility till far on in their maturity. The dandelion clock in the 'St. Catherine,' by Raphael, and the flowers—notably the purple flags—in the 'Bacchus and Ariadne' of Titian, were edifying examples of this spirit in the great masters, wilfully overlooked by modern students."

These convictions were shared with Millais, whose ambition was to seek out a truer method of interpreting nature in his pictures, putting aside received rules. The young men's discussions on these new aims and ideas, their impressions of the work of old masters, and other kindred topics, are given in conversational form. Holman Hunt conscientiously tells us in a note (what must occur to every one) that these cannot be vouched for as verbally exact, although the substance of the arguments remain vividly impressed on his mind. It was also the reading of 'Modern Painters' by an Oxford graduate which suggested the high mission of the artist, who, like the prophets of old, is appointed by God to carry a sacred message to the world. Keats's poems fell into Hunt's hands at this time, and filled his brain with images which inspired illustrations. From "The Eve of St. Agnes" he chose the subject of the escape of Madeline and Porphyro from the castle as the subject of his next Academy picture, and communicated his enthusiasm for Keats's poems to the less-impressionable Millais, who also found congenial themes for pictures in them. In their observation of the methods of old masters, the young men used their judgment untrammelled by accepted authority, coming to their own conclusions. Raphael's "Transfiguration," for instance, which at the time held such a transcendent position, was condemned as a signal step in the decadence of Italian art for its artificiality of arrangement and the pompous posturing of the Apostles. The fellow students at the Academy, hearing these unorthodox criticisms, called Hunt and Millais "Pre-Raphaelites" as a *reductio ad absurdum*—a designation which Hunt accepted as appropriate.

It was at the opening of the Academy that Rossetti, who was known to Hunt only through occasional meetings at the school, approached him with impulsive cordiality, congratulating him on his picture, which he loudly proclaimed to be the best in the collection, and asked permission to call at his studio, where a few days later Hunt showed him the beginning of "Rienzi," and expounded his views, which in this instance he meant to carry out rigorously for the first time by direct application to nature for every part. Rossetti was much impressed by the soundness of this system of work, and confided his own discouragement in his art studies. Madox Brown had consented to direct these on terms of pure friendship, and, after setting him to paint a copy from a study of his own of cherub angels watching a crown of thorns, had recommended him to study still life from pickle jars and bottles lying about in the studio. In desperation at the dulness of the task, Rossetti had thrown it up and consulted Leigh Hunt, a complete stranger to him, as to the likelihood of his being able to earn his living by poetry, submitting his small collection of poems to his judgment. Leigh Hunt too well knew how unremunerative poetry was; he counselled the youth to follow painting if he had any chance of success at it, although he was very appreciative as to the poems. Rossetti asked for Holman Hunt's advice as to the necessity of exercise in still life, and was recommended to choose one of his own designs which had been much admired by Millais and himself in the folio of the Cyclographic Club to which many of the young artists contributed. The design once transferred to canvas, he might begin by painting the still life carefully so as to acquire proficiency before arriving at the figures.

The suggestion pleased Rossetti, who immediately determined to try this plan and wished to do so under Hunt's immediate direction. This was not practicable at the time, as Hunt had another pupil, but soon after, when he quitted his father's house and took a studio, Rossetti shared it, paying half the rent, and it was there that he painted the "Girlhood of Mary Virgin," his first work in oil. The idea of an association of a few ardent spirits to reform art appealed strongly to his enthusiastic nature; he wished to be accepted as a member himself, and shortly after pressed Hunt to extend the circle to certain elect spirits—Woolner, a young sculptor who wished to be enrolled; his own brother William, who joined the subscription life school Rossetti had instituted, and who arduously worked at night at conscientious transcripts from the nude, while by day holding an appointment in the Inland Revenue Office; James Collinson, a young painter who had achieved a certain amount of success in genre painting; and F. G. Stephens, who had done nothing, but who was Hunt's nominal pupil, and, carried away by the whirl of enthusiasm, seemed likely to become an artist. Millais, on his return to town after executing some decorative work at Leeds, expressed surprise at Hunt's enterprise in adopting these adherents; D. G. Rossetti being the only one who by the originality of his designs seemed likely to help them in the advancement of their views.

On entering into this question of the origin of the Pre-Raphaelite Brethren and their aims, ethical and pictorial, we come to the point that chiefly preoccupied Holman Hunt during the writing of this book, which asserts his first claim to the ideas and leadership of the movement, and his still greater and less just pretensions to its subsequent influence on the entire art of England during the last century, ascribing to its pioneership and the battles it fought against well-worn traditions and the Academy at large, the high position accorded later to artists of views so entirely different from his own as G. F. Watts, Leighton, Burne-Jones, Walter Crane, etc., besides the reform in house decoration and stained glass effected by William Morris and the reproduction of lustre ware by W. De Morgan—truly exorbitant pretensions when we note the short duration of this coalition; Millais asserting his independence even before joining the Academy ranks, while Rossetti soon gave up exhibiting his pictures and never conformed to what he called "Hunt's hide-bound theories."

The accounts published in England and abroad Hunt considers far from exact. The idea, generally received, that Madox Brown, although never a member of the Brotherhood, had been the pioneer of the movement, having exhibited works in which a closer approach to nature had been observed, he repudiates entirely. Another point to which Hunt reverts with acrimony is that it is supposed that D. G. Rossetti was already proficient in painting in oil when he shared Hunt's studio, having acquired this knowledge of Madox Brown, while, to quote our author, "had he not been very closely, thoughtfully, and affectionately guided by me hour by hour in my studio for seven or eight months, I unhesitatingly maintain that he could not have appeared as a painter in 1849, and not even in 1850, *if ever*." This is too great a claim in the face of such decided gifts as those of D. G. Rossetti, for, with his unlimited enthusiasm and unwearying industry when interested in his work (according to Hunt's own account), he must surely have found for himself a method of expression sooner or later even without guidance. Those who have known the great artists of our day must have observed with how much generosity they are always ready to impart their especial methods to serious workers without attaching much importance to these favors. The frank admiration Madox Brown felt for the pictures produced by Millais and Hunt during the early years of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, and his sympathy with their aims, led to his adopting many of their methods, especially after Millais, in the exuberance of his confiding nature, explained to him their newly found system of flesh painting, which ensured purity and brilliancy of tint. The elder painter's works later on are classed by Hunt as Pre-Raphaelite, although he never adopted their restrictions, being averse to cliques. Hunt emphasizes the fact that he was never invited to join the circle, as his eccentricities in design made them fear to attract the further opprobrium of the critics on their already much derided society.

That foreign critics should have attributed to Rossetti the leadership in the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood is another grievance for Hunt, who maintains that these mistakes on the part of French art critics are due entirely to the writings of William

Rossetti, F. G. Stephens, W. B. Scott, Hall Caine, etc., and he brings this accusation with scant courtesy against his old friends. With regard to Rossetti, his adherence to Pre-Raphaelitism was not of long duration, for so original a genius would not be embarrassed by formalities and proscriptions. Hunt claims only two of his pictures as conforming to the school—"The Annunciation," now in the National Gallery, and "Found," which was never finished and is now in Mr. Bancroft's collection at Wilmington, Delaware. On the publication of Chesneau's book, 'Les Nations Rivales dans l'Art,' in 1868, Rossetti at once wrote the following to the author.

"En ce qui concerne la qualification de 'Chef de l'École Pré-Raphaélite' que vous m'attribuez d'après vos renseignements, je dois vous assurer le plus chaudement possible qu'elle ne m'est nullement due. Loin d'être 'Chef de l'École' par priorité ou par mérite, je puis à peine me reconnaître comme y appartenant, si le style du peu que j'ai fait en peinture venait à être comparé avec les ouvrages des autres peintres nommés Pré-Raphaélites. Ainsi, quand je trouve un peintre si absolument original que l'est Holman Hunt, décrit comme étant mon 'disciple,' il est impossible de ne pas me sentir humilié en face de la vérité, et de ne pas vous assurer du contraire avec le plus grand empressement. Les qualités de réalisme émotionnel mais extrêmement minutieux, qui donnent le cachet au style nommé Pré-Raphaélite se trouvent principalement dans tous les tableaux de Holman Hunt, dans la plupart de ceux de Madox Brown, dans quelques morceaux de Hughes, et dans l'œuvre admirable de la jeunesse de Millais. C'est la camaraderie, plutôt que la collaboration réelle du style, qui a uni mon nom aux leurs dans les jours d'enthousiasme d'il y a vingt ans."

This complete disclaimer to leadership having been published in Édouard Rod's 'Études sur le Dix-neuvième Siècle' in 1888 and in William Rossetti's Memoir of Dante Gabriel Rossetti in 1895, one would think this matter closed. With even greater injustice and bitterness Hunt attacks the character of his old friend and Pre-Raphaelite brother, F. G. Stephens, who for many years was art critic of the *Athenæum*, and whose frequent and eulogistic reference to Holman Hunt's work and the narrative of his experiences when in the East did much to establish the latter's position and to keep him before the public during his long absences from England. Mr. Stephens, in a letter to the *Times*, emphatically repudiates the passages in the book which Hunt quotes from the *Athenæum* as his, he not having had any connection with that paper at the time they were published fifty years ago. He shows other allegations to be utterly fallacious.

After the lapse of a few years, Hunt's position as an artist being firmly established by his exhibited pictures and the patronage of certain lovers of art who acquired his works at generous prices, he was enabled to carry out the project he had for many years entertained of visiting the East, the Holy Land especially, and painting scenes from the New Testament from their actual surroundings. This he felt to be his life's mission, his contribution towards making the history and teaching of Christ more tangible by the actual representation of Palestine and the knowledge of the manner of life and customs of its people. It was in 1854 that he first went out—a moment when the difficulties and expenses of travelling were enormously greater than at the present time, for the enterprise of Cook had not made Easterners familiar with the appearance and eccentricities of Western people. Obtaining models at Jerusalem was no easy task, since painting was regarded as witchcraft, endangering the sitter's soul. Then, fever was inevitable and cholera often supervened in the places stayed at. Hunt's indomitable will enabled him to surmount innumerable hardships and to pass through serious ordeals. His picture of the "Finding of Christ in the Temple" was completed in London six years later, and he has no reason to feel disappointed in the attitude of the English public from this time forward with regard to his art. He received for that picture, painted when he was thirty-three, the highest price which had hitherto been given for any modern work, viz., £5,500 sterling. It was exhibited in a special gallery by itself, with the pomp and circumstance of draperies and a darkened room, the full light being on the picture—also quite unusual then. It attracted, by its own merits and the way it was judiciously advertised by the press, a very special public, which has remained faithful to Holman Hunt's pictures ever since, and in which the clerical element predominates. Every new work is to his admirers the goal of a pilgrimage, even from remote parts of the country, for the artist is supposed to reveal new truths connected with the Bible, and his symbolism is discussed with bated breath and extreme reverence. Only two years ago his larger replica of "The Light of the World" was bought by the Right Hon. Charles Booth, who, sympathizing with the artist's desire that it should be seen in the Transvaal, has generously sent it to be exhibited throughout the colonies before being presented to the national collection at the Tate Gallery. Few artists of our day have achieved such manifest popularity as Holman Hunt while asserting independent views and remaining outside the Academy. He was, according to his own showing, the first and remains the last Pre-Raphaelite painter.

The illustrations in photogravure, which are extremely good, besides reproducing all Holman Hunt's pictures, give examples of the work of J. E. Millais, Madox Brown, D. G. Rossetti, R. Martineau, Sir W. Richmond, Henry Wallis, Spencer Stanhope, Charles Collins, and others; and in the text there are pen-and-ink sketches and studies after Holman Hunt which are full of interest.

SHALER'S MAN AND THE EARTH.

Man and the Earth. By Nathaniel S. Shaler, Professor of Geology, Harvard University. Fox, Duffield & Co. 1905.

We have known Professor Shaler as an Interpreter of Nature, but in this little volume he assumes the rôle of a Prophet, and foretells, from his study as a geologist of the past history of the earth and of man's interference with the processes of nature on its surface, what the probable fate will be of our globe, and of the vegetables and animals subsisting on its rocks, soils, waters, and atmosphere. Primitive man, like other animals, depleted earth's resources no less rapidly than nature repleted them, but civilized man is drawing lavishly, and even recklessly, on nature's stores; therefore, the questions are vital: How long will these continue to supply his demands? And if he exhausts material which now seems essential to his well-being and his progress, are there in nature available substitutes for it? To the solution of these questions much scientific research has been devoted. In his 'Earth and Man' Professor Shaler gives his answer in popular form and untechnical language.

Almost as essential as food to our existence to-day is fuel, and of it we possess in sight and in prospect a comparatively limited quantity. Accepting the assumed life of the accessible coal deposits of the world as about 300 years, and allowing but a few decades as the duration of supply of liquid and gaseous fuel, from even the most prolific petroleum fields, Professor Shaler allays our fears as to the suffering of our very great-great-grandchildren from cold by pointing out that heat being, as Tyndall described it, "a mode of motion," the winds, the torrents, and the tides, as long as the sun shines, can be turned into heat with less toil than the grimy concentrated sunshine which we dig with so many labor troubles from our coal mines. The secondary battery, when improved, or some better appliance for storing energy and accumulating power, will remove the objection to the use of these intermittent and variable agents. As to petroleum, the world possesses a substitute, though it will be costly, in bituminous shale. The term "coal-oil," which came to be subsequently applied to the oil from the Pennsylvania wells, was first used for the light product of distillation of these shales from Scotland, Australasia, and from this country. Professor Shaler computes that "the oil which may possibly be had from the Ohio shales alone will much excel in volume the amount of water contained in Lake Superior."

His forecast of the world's supply of useful metals is less cheerful than that of its heat and power-giving capabilities. Mr. Carnegie, in his St. Andrews address, allowed sixty years as the life of our rich iron deposits. Our author reduces this estimate to fifty years. Our copper mines, which have been so prolific for thirty years, will certainly not continue to help us to maintain our preëminence in the metal markets of the world as long as will our iron and steel. Of all the gifts of nature which we selfishly spend and sometimes waste, as though we were actual owners instead of trustees for future generations, none are more transitory than the metals. The miner himself watches with regret the progressive signs of exhaustion in his estate which he cannot repair like the farmer. The historian of mines describes the actual disappearance of copper mining during last century from the list of British industries, and the decline of Chili from being the world's main source of supply in 1870 to its present insignificant position in the ranks of copper producers. Nevertheless it is difficult to conceive of the actual obliteration from commerce of an article which, when plentiful, seems essential to our economic system; yet this will actually take place, and many centuries may not pass before substitutes for some, if not most, of our useful metals will have to be found. In his despair, Professor Shaler, like other speculators who dip into

the future, falls back on aluminum, the base of which exists in clay. Though nothing is inexhaustible, this ingredient of the earth's crust exists the world over in quantities immensely greater than the ores of the metals, and is still being produced from decaying feldspathic rocks. Aluminum possesses qualities which, when its cost permits, will enable it to take the place of iron and copper.

However, the exhaustion of what we account ore to-day, leaves intact vastly greater quantities of the metals as constituents of the rocks of the earth, which our children will extract through the application of such improved methods as their wider knowledge and greater skill will enable them to invent and apply. There need, therefore, be no apprehension lest the world at large suffer from scarcity of iron and copper, within a measurable length of time; but the ungovernable speed with which we are drawing on our own rich resources of iron and copper, will within a few generations involve our loss of supremacy in the production of these metals and possibly shift the centres of metallurgical activity to foreign shores, and almost certainly raise the price of these staple articles of the world's industrial life.

Professor Shaler sees a less gloomy prospect than did Crookes, in his Toronto address as president of the British Association, of remote generations of our children starving for want of corn. The lands under salt and fresh water which can be recovered to the use of man by efficient dykes and drains; the large area of the earth's surface, now desert, which will be rendered prolific by artificial irrigation, will provide enough new land for the increasing population. Meanwhile, better conservation of the land, by preventing the upper soil and its valuable soluble salts from being wastefully washed into the sea, and the extraction, if need be, from the atmosphere of its carbon and nitrogen, for the restoration to the soil of its depleted fertility, may prevent the famine from which our posterity might suffer by having grown too numerous to be supported from the present arable lands of the globe.

There is a moral to all such vague speculations, interesting and depressing as they may be; and the moral is, that while there may be doubt as to the fulfilment of these prophecies, there is no doubt that the good things of this world are fleeting, and that, being limited in quantity, they should be consumed in moderation and not wasted. Petroleum as a cheap illuminant has brightened many gloomy dwellings where the tallow candle formerly made darkness visible. No one believes it to be stored in lasting quantities in the buried sandstones of the earth's crust, and yet it is tapped so recklessly that, in a new district where the first wells belch it forth faster than it can be caught, new wells are nevertheless sunk almost as close together as derricks can be erected, and the oil flows so much faster than it can be caught and transported to market that the price shrinks below a figure at which it can be normally produced. For a time it is then burnt under a boiler by the tank-carful, instead of in a lamp by the gallon.

Under our existing uneconomical systems, this misuse of one of the most precious resources of nature cannot, perhaps, be avoided, but we are guilty of avoidable wastes of which less reckless manufacturing communities are innocent. To take an example: we are converting into coke annually 40,000,000 tons of coal. From retort coking ovens, such as are almost exclusively used in Germany, the volatile constituents of coal are caught, and from each ton of coal there is recovered about 7 per cent. more coke than when the same coal is coked in the more cheaply constructed but more wasteful bee-hive oven, and there are recovered from the gases, per ton of coal, 10 gallons of tar, and ammonia enough to make 20 pounds of ammonia sulphate. And yet, of the 40,000,000 tons of coal which we coke, only about 7 per cent. is coked in by-product ovens. From the balance, coked in bee-hive ovens, whose gases escape into the air, are wasted 370,000,000 gallons of tar, and ammonia to make 370,000 tons of ammonia sulphate, besides heat enough to generate over 6,000,000,000 horse power, or probably more than we realize from all our water powers combined. Most of this waste is made in Pennsylvania and Virginia, in the very heart of our industrial system. The value of these wasted coal products should not be estimated in dollars and cents. Our forests are being cut away in a great measure to supply the railroads with ties. The best wood preservative is creosote, a distillate from tar; and if the creosote from our coke ovens were recovered, and used as a preservative, what we now waste would treat about 37,000,000 ties a year. There would then be less temptation to go to Venezuela for bitumen, as the heavy residue after the extraction of the creosote from the tar would be a substitute for that politically troublesome material. While destroying our forests in building our railroads, our farmers are reluctant to restore the fertility of their fields, depleted by continuous cropping, by reason of the high cost of manure, and yet we are wasting monthly in the Ohio valley itself over 400,000 tons of the very richest ingredient of artificial fertilizers.

The importance of these problems cannot be overestimated; and while state interference with our industrial activity may be repugnant to our principles and habits of business, it must sooner or later be enforced, if not to regulate production, at least to forbid waste. Our children will be obliged by necessity to find a solution, but the difficulties imposed on them will be the greater the longer we neglect our own obligations and duties.

Vikings of the Pacific. By A. C. Laut. The Macmillan Co. 1905. 8vo, pp. xviii., 349. Ill.

No wilder and more romantic tales have been given to the world as fiction than may be inferred from the scanty records of the exploration of the shores of the North Pacific up to the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The innumerable reprints of Cook's Voyages and the success of the books of travel in which the work of less distinguished explorers is recorded, testify to the popular interest they have always excited. To bring before a new generation of readers the tales of heroism and endurance, of savagery and greed, of the pursuit of fortune in defiance of starvation and death, which the bare records offer, is a worthy ambition, and it is this which Miss Laut has attempted.

Her book is divided into three parts, the first dealing with Russian explorations, beginning with Bering and his two voyages eastward from Kamchatka. Then follows an account of the expeditions of the free Promishleniki consequent upon the reports brought by Bering's crew of the sea otter and fur seal obtainable on the newly discovered coasts. After them are treated the companies formed to exploit the trade as capital and organization became necessary, and, finally, the adventures of the escaped exile Count Benyowski afford material for a chapter. The second part takes up successively Drake's voyage; the work of James Cook on the coast of America; Gray's discovery of the Columbia River; John Ledyard's adventures; and Vancouver's explorations. Vancouver, by the way, is called the "Last of Pacific Explorers," as if the North Pacific coast terminated at Cook's Inlet. Part third has two chapters. The first, entitled the "Russian American Fur Company" (which was not the name of the organization described), is headed "1579-1867," though why the forays of Yermak in western Siberia, in no way connected with the fur trade, should be considered part of the history of a nineteenth-century corporation, is not clear. The last chapter is devoted to the history of Baranoff, resident director and virtual creator of the Russian American Company as a successful instrument of Russian commerce.

The arrangement of material, it will be observed, is illogical; the natural sequence of events would have been better observed by a chronological treatment. As it is, Drake in 1562 is made to follow the Promishleniki of 1760, and so on. No account is given of the Cossack expeditions which long preceded Bering at the strait named after him, and were the probable cause of the organization of the later official explorations.

As we have intimated, the genuine records are in many cases surprisingly brief. Bering's report of his first voyage occupies only a few pages, and to the labors of Archdeacon Coxe we owe almost all our knowledge of the voyages on the part of the Russians immediately succeeding those of Bering, the whole of which is preserved in one small octavo volume. Chaplin's journal with Bergh's commentary occupies a little duodecimo. The manuscript records relating to Bering's voyages were reported by the Russian Government to our State Department as comprising about four thousand folio pages—not "thirty thousand," as stated in Miss Laut's preface. The original records of the minor explorations in eastern Siberia perished by fire in Yakutsk about a century ago, and we have only the extracts fortunately made by Müller and the emissaries of Coxe.

To these data the literary purveyor may be justified in adding for the general reader such a modicum of imaginary background as will fill out the picture and complete as a consistent whole the version which in itself is an unfinished outline. But this justification is dependent upon several qualities in the added matter, such as accuracy in detail, a truthful atmosphere, and a subordination of the added fiction to the framework of fact it is in-

tended to illustrate and adorn. These qualities can hardly be attained from book lore; the writer must himself have had some personal experience of conditions, natural and social, in the region treated of, and self-repression enough to let the facts relating to persons tell their own story and awake in the reader his appropriate judgment on the characters depicted. The writer may have, and exhibit, an opinion of his own, but too eager an insistence on it makes of the text a sermon, and not literature.

Miss Laut seems, from the character of her text, not to claim English as her native tongue; which, if it be the case, to some extent excuses certain blunders that mar the flow of her narrative. For example, in endeavoring to reproduce the eighteenth-century atmosphere by employing marine slang, she repeatedly uses the word "beach-comber" as meaning a "breaker" on a reef or shore. But "beachcomber" is a South Sea Island hobo, usually a deserter from some ship, living as a parasite on the natives—not a breaking wave. The word "wash" seems to have a fascination for her; terrible things happen in the "wash" or "backwash" to which she is fond of referring, and which seems to mean the "undertow." In her endeavor to furnish a natural background, the author goes too far in many instances; one might almost believe she had inspected the dunnage of the sailors on Bering's expedition. Many things are reported "verminous," as, for instance, hammocks, though these would be about the last articles likely to harbor vermin; nor is there any reason to suppose the Russian adventurer was more uncleanly than other men of his time, especially as the weekly steam-bath was regarded by him as his chief luxury.

Leaving petty incongruities of style, one may inquire into the accuracy of the facts of historic origin which the author has woven into her text. In the main her narrative is fairly correct, after one rejects its imaginary setting and presumptuous epithets. She has followed the chief authorities, though not always the latest, and in the main her stories need no serious correction in their historic matter. Yet even here a certain carelessness is obvious even so early as the table of contents. The baptismal name of Count Benyowski was Moricz Aguston, or Maurice Augustine in English, not "Mauritius," as Miss Laut prints it, and his shrewd and gallant fight for freedom from the barbarities of Russian exile is hardly deserving of her epithet of piracy. He doubtless fought the devil with fire, but to one who, like the present reviewer, has seen, fifty years after Benyowski, a Polish exile in Kamtchatka, who, for participation in some plot, had his nose cut off and was condemned to total loss of civil rights, and lived perpetually in danger of the knout—to put up a pretty good fight seems a tolerably natural thing under the circumstances. Miss Laut, taking her cue from Lauridsen's partisan Life of Bering, is profuse in her derogatory epithets for the scientific men who were ordered to accompany Bering on his second voyage, and ignores the undoubted facts that to Müller and Steller, two of these scientists, is due the preservation, as well as the collection, of nearly all that was valuable in the results of this expedition. Bering was deficient in the chief necessity of a commander, namely, executive capacity; he cringed before the petty nobility of his environment, and signed himself "your slave" in his report of his first expedition. During his second expedition he became a broken man, physically as well as mentally, and at the last was dependent upon the tender and faithful service of the scientist Steller, who stands out as the one capable person in Bering's own party, after the expedition set sail.

Miss Laut, in the case of Captain Cook, passes over unmentioned his chief claim to the gratitude of posterity, namely, the reorganization of the commissariat of his expedition, so that by suitable food and drink the plague of scurvy was banished from his own and subsequent expeditions. Vancouver was an even more capable explorer than Cook, but Cook had the first chance at the shores of the new ocean, and Vancouver was his pupil.

We may summarize by saying that, in spite of imperfect accuracy and style, Miss Laut has succeeded in giving a vivid picture, as she has conceived it, of a strenuous series of explorations which will always be of interest to the adventurous reader. To some future Parkman remains the task of putting the vivid picture in a setting both accurate and harmonious; meanwhile, Miss Laut's work is considerably better than nothing.

John Knox and the Reformation. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

John Knox, the Hero of the Scottish Reformation. By Henry Cowan, D.D. (Heroes of the Reformation Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

When a man reaches the historical eminence of John Knox, books may, not unfitly, be written about him at any time. That the Quater-centenary should have been celebrated in 1905 seems a little unfortunate, since probability fixes the date of his birth several years later. However, chronological exactness is not very important to the promoters of festivals, who as a rule feel that they have done their duty in paying some sort of homage to the decimal system. Last year having been marked, whether rightly or wrongly, by a commemoration of Knox, we get the usual crop of occasional literature. To notice all the publications thus provoked would be impossible, but we bring together two of the most notable.

Any one who has kept up with Mr. Lang's writings, whether literary or historical, would hardly expect to find him writing a panegyric of John Knox, and in this case one's natural forecast is justified by the event. As giving the point of approach, we can do nothing better than cite the opening paragraph:

" 'November 24, 1572. John Knox, minister, deceased, who had, as was alleged, the most part of the blame of all the sorrows of Scotland since the slaughter of the late Cardinal.' It was thus that the decent burgess who, in 1572, kept *The Diurnal* of such daily events as he deemed important, cautiously records the death of the great Scottish Reformer. The sorrows, the 'cumber' of which Knox was 'alleged' to bear the blame, did not end with his death. They persisted in the conspiracies and rebellions of the earlier years of James VI.; they smouldered through the later part of his time; they broke into far-spreading flame at the touch of the Covenant; they blazed at 'dark Worcester and bloody Dunbar'; they include the Cromwellian conquest of Scotland, and the shame and misery of the Restoration; to trace them down to our own age would be invidious."

Prof. Hume Brown, who also stands among the biographers of Knox, has recently given it as his opinion that, "in the struggle between the old and the new religions, a national life in a real sense first began in Scotland." When one thinks thus he can hardly avoid ascribing to Knox the honor of creating the Scottish nation. To be sure, Melville shaped the lines of Presbyterian government, but between the two men as personal forces there is no comparison, even if we leave out of the question Knox's priority in point of time. But neither Mr. William Law Mathieson nor Mr. Lang is willing to admit that on the creative side Knox was conspicuously successful. Mr. Mathieson is confident that nature intended him to be the leader of a revolution, while destiny, at cross purposes with nature, gave him formative work to do.

"We are accustomed to think of Knox as a lover of truth; and in the sense of fidelity to the best that was in him, or to what he believed to be such, no man ever served it more faithfully; but of that other and rarer form of truth, which consists of sobriety of judgment, clearness of vision, 'seeing things as they really are,' he was not so much devoid as utterly incapable."

The highly qualified enthusiasm for Knox which Mr. Mathieson displays in his 'Politics and Religion,' appears once more in the present work by Mr. Lang. Indeed, both writers have been anticipated by Lord Hailes, Hume, Robertson, and Hallam. Mr. Lang's special quarrel is with Knox's head. The Reformer's heart, he admits, was essentially sound.

"That Knox was a great man; a disinterested man; in his regard for the poor, a truly Christian man; as a shepherd of Calvinistic souls, a man fervent and considerate; of pure life; in friendship loyal; by jealousy untainted; in private character genial and amiable, I am entirely convinced. In public and political life he was much less admirable."

The work which illustrates his peculiar shortcomings most strikingly is his 'History,' with its strong partisanship and its penchant for special pleading. One of the littlenesses in Knox as a writer is his fondness for petty scandal. Wherever, for example, Mary of Guise is mentioned, it is always with a slight or an innuendo; and in disparaging enemies of the faith generally he accepts hearsay with the same readiness which Milton displayed when waging wordy strife against Salmasius and Morus.

Among the many episodes which Mr. Lang examines in detail with a view to disclosing Knox's aptitude for sailing near the wind, none is more characteristic of the Scottish Reformation than the Truce of July 24, 1559, between Mary of Guise and the Lords of the Congregation. Outnumbered two to one by the Regent's forces, the Protestant leaders were forced from the field and compelled to accept an armistice of nearly six months. It was an age when public opinion supported authority, when Calvin denounced opposition to rulers in the strongest terms, and when Elizabeth of England, a prop upon whom the Scottish Protestants largely relied, loathed nothing so much as a rebel. According to Mr. Lang's elaborate plea,

Knox and those of his party were anxious to get full credit for loyalty, while actively contriving the overthrow of established government. Regarding the nature of the terms agreed to, and the way in which these terms were kept, there are certainly many equivocal statements in the History. "At this point," says Mr. Lang, "Knox's narrative becomes so embroiled that it reminds me of nothing so much as of Claude Nau's attempts to glide past an awkward point in the history of his employer, Mary Stuart." How far Knox was misled, or of set purpose deceived, by erroneous information, seems to be the only question in doubt, for numerous dispatches of Sadler, the English ambassador, make clear the duplicity of the Lords in their dealings with the Regent. Throughout the account which he gives of 1559, Knox is either shutting his eyes, or is deceived, or is deceiving himself.

While Mr. Lang is not unsuccessful in disclosing the perfidies of the Protestant lords and in exhibiting the self-persuasive power of their apostle, he has let rather too much cleverness and subtlety creep into his book. Whether through eagerness to prove his point, or repugnance to Calvinistic intolerance, he permits his volume to assume the character of a pamphlet. Admitting in general terms the historical greatness of Knox, he takes it for his particular function to disclose the Reformer's shortcomings. Such compliments as are paid to Knox in his private character carry little weight when balanced against the tale of his inconsistencies as a writer or leader. Those who would see why the Reformation left a crop of rancors in Scotland may well turn to these pages, but it helps one little if any to understand the fundamental strength of a nature which made itself the rallying-point of a national movement.

Dr. Cowan's work is less a piece of detraction or of eulogy than a plain narrative of events, with occasional comment upon the main issues which claimed Knox's effort. The most notable single statement which we have discovered in it is suggested by the quarrel between Knox and Moray, where it is said of the reformer: "He preferred internal conflict with all its hazards, while a Protestant ascendancy was maintained, to internal peace which would give Romanists the opportunity of recovering their strength, increasing their numbers, and preparing for a future struggle." This observation sums up, in our opinion, the whole state of the case as between Knox and his aristocratic allies. Having gained something from the concessions of the Government, they were willing to temporize in 1565, at the critical moment of the Scottish Reformation. Knox, who was determined not to hold parley with the accursed thing, kept on his way in complete disregard of the effect to be produced by action upon the peace of Scotland, then or in subsequent generations. It is doubtless worth Mr. Lang's while to define the nature of Knox's limitations, but modern Scotland chiefly remembers the fact that his illiberality brought with it emancipation.

The Risen Sun. By Baron Suyematsu. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Japanese Government has many times followed precedents furnished by the United States and to the advantage of the nation. Furthermore, no modern people has been more eager in seeking to know, or sensitive in responding to, the best public opinion of the world than the Japanese. They have carefully studied the American way from the days of Franklin and Adams to those of Lincoln and Seward. As, in our civil war, private envoys were dispatched beyond sea to explain and defend the Union cause, so, on the eve of the outbreak with Russia, Mutsuhito dispatched several elect, highly cultivated and amply equipped servants to win and hold the world's sympathy. Baron Kaneko, graduate of Harvard in America, Takahashi, pupil of American missionaries, as financial director on both continents, and Baron Suyematsu, student at Cambridge, and able to use German, French, and English in Europe, have creditably fulfilled their mission. Their pens have conquered for Japan both credence and credit, sympathy and aid. No less skilfully than Oyama and Nogi and Kuroki, Togo and Uriu on field and deck, have the Japanese controlled the sources of information and manipulated the levers of world-moving opinion.

While we wait for Kaneko's book and Takahashi's report, we have Suyematsu's London-made volume named by the British publisher. It is well edited and attractively presented. The title is hardly a product of Bushido, which aims at modest self-repression and depreciation of one's own. Among the most conceited of men and quite equal to the Yankee, is the Japanese gentleman, but he is refined even in his methods of egotism. This volume is made up of the papers contributed by Baron Suyematsu during the war to various books or periodicals in three languages. The matter is distributed tripartitely, the "books" being severally entitled: Antecedent to the War; A Nation in Training; and, External Relations. Light in hand but weighty in contents and indexed, the volume is of permanent value. That portion, already included in Stead's 'Japan by the Japanese,' treating of ethics and religion, has been already glanced at in these columns.

Since these papers are all accessible in periodicals, we need not examine each in detail, but inquire as to the real riches and note the possible poverty in the collection now so conveniently at hand. To put these valuable products of mind, heart, and pen in a special volume is to incur the responsibility of scientific appraisal and frank criticism. It is well to know the Japanese ways in the art of apologetic writing of history. While the virtues are great, the sin of omission is of equal proportions. As is now said of Motley by perhaps all the Dutch historians and critics—he grasped the outside relations and set forth admirably the story of the Netherlanders for foreigners, but never really entered the penetralia of Dutch politics; so, with consummate adroitness, our Japanese writer answers the questions and refutes the objections lying on the surface, but is apt to parry searching scrutiny that might lay open unpleasant realities. As cool, as judicial, as self-restrained as Benjamin Franklin, he shows in four chapters how the Russians brought on the war. In his opening paper on "An Anglo-Japanese View of the Far Eastern Question," before the Constitutional Club in 1904, he rightly names as the key to the situation the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, which made Japan's path clear to smite the Muscovite, while sustaining Great Britain's position in the Far East. When he expatiates on woman's education, ethics, freedom of conscience, etc., etc., the inquirer into reality is hardly satisfied. Do the Japanese really want their women to have and to enjoy the higher education? If so, why do they leave the work and cost to private initiative and expense? And why is the reform of licensed prostitution left almost wholly to aliens? Why is the atrocity of parental sale of daughters still permitted? So long as the demands of filial piety override woman's strongest hope and ambition—chastity—can Japan be called civilized? As for all the intellectual and religious freedom boasted of, can the sun have risen when freedom of academic investigation is under ban? We can understand "the real significance" of hara-kiri, even while we see clearly its moral poltroonery. What kind of courage is that of suicide? Can self-murder be justified even though one's face is saved? So long as the tombs of assassins are flower-covered by an admiring populace, and the victim of defeat or failure can shirk inquiry and deserved disgrace, so long as a villain can redeem his reputation by the belly-cut, non-Japanese opinion will be cool in its admiration.

Again, in writing of "The Great Change in Japan" consequent upon the introduction of Western civilization, our author in the first paper utterly ignores the Hollanders' influences of a quarter of a millennium, and in the second paper unduly minimizes it, while giving no credit whatever to the American teachers who began, nine years before the Tokio Government got into power, to fill the minds of native lads (now and since 1870 among the leading men of the country) with the ideas of freedom and representative government. In brief, why, in the days of "The Risen Sun," when concealment of facts is no longer possible, should so frank a scholar, refined gentleman, true patriot, and man of the world as Baron Suyematsu is, and with so noble a recorded service, seek to imitate the uncanny fashion of his old-time literary brethren?

The paper on the historical expansion of China is an admirable bit of scholarship. The naturalization of foreigners in Japan is also explained, but one contemplating the step had better read Lafcadio Hearn's profound and penetrating work on 'Japan: An Interpretation'—as frank as a missionary report, and as pitiless in its exposure as a Salvation Army tract—in which it is clearly shown that the Japanese family is still in the Homeric stage of evolution. The word "family," an expression of a legal entity only, has not the meaning or perspective which the English word carries.

The Story of Cambridge. By Charles W. Stubbs. Illustrated by Herbert Railton. London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1905.

How curious it is that we cherish Oxford and ignore Cambridge, when there are so many reasons why it should be just

the other way about. Is Oxford older? Both universities spring from a remote past that defies the dating power of antiquarians. Is Oxford more beautiful? She has no single building that compares with King's College chapel; she has no glimpses so lovely as may be found at every step of that wonderful half-mile along the Cambridge backs from Queen's Bridge to the Bridge of Sighs at St. John's. Has Oxford produced greater men? Far from it; more than her share of the great names of England is associated with Cambridge. Bacon, Cromwell, Macaulay, Byron, William Pitt, Newton, Tennyson, Milton, Darwin, Wordsworth—such are a few that come haphazard to the memory. Has Oxford any more intimate association with America? On the contrary. Oxford has always stood for King and Church, Cambridge for Parliament and freedom. The eastern counties, swept by the stinging winds from the North Sea, long produced the hardiest race of England; and if now the counties of Cambridge and Lincoln and Norfolk no longer show the vigor that marked them from the time of the Danes to that of the Commonwealth, the reason is largely that, in the seventeenth century, the best part of the population crossed the Atlantic and founded New England. Go from Cambridge in any direction, but especially north and east, and you will pass through the towns whose names are those of Massachusetts. Ipswich and Norwich, Ware and Milton, Boston and Lynn, Malden and Lincoln, and many familiar villages are all within those eastern counties that fed the University of Cambridge and peopled New England in the past. And although at the present day Oxford and Cambridge no longer draw their students from a local constituency, yet much of the old tradition survives; all good Oxford and Cambridge men are content that the two universities should be equal sisters in learning and culture, and yet there persists a difference of tradition and of ideal which should, but does not, draw Americans rather to the banks of the Cam than to those of the Isis.

This little book is a handy guide to the university town, which it may be hoped many will use. It will prove sufficiently accurate for the ordinary traveller, and even for those who stay at home it may give a pleasing impression by its exceptionally well-executed illustrations. It is a pity, however, that an artist of such ability and charm as Mr. Railton will not make any concessions to accuracy.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1906.

The Week.

The assumption that the Rate bill is a "non-partisan" measure was pretty rudely shaken in the Senate on April 4. Mr. Long rose as the spokesman of the recent Republican conference at the White House, only to be quizzed by Messrs. Bailey, Bacon, Aldrich, and Foraker. The Democratic Senators wanted to know why a bill assiduously represented as non-partisan was discussed and amended in secret committee of Republican Senators. Messrs. Foraker and Bacon stood on the point of Senatorial prerogative, questioning the propriety of this form of Presidential meddling with legislation. Now no Senator need be precisely shocked at the spectacle of a bill "steered" from the White House. Our more startling *ballons d'essai* are usually inflated, not at the legislative, but at the executive, end of Pennsylvania Avenue. Still, the recent conference at the White House was so specifically announced, and made such pretensions to authority, that it is natural, first, that all Senators should challenge its propriety, or, conceding that point, that Democratic Senators should resent being left out. Finally, the spectacle of the President's accredited spokesman under unfriendly cross-examination indicates the disintegration of the so-called Roosevelt party.

While there developed in the House some Democratic opposition to the National Quarantine bill, the passage of that measure is a real triumph of practical considerations over political theories. Every epidemic for the last forty years has revived the preëminently sensible sentiment that the guarding of our shores against disease is as properly a national function as their protection against enemies. Between times, the easy doctrine that the States might as well look after it for themselves would reassert itself. The real battle was won when most of the States, Southern as well as Northern, voluntarily turned over their quarantine stations to the national authorities, whose efficiency had been proved on so many past occasions. For one thing, we hope that the new law will prevent the unseemly wrangling between neighboring States, with the everlasting charges of local selfishness and laxity which have usually accompanied epidemics in this country, and even the threat of epidemics.

The proposal to reinstate the dismissed midshipmen is difficult to understand. When the hazing inquiry began, it was stated that the reappointment by act of Congress of three midshipmen who were dismissed for hazing in 1904 had done much to demoralize their fellow-students. It was taken by the whole body of cadets to mean that the Navy Department would be very slow to punish any one again for a practice its official representatives seemed to wink at. The midshipmen were thoroughly undeceived, and the hazing court-martial has dismissed or forced the resignation of a large number of them, while there are still thirty cases to be disposed of. Now, because Congress has passed a law making the punishment for hazing less than dismissal, both the Secretary of the Navy and the Naval Committees seem to be willing to put back those dismissed. This would be a grave mistake, and not only because it would leave the midshipman's mind in doubt as to the Department's actual attitude toward hazing. The offences committed bordered on crime; they included indecent acts as well as dishonest ones, and revealed, according to the Underwood Committee, a total failure to understand or respect the sanctity of the oath of service. Surely, for such wrongdoing there should be exemplary punishment. Moreover, the naval service ought not to have foisted upon it young men who are so obviously morally defective.

As a sign that the Democratic Club of this city is in earnest in its desire to become "nationalized"—that is, to dominate the party throughout the nation—the announcement is made that it will look with a friendly eye upon Bryan. This has been in the air for some days. Intimates of certain politico-financial magnates in this city have been whispering it around that those great men have about made up their minds condescendingly to "take Bryan." He is expected to drop his 16-to-1 nonsense, and then the course will be open to him to become the "idol" of the New York Democracy. These gentlemen seem to have forgotten, however, that Bryan's latest platform is Government ownership of railroads. Will he abandon that also to win their approval? Will he, in a word, be as anxious to "take" them as they are to take him? Those are questions which must be left to the future. What is perfectly plain in the present is that Mr. Bryan, while giving many evidences of growth and broadening in statesmanship, is essentially a radical. If he is again nominated for the Presidency, and especially if he is elected to that office, it will be because he is the choice of the workingmen and farmers and planters of the West and South, and not because he is patronized by rich Democrats in New York.

There are now at least nine generally recognized aspirants for the Republican Presidential nomination, and the greatest of these is unquestionably Fairbanks. With all the leisure of the Vice-Presidential office at his command, he has built, perfected, and extended the most workmanlike political machine, probably, that a candidate ever possessed two years and three months before the nominating convention. The prophecies of his enemies have regularly come to naught. He has blocked plans, he has carried off their spoils, and still the wrath of Heaven does not descend to consume him. In fact, nothing seems to touch him. All the boomers of other Presidential candidates use him as a standard of comparison. No one ever heard a Taft man, for instance, say that his candidate was gaining ground faster than Shaw, or Root, or Foraker. No; if he wants to make the ultimate claim, he says that Taft is outstripping Fairbanks, and the Shaw men, the Root men, and the Foraker men, in their most optimistic moods, can say no more for their standard-bearers. The flame of Fairbanks enthusiasm is as impossible to extinguish as the phosphorescence of a fish.

Although busy enough with the Rate bill, Senator Tillman has to find time for home politics as well. The Columbia *State*, whose editor, as will be remembered, was shot three years ago by Tillman's nephew, making up an impressive list of things which the senior Senator has *not* done for the welfare of South Carolina, observes that, "after going to the Senate, ... he evinced no interest in State affairs until the dispensary, involving, as he believed, his political future, was assailed." That assault, as we have noted from time to time, has been a formidable one. Not only have various counties voted out the institution locally, but one house of the Legislature passed a bill to abolish it completely. But the Senator has so far managed to save his "baby." It is rather interesting to see a campaign against Tillman based on his home record during those very years when, as all opinion agrees, he has grown so greatly in national stature.

The Massachusetts Legislature has under consideration an interesting "public opinion" bill. As presented by the Massachusetts Referendum League and amended, it provides that "on a written application signed by 10 per cent. of the registered voters of the commonwealth asking for the submission to the voters

of any question of public policy for an expression of opinion, the Secretary of the Commonwealth shall place such question on the official ballot for the next State election." Other provisions are for county and city and town referendums. Not more than two questions, it is proposed, shall be submitted at one election, and in case an adverse vote is cast, the same question shall not be resubmitted for three years. That there is hope of getting such a measure through is indicated by the recent vote in the lower house of the State Legislature on a resolution to permit voters at State elections to express their preference for United States Senators. An adverse report had been made by the House committee on this question. On motion to adopt the resolution despite the report, 74 affirmative votes were cast to the 100 negative. Without the question of Lodge's or Crane's political fortunes to complicate the proposition, the Election Laws Committee hopes to make this further step towards securing for Massachusetts electors a chance to vote their "opinions," in addition to maintaining them at hearthstone and in hall.

However rapidly Socialistic doctrines may be progressing, this growth is not reflected in the vote of the Socialist party. The elections which have been held since the great Socialist effort of 1904 have in most cases shown losses, or, in a few, slight gains. In Milwaukee, where in 1904 the Socialists rose to the second place among parties, casting a considerably larger vote than the Democrats on the national ticket, last week's municipal election put them back in third place. Their strength fell from 17,028 in 1904 to 16,538. Of the seven States which elected one or more State officers last fall, six showed a smaller Socialistic vote than that cast for Debs in 1904. In Massachusetts the drop was only from 13,604 to 13,195, but in Michigan it was from 8,941 to 6,235, in Nebraska from 7,412 to 3,241, in Ohio from 36,260 to 17,795, in Pennsylvania from 21,863 to 10,390, and in Rhode Island from 956 to 364. Only in Maryland was there a gain, from 2,247 to 2,603. In New York city the Socialist Mayoralty vote also rose from 11,318 in 1903 to 11,817 in 1905. The normal "off-year" lessening of the vote will account for these changes only in part. Besides, theoretically, an organization like that of the Socialists, cemented by doctrines applicable to the affairs of the smallest municipality as well as those of the nation, full of militant zeal, dependent little on direct self-interest, but uncompromising in its opposition to other parties, ought to keep its vote more nearly intact in "off-years" than the great parties.

Municipal ownership but private operation seems to be the popular combination with voters this year. Other cities than Chicago have made this compromise between the radicals and the conservatives. In Kansas City, Mayor-elect Beardsley stands pledged to grant no more franchises for privately owned street railways or for privately owned gas works. He is not to be classed with the Dunne type of "ownership" advocate, however, for his backing in the campaign, in strong contrast to that of the Chicago apostle, came from the solid business men. The arguments that won for Beardsley were far from being "Socialistic"; it was pointed out that the companies operating the street-car lines and the gas works were making a great deal of money out of their grants, and that it would be good economy for the city to retain control of the franchises. In Seattle, where Mayor Moore was recently chosen on an issue of municipal ownership, it is now proposed to obtain for the city permanent control of certain of the main streets of the city. A street railway company has asked for franchises to extend its lines, but the Mayor proposes instead that the city develop a system of its own—build it anyway, and lease it to a private operating company if that be thought best. With voters, long-term franchises to private operating companies seem to be about the least popular form of municipal grant just now.

The ousting of John Alexander Dowie from all control, temporal and spiritual, of the various enterprises clustering about Zion City in Illinois, marks the end of a religious movement in some respects more noteworthy than any in this country since Joseph Smith received his revelations. In fact, such an effective combination of religious solemnities, miraculous healing, and business enterprise has had hardly any parallel. This unlucky year for Dowie happens to be the thirteenth since he opened his first small "tabernacle" near the World's Fair gates in Chicago. It is the eleventh from the "year of persecution," when the prophet was arrested more than a hundred times, spent, according to report, some $20,000 in fines and legal fees, but ended by defeating the ordinances directed against him, and won his final cases in the courts. It is about eight years since his establishment of Zion City and its industries. The bill of particulars telegraphed to Dowie by the coterie now in control names among the charges "extravagance, hypocrisy, misrepresentation, exaggeration, misuse of investments, tyranny, and injustice," as well as "polygamous teaching." These are grave and comprehensive enough, but the man's personality has simply triumphed in the past over all disaffection. About the legal status of the existing properties there is likely to be some dispute. When the Legislature once proposed to investigate the Zion bank, it was compelled to desist by proof that the institution was not properly a bank at all. The capital was subscribed by an unincorporated association. There was no limit to the stock; Dowie sold more whenever he needed more money. And the stock itself, on examination, proved to be merely Dowie's personal note, guaranteeing interest. It carried no right to vote or participation in the bank's management. Whether Zion will disappear entirely as a separate entity, or will become an ordinary stock concern after the precedent of the Oneida Community, is the chief question remaining.

It was inevitable that the Irish should find occasion to break with the Liberal Government. Mr. Redmond has just had a meeting of his followers to condemn the course of Mr. Bryce, Chief Secretary for Ireland. The point of condemnation seems ill chosen. It is a question of offices. There was much Irish muttering, upon the formation of the Ministry, over the retention of Sir Horace Plunkett in the Irish Agricultural Department. Mr. Bryce explained that, however, as a temporary arrangement. But now he has reappointed a score of land commissioners who were distasteful to the Irish and whose places they wanted. Hence their angry resolve that this will never do. But it is precisely in such a matter of permanent administrative service that Mr. Bryce is bound to be firm, and it is there that the Nationalists can least afford to make an issue. With the Government preparing to fulfil their hopes in the items of Irish education and a reasonable extension of local government, it seems a mistake to make a row about twenty land commissioners. The incident shows what the Irish would have done had they, as they hoped, held the balance of power in the Commons.

Mr. Birrell's Education bill, which passed first reading in the Commons on Monday, is evidently a valiant attempt to redeem the elementary schools from sectarian control. Under the Education act of 1903, something like 14,000 voluntary (mostly Church of England) schools were taken over by the nation. Salaries and all properly educational expenses were met out of the public funds. The managers of these Church schools merely agreed to provide and maintain the buildings, and to submit in pedagogical matters to the local educational authority. Financially, the act meant that thousands of schools that had been supported by private subscription were put upon the public funds. The evident favoritism of the procedure led to wholesale refusal to pay the school taxes, and some hundreds of convinced Dissenters were haled to court. The bill itself was called the "Bishops' bill,"

which, curiously enough—in a nation that makes a bishop a high grade of public official—passed for a term of reproach. It was, then, a very difficult situation that Mr. Birrell had to meet. On the one hand is a multitude of Church schools and an army of their teachers in actual possession of a public subsidy—and naturally loath to give it up; on the other is a radical body of Nonconformists that will bitterly oppose any sort of religious teaching in State schools except that which pleases the Nonconformist conscience.

The bill drawn in view of these opposing interests is of a pretty drastic sort. The nation will no longer subsidize any denominational school. It will, when necessary or desirable, purchase the buildings of any voluntary school that is in the market. The national authority will not provide religious instruction, but will permit it to be given outside of school hours and free of cost to the funds. But no teacher shall be permitted to give any such religious instruction, nor shall any religious test be applied in the selection of teachers. In other words, the bill really provides for secularizing the schools, with a permissive clause by which parents in the various communities may supply such religious teachings as they desire. Since most of the voluntary schools were, before the Bishops' bill, in a struggling condition, the new act would mean a great diminution in their number. Both within and without the Liberal party such a consummation will be vigorously opposed. Many a Liberal member who is personally convinced of the expediency of the measure, will, should he vote for it, have a sorry time when he next faces his constituency. For Liberalism, however, the conflict is irrepressible. Some time or other British education must be managed according to educational values. If Mr. Birrell's bill becomes law, it should measurably hasten the process of secularizing the schools.

It is not usual with Mr. Asquith, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, to speak strongly on non-political matters, for he is a lawyer whose criticisms are apt to be somewhat cold. But he has just been scoring the London rich of the West End for their indifference to the London poor of the East End. The East London Church Fund supplies Christian workers to 200 parishes, yet, despite appeals, the total annual income is only $100,000, and most of this is made up of the coppers of the poor themselves. The rich, says Mr. Asquith, are not only indifferent, but are becoming more so, for their contributions to the Fund show a decrease almost year by year; and he boldly tells them that the facts of the case are "a scandal and a reproach." Yet it is only fair to bear in mind that the rich of London have innumerable calls made upon them, and that the response they make is by no means ungenerous. They contribute very large sums every year to the hospitals alone. Moreover, few cities are so fortunate as London in having people of rank and wealth who throw themselves with enthusiasm into the work of grappling with misery and sin. Lady Henry Somerset has devoted her life to combating the drink evil; "Father" Adderley, the son of a peer, lived for years in a humble lodging on about 25s. a week, and is now carrying on his social-missionary work in Birmingham; Lord Kinnaird labors unceasingly in similar ways, and there are hundreds of others. They, however, merely throw into relief the callous selfishness of the vast majority of the "smart set."

Nearly thirty years ago the Russian advance into Afghanistan was checked indirectly by the Treaty of Berlin. The recent Japanese success, combined with Lord Curzon's policy, now seems to have put Anglo-Russian relations in Central Asia beyond the possibility of immediate disturbance. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Rouire reviews the dealings of Afghanistan with the two rival European Powers. Afghanistan has become an armed state subordinate to British control, and recognized as such by both Russia and Persia. Lord Curzon in 1904 sent a mission under Mr. William Lane to strengthen the bonds between the new Amir and the Anglo-Indian Government. As the result of a treaty made at that time, Afghanistan can have no political relations with any foreign Power. Great Britain, in return, has agreed not to interfere in the domestic affairs of the border State. This arrangement, which guarantees the existence of Afghanistan as a "buffer" between Russia and India, has caused some dissatisfaction among English extremists who favored colonization in the Amir's country. But experience has shown that such settlements must be perilous so long as the country remains inhospitable to European civilization. All attempts made by Englishmen to gain even a peaceful footing there have met with disaster. The Cavagnari massacre led to Lord Roberts's famous expedition. But a railway has now been built from Peshawar to Dakka, and other changes in the means of transportation have been made to encourage commerce as well as, in case of necessity, to send Indian troops rapidly across the border. There is therefore no reason, thinks M. Rouire, why England should be jealous of Russian influence at Kabul, even as Russia does not apprehend a British encroachment upon Turkestan.

The Hungarian *modus vivendi* bears almost the look of a reconciliation. Magyarists of the stamp of Andrássy, Apponyi, and Kossuth are to serve in the Wekerle Cabinet. This compromise Government has agreed to vote temporary supplies and continue existing tariff and treaty relations in the Diet about to be elected. At the approaching session, a universal-suffrage bill will be passed, and, after the first election on that basis, the Ministry will be reconstituted, according to the parliamentary returns. It will be seen from this outline that the agreement between the Independence party and the Crown is really in the nature of a postponement. To avoid a Constitutional *impasse*, the Hungarian Nationalists consent to take office and to submit the more grievous disputes—the army and language questions—to a popular referendum. To have refrained from pushing an immediate controversy to revolutionary extremities is not necessarily a surrender. The actual compromise, then, indicates merely that the Independence party wishes a delay, and confidently awaits the verdict of liberalized elections. Until the reorganized Diet is in session, it will be impossible to learn whether or not Austro-Hungarian relations are permanently improved. Meantime, the willingness of the chiefs of the Independence party to accept office must pass at least for a notable courtesy, and a striking tribute to the persuasive influence of the venerable Emperor-King.

The Liberal trend of the Russian elections is unmistakable. If the Duma is allowed to make an uncensored utterance on national policy, it will unquestionably advocate a constitution and representative government. Avowed reaction will apparently have no weighty spokesmen; in fact, the reactionists who sit at St. Petersburg will, for the most part, be imposed by fraud upon ignorant districts. To measure the extent to which official interference may cripple the work of the Duma is difficult. It may fairly be assumed, however, that the bureaucratic cabal will hardly dare suspend the sittings or otherwise silence the Assembly. The most encouraging feature about the elections is the fact that a number of well-educated men of the lower classes are chosen. They, it is to be hoped, will be aware of the enormous difficulty of sudden and radical change in the Russian order, ready to accept partial reforms, and content to trust somewhat to time and gradual processes of education. From genuine coöperation between a party of this temper and a great manager like Count Witte much might be hoped. Whatever the outcome of the Duma, the tide has set away strongly from absolutism. No Czar who does not take this fact into account, is likely to enjoy for long the usufruct of the Empire.

FORWARD AFRICA!

From illustrious Plato down to insistent Mr. Wells the Utopists have generally cast their visions of accomplished human destiny in terms of their own city. But just as the slow tide of historical evolution has long since destroyed the hope that the Acropolis might develop into the citadel of perfectionism, so it will as surely destroy the aspirations of Trafalgar Square to be the ovum from which mankind's jubilee is to spring. Indeed, if we gaze into the future, and to do so is markedly a fashion of this new century we move in, we can see not unclearly that nearly all the nations now in the van of progress are rapidly rearing obstacles that must throw them seriously back in what may still be called the struggle for the survival of the fittest. The last few years have produced many symptoms that Africa is not to become a white man's continent, and that the black race may eventually assert its independence, its equality, and, perhaps, in remote centuries, even its superiority. A remarkable article was published at the close of the Boer war by a Western scout who had been employed on Lord Roberts's staff. In this he concluded that, with the methods of warfare involved by the long-range, quick-firing rifle, it would not be many years before the African native, with his superior scouting and physical powers, would meet conscripted European armies with every advantage on his side. The defeat of the Italians by King Menelek's army, the ill success of the Germans against the Hottentots, the recent fighting in Natal, all tend to confirm this very plausible opinion.

It is in Natal that the question of Africa is just at the present beginning to take on a national, or racial, or anti-European aspect. The colonists, surrounded on every side by a black sea, cling strenuously to the dominant race idea—an idea that leads nearly inevitably to the scourge, to the gallows, to injustice, and to brutality. But a policy of repression, the policy of sixteenth-century Spain and nineteenth-century Russia, can be neither successful nor justified at the present day. Already the African has learned enough from the white missionary or from his American brother to perceive something of the realities of his position. And if the rule of the European in Central and Southern Africa is to be long maintained, it must be by the adoption of the best methods of colonization, such as those practised by England in Egypt and India. That such methods can be applied in colonies possessing self-government does not appear possible.

It is important to notice such trends as these just at the moment when the celebration at Tuskegee accentuates other and better facts. There black man and white have met with joy, regard, and hope in their hearts, confident that, while hands may be honestly clasped in a mutual effort towards what is better, the happy and right advance of civilization will continue in the path of peace and good will. This school was not the pioneer in the uplifting of the negro race in this country by means of industrial training. That honor belongs to Hampton and its noble founder, Gen. Armstrong. But the wonderful growth of the newer school is noteworthy because it represents a remarkable creative and constructive effort on the part of the colored people themselves. It was started by a colored man of little schooling, and was made world-famous by its great principal, Booker T. Washington. Its buildings are almost wholly the work of its own students, and its teachers to-day are colored people, while those at Hampton are nearly all white. True, most of Tuskegee's endowment was contributed by white friends; but this does not alter the fact that in every essential this school is the creation of colored people, with their own ideals and their own leaders. It was a favorite theory for decades, and still is in some quarters, that the negro is merely imitative and never constructive. The originality displayed in the development of Tuskegee ought, it seems to us, to put that fallacy to rest.

It is, of course, undeniable that Tuskegee has been singularly fortunate in its principal. Mr. Washington, as Mr. Choate has pointed out, is one of the four or five Americans whose names are widely known abroad. No other colored man of to-day has developed equal talents. And yet most of the small industrial schools which have sprung up all over the South as a result of the inspiration and success of Hampton and Tuskegee are managed by colored men and women of much promise and of unusual soundness of judgment. It is the double duty of these schools to produce leaders for the race among the teachers while training the children. But behind them all lies the colored people's thirst for knowledge. Were the desire to rise confined only to a few, Mr. Washington could never have built up such an institution as he has done. Granted that thousands upon thousands of negroes in the South are idle and worthless, there are hundreds of thousands of others whose zeal for the advancement of their children is in every way comparable to that of the bulk of the whites. The very obstacles and the persecution the negro has had to encounter have stimulated him to press on to overcome the conventional Southern feeling about him and his future. Surely a race which, starting with nothing, has accumulated within forty-three years of emancipation property roughly estimated at 450 millions of dollars, has a record to be proud of.

When the history of this movement is written, Mr. Washington's share in it will seem even greater than is believed to-day. He has not merely devoted himself with rare single-mindedness to the work in hand; he has steadfastly declined to have his attention drawn away from the industrial development of the race by those of his own people who would have him lead the campaign against their political wrongs. For Mr. Washington to approve of race discrimination or prejudice would, of course, be impossible. That he is opposed to disfranchisement, save on equal terms with the whites, he has plainly affirmed. But he has chosen to be the educational leader of his people, preaching the doctrine of industry and thrift as the great need of the hour. And in this he is right. To some one else must be assigned the political leadership, and the more the race grows in wealth and knowledge and efficiency, the greater and more effective will be its steadily swelling protest against the theory that honest Americans may be disfranchised merely because of color.

That so rare a leader as Mr. Washington should still, after a quarter-century, be begging for the necessary endowment for his work is the shade upon the recent celebration. No friend of his people wishes him to stop altogether his speaking tours. Wherever he goes, North, South, East, or West, he educates whites and blacks alike by his addresses, precisely as his 'Up from Slavery' has opened the eyes of hundreds of thousands who never before understood the work that Hampton, Tuskegee, and their kindred schools are trying to do, or the possibilities of the colored people. But to carry on a moral propaganda is one thing; to have to beg, year in, year out, for the means to keep the doors of the school open, is an oppressively onerous undertaking. Yet this is Mr. Washington's position, and even more that of Dr. H. B. Frissell, Hampton's devoted principal. The service of these men to the country cannot be estimated in dollars and cents. Their precious strength ought not to be spent in appealing for $25 here and $50 there.

Only $5,000,000 would give both these schools the endowment they need. It is but half the cost of the latest battleship upon which the country is asked to squander money. The one is a barbaric instrument of death and destruction, likely to be relegated to the scrap-heap any day, and certain to be within fifteen years; the two schools are doing most efficiently a splendid service to the whole country, and the more honest and industrious American citizens they turn out, the more they add to the wealth and prosperity and happiness of the nation, the nearer they bring the solution of our greatest national problem. The best white men of the South see this. The appeal to generous Americans

should be irresistible. Mr. Carnegie has pointed the way by his recognition of Tuskegee. A modest citizen of Orange, A. J. Dotger, recently left, contingently, the splendid sum of $650,000, the bulk of his fortune, without having seen Tuskegee. Surely the comparatively small amount these two great Southern schools need must soon be forthcoming.

THE CHICAGO ELECTION.

The election of Tuesday week in Chicago was important both directly and indirectly, both locally and generally. When, on April 4, 1905, Mayor Dunne was elected, by more than 20,000 majority, upon the platform of "immediate" ownership of the street railways, the result was hailed as a sort of signal for a municipal-ownership movement throughout the United States. To a certain extent it was so. The Chicago example undoubtedly had much effect in New York. It helped shape our canvass of last November, and had much to do with bringing on the Hearst candidacy. Hence we are all interested in trying to read aright the lesson of the recent voting in Chicago.

In general, the electoral battle appears to have been nearly drawn. By a majority of less than 4,000, the city voted to approve the issue of $75,000,000 street railway certificates, for the purpose of buying in the property of the various companies as their franchises lapse. By an equally narrow majority, it was voted that the City Council "proceed without delay to secure the municipal ownership and operation of the street railways." This, of course, has no legal effect in itself; and, on the other hand, the popular vote in favor of municipal operation did not amount to the required three-fifths—it being about 120,000 for to 110,000 against. These figures are to be contrasted with Mayor Dunne's vote of 161,000 a year ago and the crushing majorities—nearly 100,000—by which the proposals were then carried to put a stop to private ownership of street railways. All told, the net result must be regarded as showing a chilling of the movement in Chicago. Mayor Dunne frankly admits his "disappointment." The Hearst papers practically confess that they have met a defeat. The Mayor announces that he will at once issue the $75,000,000 certificates to buy up the roads. It should be said, however, that the constitutionality of the law authorizing such securities is yet to be tested in the courts. In any case, "immediate" operation seems farther away than ever, though Mayor Dunne talks cheerfully of asking another referendum soon. The more sensible course would seem to be to lease the purchased roads to new companies under guarantees of an adequate return to the city treasury and an improved service.

One plain lesson of it all, which advocates of municipal ownership should lay to heart, is that steadiness of purpose and tenacity of conviction cannot be counted upon in a large electorate. Voters may seem to "rise as one man" in demanding something one year, only to have it discovered a twelvemonth later that they have ceased to care very much about it, or are off in full cry after something else. After such a supposed "conclusive demonstration of the popular will" as was offered in the Chicago election of 1905, there is an inevitable reaction. The falling off occurs at both ends. Conservatively minded voters begin to think of pulling up; the radicals impatiently desire to go further and faster. Two of Mayor Dunne's most ardent champions of a year ago—Clarence Darrow and young Joseph M. Patterson—left him disgustedly in the present canvass. Their stomachs craved the stronger meat of Socialism. Then there is always a great mass of rather colorless voters who go along enthusiastically with any popular movement, but who have no root in them, and get tired of the whole thing when difficulties arise or delays ensue. After a year of "immediate" municipal ownership leading no whither, they impatiently cry out, "Oh, don't bother us any more about it!"

Furthermore, it is impossible to escape political entanglements. No such issue as municipal ownership can long be kept single and whole. Other matters sprang up in the Chicago election to confuse the public mind. There was the high-license question. In their absorption with that, many voters forgot all about municipal ownership and operation. Then, too, the labor unions rose to inquire what there was in it for them. Their devotion to the principle of municipal ownership was strictly limited by their desire to advance their own interests thereby. Unless they could be assured that municipal employees would be permitted to organize, no municipal ownership for them. Mayor Dunne, with what appears to have been too much of a willingness to create a political machine in that way, agreed that the street-railway employees should be allowed, under city ownership, to organize—only, of course, they "must not strike." Leave that to them! We mention the matter here, however, merely to show what confusing issues were involved with municipal ownership in the Chicago election. Until American politics changes its spots, that sort of mixing of questions is sure to be with us.

Fickleness and confusion are, of course, an old political phenomenon in democracies, but they go ill with far-seeing business management. If Chicago is ready to invest $75,000,000 this year, but next year will be thinking only of how to get out of the enterprise altogether, the inevitable waste and loss are evident. Detailed administration of a great business requires a fixity of purpose and a steadfastness of popular attention which our politics, whether municipal or national, has never yet yielded. This fact is certainly one that the municipal owners must reckon with and meet, if they can. Their arguments are those of far-sighted business men; yet the political forces they have to work with are as unstable as water. However that may be, we think the other large cities of the country will be quite content to stand aside for a time and watch municipal ownership in the interesting experiment station at Chicago.

ABUSES OF CRIMINAL APPEAL.

In the last *Atlantic*, Mr. George W. Alger recurs to a theme, "Criminal Law Reform," upon which we have lately heard many warning voices of weight. The well-known writer on law, Professor Wigmore, has protested against the "exaltation of technicalities" in behalf of "the man who upon the record plainly appears to be the villain the jury have pronounced him to be." Secretary Taft and the President himself have spoken of this serious evil from the point of view of public men, while Judge Brewer has dwelt upon it as it appears to a member of the judiciary. To prevent absolutely the scandals and abuses which spring out of our right of unlimited appeal in criminal cases, Judge Brewer would have us adopt the English system, which admits of no appeal at all.

It happens, however, that the English system is at this moment on the point of being altered. A bill is now on its passage through Parliament to establish a Court of Criminal Appeal. The present denial of appeal is not absolute. If a judge trying a case thinks fit to reserve a point of law, it can be taken to the Court of Crown Cases Reserved. But this is purely at the option of the trial justice. There are also the infrequent instances of indirect appeal by *certiorari*, for the purpose of bringing up the case, both as to law and fact, in the King's Bench. But, as the Lord Chancellor declared, such cases are "very rare," and "no matter how bad a law may be that the judge laid down, there is at the present moment no means of obtaining redress in any court of appeal in this country." Resort may, of course, be had to the Home Secretary, who will grant a pardon if extreme injustice has been done; but his function is that of governmental clemency rather than judicial review. Several gross miscarriages of justice in recent years, notably that in the person of Adolf Beck, have roused a popular demand that the country cease to stand almost alone among civilized nations in having no court of criminal appeal. The contrast with the practice in civil suits is glaring. In any action involving as much as £100, ap-

peal may be taken all the way to the House of Lords.

It must not be thought that the English are about to embark on that trackless sea of indefinite and technical appeal of which Mr. Alger describes the perils. It is a strictly limited procedure that is contemplated. A new court will be created, and the Home Secretary will have power to send to it cases which present intricate and puzzling features. Judicial machinery to weigh evidence, as well as to pronounce upon the law, will be provided, and then it will be expected to work promptly. Especial stress is laid upon speedy determination in murder cases. Said one law Lord: "The country would not permit that a man sentenced to death should be kept with the sentence hanging over him for a month or six weeks until the court of appeal had given judgment." What would he think of Patrick, arrested for murder in 1900, and under sentence of death since 1902, but still arguing appeals?

Lesser criminals, under our loose system of appeal and the growing fondness of the higher courts for reversing the lower on the barest technicalities, too easily go unwhipped of justice. Mr. Alger states the unpleasant fact that every one of the St. Louis boodlers whom Mr. Folk sent to jail has been released, all the convictions having been set aside by the Supreme Court of Missouri. In one of the worst cases, that of Faulkner, the higher court did not question that he had a record "reeking with venality," but reversed the lower court because of two trifling errors in applying the rules of evidence, and a nice "variance" "between the indictment and an instruction." It is this predilection of judges of appeal which gives to criminal lawyers their great opportunity to make a dragging farce of what should be a swift drama of justice. They try their worst cases, not with the idea of clearing their clients, but of trapping the trial justice. Their men are to be acquitted, if at all, not by a jury, but by the judges higher up. So they plan their case from the first for an appeal, and exert all their ingenuity for the purpose, not of showing the innocence of the accused, but of laying a good foundation for "going up." As Mr. Alger tersely puts it:

> "In many of the States a criminal trial means two things. It means not only the sifting of the evidence of guilt or innocence of an accused person—it means also a rigid schoolboy's examination of the trial judge on the law. If the accused be found guilty on sufficient evidence, but the judge has not passed a perfect examination, there must be a new trial."

Between the absence of criminal appeal in England and the very riot of it in this country, there must lie a practicable mean. It is for our bar and our judges to find it, and for our legislatures to make it effective. When the law's uncertainties are added to the law's delays, the burden becomes too great. There can be no doubt that our practice has gone too far in making every kind of legal refinement and quiddity turn out to the advantage of unquestioned criminals. Law reformers should not rest till they have done something to make justice among us more certain and more swift.

TEACHING LITERATURE IN COLLEGES.

An American university teacher of literature who sojourns at Paris is very likely to excite something between admiration and ridicule on the part of his French comrades. They marvel that an expounder of Greek, for example, has read only a small portion of the Iliad and Odyssey, though he be, perhaps, an acknowledged authority on Apollonius Rhodius. It strikes them as strange that a professor of Latin may be ignorant of Lucretius, but learned in Oscan and Umbrian morphology. Their amazement knows no bounds when they learn that an American professor of French has read only desultorily beyond the twelfth century, but is preparing a *magnum opus* on the sub-variety of the Wallon patois. They think it grotesque that a doctor in German literature should have an intimate acquaintance with the psalmist Notker and the Minnesänger, but know Lessing, Herder, and Heine only casually. From such instances the critical Gaul of the *Pays Latin* infers that American professors are preferably trained in subjects they are not to teach, and that governing boards gladly appoint professors to teach subjects they do not know.

Only on that theory can budding doctors whose university studies have been almost exclusively philological and extra-literary, be set to teach the literatures of classic and modern times. A very little observation of the incumbents of the best chairs of literature, ancient or modern, in this country will show that for this service philological training is regarded as indispensable, whereas the ability either to produce or to teach literature as such is regarded as wholly negligible. If a doctor emerges from the purlieus of Anglo-Saxon devotional translations, or of Middle English doggerel romance, with any capacity for forming or conveying general ideas, say, on Shaksperian drama or the poetry of Wordsworth, why, that is so much good luck; it is nowise nominated in his bond of appointment. Not only are hundreds of our graduate students untrained as regards literature; they are also expressly trained away from any fruitful thinking on that topic. Why is it that we are privately informed of each and every philologer in a chair of *belles-lettres* that his personal appreciation of literature is exquisite, but seldom get such a testimonial from his undergraduate classes? It is simply because men who for years have made a fetish of so-called scientific method distrust their own admirations, regard speculation of a comprehensive or humane sort as so much dilettanteism, and accordingly are ashamed to present to generous youth the kind of provender it most needs.

Research, falsely so called, and scientific method have tyrannized over our university education chiefly because they afford a ready road by which mediocrity may proceed to academic honors. From the truly difficult task of teaching what great literary movements mean in their social and æsthetic implications, our university professors have shrunk. It is easier to teach the Indo-European "ablaut rows"; as easy, in fact, as to teach the multiplication table. It is difficult for a modern intelligence to coordinate and interpret the enormous mass of reading required in genuine literary research; it is open to the merest gradgrind to tabulate a grammatical construction in a score of texts otherwise unnoted and unread. Because it is easy for men of a merely plodding sort to teach philology, and difficult to teach literature, literature is neglected. Because men of no training have taught literature with unballasted ecstasy and cheap phrase-making, men of good training fear to teach it at all.

With linguistics and the minutiæ of literary history, we have no quarrel. We hold in heartiest admiration the kind of scholarship represented in this country by Goodwin and Gildersleeve, by the late Francis J. Child and his successor, Professor Kittredge. The trouble is that studies for which only a few individuals have a real vocation are imposed upon all graduate students in lieu of the more discursive and humane training that should fit them for a life-work of teaching. Nobody can blame the exponents of the philological school for getting all the academic advantages they can for themselves and their pupils. Strong personality and singleness of aim will usually prevail over a more suave and dispersed activity. The philological syndicate is omnipotent in American education chiefly because its literary opponents have, as a class, been so weak. Blame lies, however, with the college authorities who have blindly accepted philological as the equivalent of literary training.

That literary study may be as severe and disciplinary as philology itself, has been learned in France, at least. There the University—the collective educational authority of the State—accepts no candidate in literature who has not some historical background and training. But the university curriculum of a professor of literature is, strange to say, literary. He devotes himself to the

authors he is actually to teach in the college or lyceum. He has before him such models as Faguet, Lanson, and, until lately, Brunetière. He learns not merely the history of literature, but the art of clear and effective writing. By examination he qualifies for a position as a professor. If he desires the degree of Docteur ès Lettres, he gradually prepares, while he is teaching, a thesis that represents a personal predilection and is usually a thorough, well-considered, and readable contribution to literary history or criticism. Compare with this decent, orderly, and progressive course that of the average American university student of letters. He spends three or four years studying subjects that he will rarely teach, and which, in bulk, he will repudiate on the day of his liberation. He produces under stress, and merely to gain the needful hallmark of a Doctorate in Philosophy, an inchoate dissertation that preposterously passes for "a contribution to the sum of human knowledge." Then for the first time he really begins to study the literature which he is called upon to teach—in whose name he has devoted the best years of his youth to extra-literary pursuits.

It rests with real lovers of literature to combat this delusion. The serious teachers of literature might do worse than practise the "means of arriving" so successfully used in the philological camp. Above all, university presidents should go beneath "cathedral" nomenclature and learn what is said to be taught, what is best worth teaching, and what is actually taught in their universities. It may some day occur to this class of leaders that literature is not merely a label in four syllables that may be clapped on any philological back, but that it actually connotes a worthy and most useful department of study. From this point of view, Mr. Bliss Perry's appointment to a chair of literature at Harvard is welcome. It shows that wide reading, good judgment, ability to teach and inspire, and capacity to handle the English language with tact still count for something without the panache of original research of the "cold frame" order.

A TRIUMPH OF FREE TRADE OR OF SOCIALISM?

LONDON, March 22, 1906.

Recent debates in Parliament reveal two facts, none the less noteworthy because the existence of the first is denied by the Opposition, while the importance of the second is ignored by the Ministry.

First, the rout of the Unionists is due to the disastrous attack on "Free Trade," as that term is understood by ordinary Englishmen. Secondly, the crowds who rallied to the support of Free Trade were, to use the political slang of the day, "Free Foodders." Whether they were Free Traders in any wide sense of that term is dubious; they were assuredly not disciples of the old Manchester school. The ideas of Cobden and Bright, and of those Liberals who more or less shared their convictions, formed something like a coherent political creed. Peace and retrenchment were, in the eyes of the great Free Traders, as important as Free Trade itself. Every innovation or reform advocated by the Manchester school was, in truth, an expression of the individualism which taught that the prosperity of a country depended on the development of individual freedom and of individual energy, and that State intervention, which was at best a necessary evil, became an evil for which there was no necessity at all when State aid enfeebled self-help. No human being can believe that this is the spirit of the majority of those electors who support the present Government.

To see that this is so, let us fix our eyes upon the attitude of members of Parliament towards retrenchment. The Premier, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and other members of the Cabinet may wish to cut down the national expenditure; and every man, whatever his political sympathies, of course wishes to diminish the money spent on objects for which he has no desire. But this is a very different thing from the passion for economy which actuated a generation among whom Joseph Hume exerted acknowledged influence. Consider the language of a leader among the Labor party who can speak freely because he is out of office. Mr. Keir Hardie said

"that whilst he and the bulk of his colleagues believed in Free Trade, they could not find that Free Trade itself had solved the unemployed problem, had provided for the necessity of the aged poor, or had solved the social problem. He had, at the outset, entered a caveat against the time being given to this motion at all. He repeated that now with emphasis. They had wasted a day and a half of valuable time in discussing an issue which was a foregone conclusion; time which might have been profitably spent in redeeming some of those promises upon the strength of which the Government won so handsomely at the late election. Whilst he and his friends should vote against the amendment, it must be understood that in so doing they were not committing themselves to the theory that Free Trade was the issue upon which they won their election. It was an incident in the election campaign; but the great question upon which they won was the condition of the people, and the need for having a party in the House *which was tied neither to Free Trade nor to Protection, but was free to use its time in any way necessary to bring about social reform.*"

Let these words, and especially those I have underlined, be read with care. They are the language not of any Cobdenite or genuine Free Trader, but of a man who desires that neither Free Trade nor Protection should hinder the lavish expenditure of the nation's wealth on what he terms "social reform," or what opponents might describe as "socialistic revolution." Turn now to the words of Mr. Asquith. He is among the ablest and most respected of the Ministry. As Chancellor of the Exchequer he is in a special sense the guardian of the nation's purse. He, rightly enough, calls the attention of the House to its own love for expenditure, which really means the passion of the electors for schemes that involve heavy taxation.

"Let me point out," he said on the 14th of March, "to both sides of the House that the worst offenders in this matter are not the heads of the spending departments. Who are they? The members of the House of Commons. [Hear, hear.] Just let me ask the House to remember how it has been engaged since it came here just a month ago. As soon as we had disposed of the address, an honorable gentleman, I think sitting there [indicating the benches occupied by the Labor party] raised a demand for free postage for members of Parliament, a return to the old system of franking which was abolished because of the abuses it had led to and also its enormous cost. [Hear, hear.] The next day the House proceeded to pass, with unanimity, the second reading of a bill to provide free meals for all the underfed children in our elementary schools. [Hear, hear.] They followed that up, I think the next night or the next night but one, by recording, by an enormous majority, the necessity of throwing the burden of returning officers' expenses off the shoulders of members of Parliament and candidates upon the public. [Hear, hear.] And it finished up the week [laughter] by passing, with an enormous majority, a motion declaring the urgent necessity of voting out of public funds a stipend of not less than £300 a year to each one of its own members. [Laughter and cheers.] A very good week's work for a Parliament elected to promote retrenchment and economy. [Opposition cheers.]"

These words should be read and reread. Circumstances add to them untold significance. They are part of a speech in favor of founding a system, at some date unfixed, of old-age pensions provided at the expense of the nation. The desired system has not yet been thought out by any responsible statesman. No man ventures to assert with confidence what may be the expense it will entail. The estimates of experts vary from £10,000,000 to £13,000,000 or £26,000,000 a year. The resolution asserting the desirability of this innovation is voted by the House of Commons without opposition. These facts tell their own tale. The alleged Free Trade triumph is a protest against all taxes on food, but, when critically examined, looks far more like a victory of Socialism than of Cobdenism. AN OBSERVER.

PRINTS AND DRAWINGS AT THE INTERNATIONAL.

LONDON, March, 1906.

To open in London an exhibition on a large scale that shall consist entirely of prints and drawings, to make it interesting and representative, to arrange it so it will be effective as well, is to achieve a triumph. This is what the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers has done. In the second section of its sixth exhibition, it has filled the New Gallery with the sort of work that in most London shows is thrust away in odd corners where no one would think of penetrating in search of it. Much of the sculpture remains as I have described it in the first section of the exhibition—M. Rodin's "Baiser," Constantin Meunier's and Mr. Bartlett's bronzes; and to these have been added an athlete and an Amazon in bronze by Franz Stuck, and examples of the work of Rosso, which certain people have raved about as the new impressionistic sculpture, and which the members of the International, whatever they may think of it, are quite willing to show, exhibition being the fairest test for experiments and for new departures. But in the three large rooms and the balcony, pictures have been exchanged for etchings, engravings, and lithographs, pastels, water-colors, and black-and-white drawings in every me-

dium. It is astonishing how well these things, the most difficult of all to hang, have been spaced and grouped so as to produce a fine decorative effect. The endeavor has been to represent each exhibitor by a characteristic series, and to keep his work together—to make virtually a succession of "one-man shows"; and the various groups have been so well balanced and distributed that unity, not discord or confusion, is the result. When you come to look at the work itself, the discrimination and care with which it has been selected will seem no less astonishing.

Of course, within the limits of the New Gallery, the collection could not be as exhaustive as it is representative, and gaps might, no doubt, be pointed out. But, on the other hand, the work is as international as the name of the Society, and, moreover, gives a fair idea of what is best and most individual and independent in the art of each country represented. It is some years now since one began to notice in the Salons at Paris, especially the New Salon, the immensely interesting experiments that artists were making on metal and stone and wood. Much of the most successful achievement that has come out of this experimenting has a place in the French group, together with the studies and drawings of men who are the most distinguished artists and strongest draughtsmen now at work anywhere. The chief centre, naturally, is reserved for M. Rodin, the present president of the society. I am afraid the remarkable series of his drawings—genuine notes and memoranda—have bewildered the British public, who do not care for that sort of thing anyway, and can be induced to put up with it only when the notes and memoranda are faithful imitations of the Old Masters. M. Rodin, in recording his impressions of a pose, of movement, or of grouping, has evolved for himself a scheme of drawing that is extremely interesting, more like the Pompeiian frescoes or the Etruscan decorations as one sees them on the old vases; and the examples now at the International form a series of color harmonies of great beauty, and, therefore, quite unappreciated in England. They are not, indeed, appreciated at their true value even in France, where it has become the fashion for the critic to wait for what England, or America, or Germany may say before venturing upon an opinion of his own. With these drawings hang Rodin's etchings—portraits of Victor Hugo, Antonin Proust, Henri Becque, and "La Ronde"—all too well known to be described again, but important here as reminders of how carefully and with what finish—finish in the right sense—Rodin can draw.

Another Frenchman who is less experimentalist than master, is Degas; and the fans with the decorative arrangement of ballet dancers, the rare landscapes in pastel, are beautiful examples of his work. The vigorous draughtsmanship of Louis Legrand in his pastels and etchings, of Forain in his pen-and-chalk drawings, of Léandre in his studies, make the sham Old Masterly performances in the same mediums of certain Englishmen who are the mode of the moment—a mode which I hope is not to be imported into New York by way of the Metropolitan Museum—seem sadly and feebly amateurish; while you have only to look at the splendid richness of the water colors by Luigini, Latouche, and Rouault to admit how much wiser it is to develop a medium than to carry it no further than the first tentative essays by the earlier craftsmen. In England, just now, one sees far too many sham Girtins, sham Cozzenses, sham Cotmans. The wonder is that the Englishman really does not go back to his real Primitives and paint himself blue!

The larger part of the French collection is made up of prints—etchings by Legrand, Chahine; etchings in color by Villon, Cottet, Latouche; lithographs by Lautrec, Lunois, Léandre, Blanche, Belle Roche—prints, these, by men whose reputation has long been assured everywhere save in England. Fortunately, the International is too liberal to refuse the good work of a man who happens to be dead. Manet's etchings have been included, and a remarkable collection of the less well-known etchings, lithographs, and water colors of Camille Pissarro—sketches of the streets and squares of Paris and Rouen, of fields and meadows and peasants, notes of color, light, movement, which preserve all the first vividness and freshness of the impression.

The German section has been another and still more startling revelation to the English, not only because of the quality of the work, the sudden realization that even art is "made in Germany," and by artists never before heard of on this side the Channel, but because of the number of fine things by artists whose names have become too famous to be ignored by the most artless of people. Adolf Menzel was an honorary member of the Royal Academy, but it has been left to the International to give the first notable showing of his prints and drawings attempted in London since his death. The German museums have for long been collecting Menzels, and most museums object to lending their treasures to a private body. However, the National Gallery at Berlin was induced to contribute, a few private owners were generous, and all one side of the large room has been filled by his most characteristic etchings and lithographs, watercolors and drawings; marvellous studies (some of them portraits of German statesmen and generals) for his paintings, epoch-making illustrations, even several from the "Uniforms of the Army of Frederick the Great." The Society has managed, too, to make a little "one-man show" of Böcklin, who was an honorary member, and whose work is almost as difficult to get from the museums, that mostly own it, as Menzel's. A number of his chalk drawings have been lent, principally studies for "The Pest" and other pictures; very powerful, very personal, and, like the notes of Rodin, a curious contrast to the self-conscious so-called studies of the modern British critically labelled genius, seeking to be original by borrowing the methods of artists who worked years or centuries ago, under totally different conditions, in a totally different stage of development. The German prints are chiefly by Liebermann, Klinger, Otto Fischer, Otto Greiner, Käthe Kollvitz, one of the strongest women artists at work to-day; Emil Orlik, Otto Gampert. Where so much is good, it is impossible for me to speak of everything in detail. Besides, I want more especially, by explaining what the exhibition includes, to demonstrate what an innovation it is for the International to have organized it. I have seen many of the prints already in French, German, and Belgian shows. New to me, however, are the wood blocks printed in color by Emil Orlik, who, in his use of flat tints and simple color schemes, has learnt a great deal from the Japanese, while going to them for many of his motives. I was struck, too, with the excellent designs of the big, cheap colored lithographs, now published in Germany, mainly, I understand, to hang in school rooms: models of what such prints ought to be. In the midst of all these things, it was with something of a shock, but a shock of pleasure, that I came upon three huge water-colors by Van Bartels, who works in this medium much as if it were oil.

The American section has been quite as great a surprise for the Englishman who is ready to believe that when he has seen the work of American artists living in London, he has seen everything America can produce in the way of art. The gaps are not a few in this section, but what work has a place is representative. The wood engravings of Mr. Cole and Mr. Wolf prove that America, however practical, has still the leisure and, what is more, the sense to cultivate and appreciate an art considered over here too commercially out of date to be encouraged, and not even in France producing anything to surpass the work of these two men. There are also the etchings of Otto Backer, Charles Platt, Dr. S. MacLaughan, Joseph Pennell, and the dry points of Miss Mary Cassatt, as well as two of her delightful experiments in color-printing. Then there are water-colors—dramatic seas by Mr. Woodbury, Canadian types by Mr. Hallowell, arrangements of steam and smoke by Mr. Horton, sky-scrapers by Mr. Cooper. If I pass over these lightly, it is only because they are already known at home, and because, as I have said, where so much good work is exhibited, I can do no more than suggest the general character of the collection. The pastels of Mr. Fromuth and Mr. Muhrman, the charcoals of Mr. Mura, have been often seen before in London; but seldom, if ever, drawings for reproduction by Guérin, Brennan, and McCarter, Elizabeth Shippen Green, Jessie Wilcox Smith, Violet Oakley, Sarah Stillwell, Charlotte Harding. This is absolutely the first time, as well as I can remember, that American illustrations have been seen to such advantage in London. The selection is much better than it was in the case of the American pictures sent to the first section of the exhibition.

The Dutch exhibitors are overpowered by Bauer, whose etchings make an impressive group; among them those huge plates, Oriental in subject, that are in entire contradiction to the law of size laid down by Whistler, but a contradiction so splendid and vigorous as to be a law unto itself. The Belgians, in their turn, are overshadowed by Constantin Meunier. But to this there can be no objection, for in his drawings and water colors one can see how carefully and elaborately he studied the miners and laborers who were the models for his bronzes, still in the central court. It adds further to the interest of these drawings that they should appear in the

same exhibition with the studies of Rodin. Nothing could well be more different than the way these two great sculptors have gone about their work, nothing more different than their notes and memoranda. Fernand Khnopff cannot be effaced even by Meunier, for this year he is once more the Khnopff who charmed by the tenderness of his sentiment and the beauty of his handling. He has only one drawing, a very large interior of a church, cool, gray, solemn, mysterious, with a mystery that is much more nobly conceived and rendered than the symbolism of Rops, a few of whose etchings are exhibited. From the Scandinavians there is little, but that little includes an almost, if not quite, complete collection of Zorn's etchings, and two of Thaulow's large color prints. It must be confessed that as these prints by Thaulow increase in popularity, they grow more commonplace. This year they have slight, if any, distinction in subject and composition, and they repeat the elaborate color scheme it is not the business of the printer to get out of an etched plate, or, for that matter, out of a plate or block of any kind.

The British section is the least interesting of all, and yet pains have been taken to select the best that British artists have accomplished in the various mediums classed under the division of "Graving." The British work looks sad and heavy and lifeless, without the brilliancy of the French, the determination of the German, the intelligence of the American. Color is dulled, experiment stifled, achievement lowered. There are exceptions, it is true. The color prints by Mr. Morley Fletcher and his pupil, Mr. Seaby, have the right feeling for the use of color and the due deference to the limitations of the wood block. They hang side by side with the color work of Orlik, and they can stand the test. The lithographs by Mr. Edmund J. Sullivan, with such ambitious motives as "The Awakening of Chaos," "Icarus," "Tithonus," are good, strong examples of the color and depth and variety the stone can be made to yield, and Mr. C. H. Shannon also has a fine lithograph. Mr. Brabazon's simple notes in water color and pastel are suggestive, though the tendency in England is to overrate them inordinately. They cannot compare, for instance, with the water colors of Mr. Mann Livens, who is still almost unknown, though his work is much more personal than Mr. Brabazon's far-away reëchoes of Turner. Mr. Crawhall and Mr. Swann can draw animals better than almost any modern artist, but Mr. Crawhall has shown far stronger and more spirited designs than those by which he is now represented. Other exceptions are Sir Charles Holroyd's etchings, a drawing by Mr. Pryde, a big water color on silk by Mr. Conder, as dainty a decoration as you could house, and still others might be discovered. But the bulk of the British work is terribly pretentious and absolutely commonplace. It is just the other way in the foreign sections. There the commonplace is the exception. And, seeing this, you realize what a great work the Society, by keeping to its liberal international standard, has already accomplished in England; what an influence for good it is bound to exert on the art of the country if it can but continue in the way pointed out by its first president, Whistler, and hitherto more or less faithfully adhered to, despite opposition and ridicule and abuse. N. N.

Correspondence.

"NEW LIGHT ON AMERICAN HISTORY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Anent the communication under the above heading in the last issue of the *Nation*, permit me to supply, at least in part, the hiatus in the memory of the German professor. The statement he had in mind is contained in a work published in Cincinnati and Leipzig, in 1847, entitled 'Geschichte und Zustände der Deutschen in Amerika,' Franz Loeher author. In the chapter describing the growing preponderance of the English over the German-speaking population of Pennsylvania occurs the paragraph which the professor had in mind. It is as follows:

"We need, therefore, be no longer surprised that, also in politics, in the courts and other public deliberations, the English gradually obtained the leadership and introduced their language, at least in the principal assemblages. Nevertheless, this was not easy in Pennsylvania. When deciding whether the ruling (*herrschende*) language in the Legislature, in the courts and public documents of the State should be German, the votes were tied. One-half were cast for introducing the German as the legal language, which is of great significance when one reflects that it was intended to make a State German which had heretofore been English. The speaker of the Assembly, one Mühlenberg, by his vote gave the decision in favor of the English language."

The author omits mention of the date of the session when this vote is stated to have been taken, and it will require the aid of a student of early Pennsylvania history to verify or disprove the incident.

Max Lowenthal.

Rochester, N. Y., April 2, 1906.

OTHER WOODEN-HEADS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "The ligneous English" mind, says your correspondent "Nemus" (*Nation*, March 29). That some fragments of it have escaped across waters wider than the English Channel, take as evidence this clipping of editorial comment, fresh and accurate, from *Appletons' Booklover's Magazine* for the current month:

"The Balfour Government passed away at the end of last year and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was asked by King Edward to form a ministry. Thus the Unionist party in England, after having been in power *almost continuously for nineteen* years, has ceased to exist and its place is taken by *a protectionist organization.*"

Or is it only that particular variety of the wooden that is impenetrable by anything that touches the one subject—our most particular and peculiar protection?

X. Y.

Madison, Wis., April 2, 1906.

Notes.

A volume of symphonic verse, 'The Building of the Organ,' by Nathan Haskell Dole, is in the press of Moffat, Yard & Co.

Forthcoming from Macmillan Co. are A. C. Benson's 'Life of Walter Pater' and W. S. Harwood's 'The New Earth.'

The John C. Winston Co. will issue directly 'Panama: The Isthmus and the Canal,' by C. H. Forbes Lindsay.

Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco, have in in press 'The Garden Book of California,' by Belle Sumner Angier.

We are glad to learn that Signora J. W. Mario's 'Stansfeld-Mazzini' proves to be much more in a condition for publication than the lamented author was inclined to believe. It will, in fact, be given to the light by T. Fisher Unwin.

A work on 'Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition from Alcmæon to Aristotle,' by Prof. John I. Beare, is about to be published by the Oxford University Press, along with an essay on 'The Nature of Truth,' by H. H. Joachim.

Mr. H. C. Moffatt's 'Old Oxford Plate' (London: Archibald Constable & Co.) is intended to serve in some measure as a companion to Messrs. J. E. Foster and F. D. Atkinson's book on 'Old Cambridge Plate,' and to bring into notice a good many specimens practically unknown outside Oxford. It includes all the early ones and as many as the space allows of the finer or more curious seventeenth and eighteenth-century pieces. Over one hundred and thirty are described with their marks and measurements, with brief biographical notices of the donors, and in nearly every instance with an accompanying illustration in photogravure or collotype. The issue is to be limited to two hundred and fifty copies.

Part 4 of Prof. A. De Gubernatis's 'Dictionnaire International des Écrivains du Monde Latin' has just reached us, and carries the biographies from Henriques to Naccari. It pursues the methods and has the qualities described in our references to the earlier parts. It was Prof. De Gubernatis's intention to complete the work in four sections, but he has amassed so much more material than he expected that there will be six parts—about 1,500 pages—in all, which will be distributed to the original subscribers without additional cost. The editor is his own publisher, at Rome.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have brought out a popular (sixth) edition of their translation of the Baroness von Suttner's 'Die Waffen Nieder!'—'Ground Arms!' American readers will find some difficulty in understanding the effect produced by this tract in Europe, as in bringing about the Hague Tribunal, for which the authoress has lately received the Nobel Peace Prize of $40,000. Constructively it shows no literary genius, and its war pictures fall far short of those in Tolstoy's 'War and Peace.' But may its influence be prolonged!

Mr. Paul Fountain, author of 'The Eleven Eaglets of the West' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), evidently belongs to an impressionist school of literature. Like the painter who dashes a splash of color here and another there to produce an effect which it requires a special aptitude to appreciate, he introduces a little natural history, a little science, and a few incidents of travel. Thus he wafts us with dizzying speed over the eleven Rocky Mountain States and Territories which are the "Eleven Eaglets of the West." Fortunately we are spared a flying trip to distant Alaska, with its own

bewildering distances. He starts us from Death Valley, without any premonitory warning as to where Death Valley is; jumps from Death Valley to San Francisco; tells of meeting the pioneer gold-digger in those early days when the Southern Pacific had not yet stretched its rails from end to end of California; gives us a glimpse of the Yosemite; then in a flash carries us, by undefined mountain trails, to within sight of Mount Shasta, a thousand miles to the north. Mr. Fountain has published other books of the same indescribable character, to which he refers us if we wish to repair the geographical lacunæ of this the last which he proposes to write. He tells in some detail of his ascent of Mount Shasta, and of his observation of active fumaroles on a ledge below the summit. Then he launches us into Oregon; and thus he crosses from State to State and Territory, landing us in Nevada near our starting-point, but leaving us generally in doubt whether the conditions he describes were those prevalent during his earlier or his later trip. Any one unfamiliar with that section of the continent would carry away from the perusal of his book a most confused impression of its geographical features, and of either its past or its present social and industrial conditions.

Eugene F. Ware, the well-known Kansas lawyer and politician, has collected and translated the various sections of Roman law relating to the use of water (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) Mr. Ware has arranged the matter by subjects, such as Rivers, Rain Water, Irrigation, Drip, etc., using a consecutive section numbering of his own throughout the volume, but giving a definite reference to his source in each case. The English of the translation sometimes lacks in clearness, but perhaps that is too much to ask of the language of law.

'Chatwit, the Man-talk Bird,' by Philip Verrill Mighels (Harpers), is documentary evidence that the shafts of Mr. Burroughs, reinforced from the White House armory, have not silenced the "new school" of nature writers, who avoid the long and tiresome process of acquainting themselves with the more primitive psychology of animal life by substituting therefor the more varied and interesting psychology of man. We may hope, however, that the recent discussion has established the relation of such literature to genuine natural history sufficiently to curtail its power for harm And yet we should hardly be willing to put the present volume in the hands of a child without impressing upon his mind emphatically the fact that real birds and animals never, *never* act as here represented. The book purports to tell the tale of a talking magpie, "whose loosened tongue and human inclinations gat wrath in the breasts of the West-land animals," and of course that wrath engendered ten thousand woes, and sent many souls of brave birds and animals across the Styx before their natural time.

For nearly fifty years a teacher of the subject, Dr. Austin Flint, the author of repeated treatises, now presents students and practising physicians with a newly written 'Handbook of Physiology' (Macmillan Co.), copiously illustrated in colors as well as in black and white. It neither weighs unsettled questions nor takes up the more recondite theses which require a high general education to comprehend, but it offers to daily workers, for their daily needs, a practical volume whose character the writer's well-established reputation guarantees.

An index of the revolution in the popular and the professional mind as to the curability of tuberculosis is Dr. F. R. Walters's 'Sanatoria for Consumptives' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Dutton). Three hundred of its large octavo pages are practically a universal directory for such sufferers. Doubtless the intention to include all has not been realized; it hardly could be, in view of the rapidity with which sanatoria are springing up, and some of the information is meagre. But the patient who can reach a sanatorium at all, certainly may select here a place suited to his needs. Sixty pages discuss the general principles and methods which these institutions represent.

The French school system—primary, secondary, and superior—clearly and accurately described in a volume of 129 pages and 15 chapters, is a boon that many will welcome with gratitude. This book, by M. Gaston Rouvier, 'L'Enseignement Public en France au début du XXe Siècle,' with a preface by M. Louis Liard (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), is the result of a course of lectures delivered in French by the author at the summer session of the Upsala University in 1903. He very wisely added the more recent school legislation dealing with religious communities that was passed by the Combes Ministry in 1904. All the problems agitated with reference to the secondary-school system and the attempts to put it in harmony with modern needs are well and completely explained. As a merely descriptive book of existing conditions, this leaves very little to be desired, and ought to be in every pedagogical library.

Whoever has followed the recent reaction against chauvinism and militarism in France, with the counter reaction that accompanied it, cannot fail to find much to interest him in the two books by M. Gustave Hervé, 'Leur Patrie' and 'Instruction Civique' (Paris: Bibliographie Sociale; New York: Brentano). The author, who will be remembered as a professor dismissed from the French schools for anti-militarist propaganda and rejected from the Paris bar on the same ground, is now in the Clairvaux State prison, serving a four-years' sentence for having, with a score of other anti-patriots, signed a revolutionary appeal to the young conscripts. The theme that M. Hervé develops in 'Leur Patrie' with brilliant, if not always convincing, logic, is that the fatherland, with its ethnic historical or political ties, groups men of different and widely separate interests, and sets against each other the very men who, by the nature of their economic conditions, ought to stand together. He points out with a good deal of humor the absurdities and follies of the exalted patriots, and urges the Socialists of all countries to stand in time of war not by their country, but by their class. The boldness of M. Hervé's deductions, the absolute contempt that he shows for political expediency and compromise, the terror that his attitude has inspired in his party, give to this brilliant and paradoxical little book a very peculiar flavor. 'Instruction Civique,' written in a more objective spirit, aims at giving to French school children the elements of civics—colored with the author's peculiar ideas. It is a most readable textbook, reliable in its information, humorous in its argumentation. Teachers of French will find it a very useful book of reference on the institutions of present-day France.

The letter L comfortably fills from cover to cover the twelfth volume (sixth edition) of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Relatively speaking—for letters as well as books have their fate—it is not distinguished in our Lexikon's alphabet. The conspicuously great names are Lessing and Luther; and Leipzig, Liverpool, London, and Lyons are the chief cities among not a few charted plainly or in color—in the latter case always with an index of names. Leipzig, Leuthen, and Ligny furnish the great battlefields. Lhassa is brought up to date with a bibliography of the Younghusband expedition. Under *Landesaufnahme* there is a notable survey of Government cartography in the principal countries of the earth. Under *Literatur* a synchronous conspectus by tabulation is attempted; and here the United States is reduced to its lowest terms. It has no column to itself, but, tucked away under England in the period since 1830, we find: "American humorists: Aldrich, Bret Harte, Mark Twain." Shades of Holmes and Lowell at least! Lowell has a respectable article to himself in his alphabetic place in this volume. Other interesting rubrics are Ballooning, Lungs and the Diseases thereof, Lithography, and Life Insurance; but here again the editors are at fault, for, in the reference to American life insurance, there is not a word regarding the revelations of the past half year.

The Proceedings of the Scottish Antiquaries for 1904-1905 (vol. xxxix., 4th Series, vol. iii.) is a number of more than usual interest. It contains reports on no less than four sets of excavations, undertaken by the Society or by private persons, in different parts of Scotland, viz., on the excavations at Fethaland and Trowie Knowe, Shetland, by the Hon. John Abercromby, on the excavations of stone-circles in Kincardineshire and Aberdeenshire by Mr. Fred. R. Coles, of forts on the Poltalloch estate, Argyll, and of Rough Castle on the Antonine Vallum by Dr. Christison and Mr. Mungo Buchanan. The bulk of the other papers are descriptions of stone coffins and sculptured or inscribed stones (very interesting is Dr. Christison's account of the Kirkyard Monuments of the Lowlands), and of finds of prehistoric and Romano-British vessels and ornaments, burial urns, caldrons, coins, etc. "The Ornament of the Beaker Class of Pottery," by Mr. Abercromby, continued from volume xxxviii., is particularly suggestive. Of the remaining article we mention only the "Pigmies' Isle," by Mr. Mackenzie—the pigmies, it would seem, are none other than the fairies. The book has upwards of three hundred illustrations, and may be obtained from Neil & Co., Edinburgh.

The *Geographical Journal* for March opens with a preliminary report, by Mr. C. G. Seligmann, of the Daniels Ethnographical Expedition to British New Guinea. There is much interesting information as to the natives, their homes, manners of life, boats and totems, as well as a description of

the regions visited. Major Gibbons, chief of a commission appointed to examine the Guas Ngishu plateau in East Africa, the region offered to the Zionists for a Jewish colony, describes it as a "white man's country" with a considerable agricultural and pastoral future. There is a large extent of forest land abounding in a giant cedar. In the discussion following the reading of the paper before the Royal Geographical Society, Sir Charles Eliot, former governor of the protectorate, characterized the plateau not only as a place where Europeans can live comfortably, but as a singularly beautiful and attractive country, and absolutely uninhabited. Among the other contents are an illustrated description of the rivers of Cape Colony, by Professor Schwarz of Grahamstown, and a summary of recent regulations in regard to teaching geography in the English schools.

In the March Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, Mr. Frank Weitenkampf presents grounds for believing the busts of Franklin attributed to Ceracchi to be not from life, but after a terra-cotta bust made by J. J. Caffieri in 1777. He quotes Mr. Charles Henry Hart as authority for the statement that Franklin and Ceracchi never came together. A medallion based on Caffieri appears to have been the parent of numerous engravings.

In a recent mention of the current annual report of the Hagerstown public library, we quoted the fact that this new avenue to enlightenment was eagerly resorted to not for the works having the bubble reputation of the hour, but for the best literature. A similar encouraging tale is told in the report of the public library of Passaic, N. J., a manufacturing town. The relatively low percentage of fiction circulated is explained "by our large patronage by foreigners, who, even after they have mastered the English language, are more anxious to read our literary masterpieces than the latest novel." The library has extended the use of its hall "to the Dante Literary Society for their lecture in Italian on Dante, by Mr. Biasi, and the Slavish societies for their lectures in Slavish, Bohemian, and Russian."

Dr. J. W. Mackail, Mr. Andrew Bradley's successor to the chair of poetry at Oxford, gave his Inaugural Address on March 10. Its title, 'The Progress of Poesy,' was suggested by that of Gray's famous ode, the structure and matter of which he discussed in his opening sentences. He led up in this way to the statement that the subject to be dealt with by the holder of his professorship is none other than the subject of that poem, the function and power of poetry, and the large lines of its progress from country to country and from age to age. He did not on this occasion attempt to give anything in the nature of a general sketch. To the new fields, Celtic, Scandinavian, Oriental, etc., which have been revealed to the poet in the last hundred and fifty years —fields whose treasures Gray was the first to suspect—he merely alluded in passing. He was content to illustrate the progress of poetry by reference to the history of the chair from the time of Trapp, the first professor (1708-1718), down to 1857, when the advent of Matthew Arnold marked the beginning of a new era. In the century and a half which followed its foundation, its province, as generally understood, was to discuss poetry as a grammatical or scholastic art (Trapp laid it down as an axiom that poetry can be and should be taught like grammar or rhetoric), or else to set forth the result of search among documents bearing on it. Since the days of Arnold, the aim of the lecturer has been to show it in one or other of its varied aspects as a function of life. He professes poetry, but he does not profess to teach it; to show how it is made, as was once thought possible, is as vain as the attempt to define its essence.

The study of Roman history suffers a considerable loss in the recent death of Mr. A. H. J. Greenidge, a number of whose books have been noticed in these columns during the past few years. Mr. Greenidge was an indefatigable student, and was manifesting, from book to book, a steady improvement in the art of communicating his knowledge to others. The first volume of his 'History of Rome during the Later Republic and the Early Principate' gave promise of a work of great value. The undertaking contemplated six volumes, but, from statements made in the preface, we assume that no great portion of the remainder was left in shape for publication.

—Miss Susan M. Kingsbury has made a study of the sources for the history of the Virginia Company of London, and the resulting publication must rank high in point of thoroughness and general form. Some 764 separate documents are listed and described in such a way that the location, nature, and place of publication may be easily determined. The writer made many discoveries of new documents in the English archives, and established the loss of many more by the receipts and memoranda of books and papers received or delivered in the various changes in the form of the ruling body. These gaps are more noticeable in the earlier years of the Company's existence; in the middle period the Manchester and Ferrar papers gave rich finds which supplement the invaluable manuscripts obtained by the Library of Congress from the Jefferson collection. Indeed, that Library now possesses, in original or in transcript, whatever early Virginia material in manuscript was found in the British Museum, the Privy Council Office, and the Bodleian and Magdalene College Libraries. In printed matter it is not so rich, having only three of eighteen documents issued by the Company after 1616. The Smyth of Nibley papers in the New York Public Library are another invaluable source of information, and that library also has the transcripts made by Brown for his 'Genesis.' But, after the careful examination of the field by Miss Kingsbury, it must be concluded that there is a fair chance of finding in some of the great collections in England the missing books and papers of the Company, and in this work the activity of the Historical Manuscript Commission is proving its value. As the Virginia Company did not differ materially from other companies formed for trade and colonization, its records will serve to explain the meagre remaining records of all similar bodies. Profit was the first object of the adventurers, and the establishment of a settlement was incidental. The beginnings of a settlement having been made, regulation ripened into government. As the author states: "Every phase of colonial development, from the mixed system which existed under the patent of 1606 to the chartered proprietary company after 1609 and the royal province after 1624, is here illustrated."

—The fourth volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Journals of the Continental Congress' (Government Printing-Office) covers the period from January 1 to June 4, 1776. An examination of the four hundred pages of record shows how rapidly the business of Congress was expanding, and how detailed and varied were the affairs with which that body undertook to deal. Even the concurrent action of the several colonies, though tending to circumscribe the field of Congressional action, had not yet diminished greatly the labors of the numerous committees through which Congress mainly did its work. One notes, in the present volume, the continued efforts to obtain supplies of gunpowder, saltpetre, and general military necessities; the skilful and cautious management of the Indians; and the strenuous attempts to provide a stable currency. Large space, naturally, is given to military affairs, especially army organization and recruiting, the treatment of prisoners of war, the defences of New York, and relations with Canada. The suggestion to the assemblies that Loyalists be disarmed and kept under surveillance further aggravated the unhappy lot of the many who still sympathized with Great Britain. Of new matters, the most significant are the numerous regulations regarding privateers and their prizes; the establishment of a "treasury office of accounts," the precursor of the later Treasury Department; resolutions for the regulation of trade and the encouragement by the colonies of domestic manufactures; and directions for the sale of tea then in the country or subsequently obtained through prizes. The settlers in the Wyoming country, driven to outbreak by the conflicting claims of Pennsylvania and Connecticut to their allegiance and their lands, are urged to "cultivate harmony," and to "consider themselves as jointly interested in the event of the American cause." The resolution of May 10, recommending the assemblies and conventions of the several colonies "to adopt such government as shall, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular, and America in general," with John Adams's preamble, of five days later, declaring that "it is necessary that the exercise of every kind of authority under the said crown should be totally suppressed," presaged the independence soon to be declared. Mr. Ford's additions and notes continue to shed light on nearly every page of the record, and we can only repeat the praise which we have given to the previous volumes of this admirable edition.

—The fourth volume of Mr. Poultney Bigelow's 'History of the German Struggle for Liberty' (Harper & Bros.) bears the subtitle, "1848." It deals fully, however, with but two phases of the German movement of that interesting year—the revolutions in Munich and in Berlin. Some of the other events of 1848 were anticipated in the third volume of this history; others are postponed to a forthcoming fifth volume; and the present volume harks back four years to describe the Silesian famine, twenty-

three years to sketch the reign of Louis I. of Bavaria, and ninety-three years to illustrate Jesuit ethics by citations from Liguori. This disregard of chronology is a necessary result of the author's episodical method. Another result is a sacrifice of historical perspective: occurrences are treated rather in accordance with their picturesqueness or with the degree of attention which they excited at the time than with their permanent significance. Add to this the author's interest in striking personalities, and the result is an allotment of space singularly disproportionate to the importance of the persons and events described. Lola Montez holds the centre of the stage through two chapters; to Carl Marx are given three or four pages in a chapter on Socialism, which bears the forgotten name of Weitling. The inconclusive collisions between soldiers and citizens in Berlin, March 13-22, and the vacillations of the pusillanimous Frederick William IV. fill more than a hundred pages, a full third of the book; while the National Parliament at Frankfort is described in five pages, and what is said of it is concealed under the chapter-heading "Robert Blum."

—Mr. Bigelow's attitude is essentially that of the German revolutionists of the time; his only criticism upon them is that they were too tame. It is true, however, as he urges, that the history of 1848 has been rewritten by the German historians of the past thirty years under the influence of the events of 1864-1870; that the extent to which the unsuccessful revolution from below prepared the way for the successful revolution from above has not been recognized; and that Prussian writers in particular are inclined to treat the attitude of the German people in 1848 as a temporary aberration of the national mind, which should be forgotten as soon and as completely as possible. For this reason it is useful to have the other view of the period—the contemporary Liberal view—set forth afresh; and this Mr. Bigelow has done on the basis of wide, if somewhat desultory, reading and patient, if not always judiciously directed, research. His episodical method, his interest in the picturesque, and his practice of exhibiting tendencies and explaining events through the study of more or less typical persons, have at least the advantage of making his books readable. In noting the appearance of volume iii. we complained of the lack of an index; it should therefore be stated that the first two volumes were indexed, and that we have now an index to volumes iii. and iv.

—Dr. Roland G. Usher has edited for the Royal Historical Society a useful and meritorious volume which he entitles 'The Presbyterian Movement in the Reign of Queen Elizabeth.' This study is made to centre around the classical movement as illustrated by a typical record, the minute book of the Dedham Classis. For an explanation of technical terms we are taken back to the 'Book of Discipline,' wherein, shortly after 1570, Cartwright and Travers advanced their ideas regarding the true form of church government. Here the classis is a group of ministers brought together to discuss parochial questions in which all have an interest. For every twelve parishes there is a classis. Next higher in the scale of ecclesiastical gatherings is the provincial synod, whose members are drawn from the ministers and elders of twenty-four classes. Delegates, in turn, from these synods constitute the national assembly. The causes which account for the failure of Presbyterianism in England are discussed lucidly by Dr. Usher in his introduction. Considered as a party, the essential weakness of Cartwright's followers was that "they attempted to construct a system legally within one alien to it"—namely, within the national church itself. The bishops would have none of them, and, save for the ultimate secessionists, Presbyterianism seems to have been a preference rather than a deep conviction with those who entered into the classes. The minute book of the Dedham Classis occupies about fifty octavo pages, and is simply a recital of the leading topics that came up for discussion among the members of this small religious group. Though bald in the manner of its entries, the book shows perhaps more intimately than any other writing now extant the nature of the subjects which English Calvinists were discussing in the days just preceding Babington's Conspiracy and the Armada. Dr. Usher renders a further service by reprinting, with adequate comment, the essential portions of Bancroft's 'Dangerous Positions.' This tract and the minute-book of the Dedham Classis mean much more when taken together than when studied in detachment; for the minute-book affords testimony to Bancroft's substantial accuracy, while 'Dangerous Positions' contains general statements which enable us to see what the Dedham Presbyterians, and others concerned in the classical movement, were really aiming at. Dr. Usher at the close of his introduction enumerates a few of the more obvious results to be associated with Presbyterian propaganda in England. Among these was a reinforcement of Low Church principles when the evangelical party took form, and also an indirect reinforcement of the political theories "which blossomed forth in the English Commonwealth."

—During the year 1904-05 the work of the Egypt Exploration Fund was carried on in two places, at Deir el-Bahari and on the peninsula of Sinai. At the former place M. Naville continued his laborious task of excavating the temple of Mentuhotep III., laying bare the ramp, the southern colonnade, and the great central platform. This last structure was apparently not the base of an actual pyramid, and soundings have failed to reveal any tomb within its area. Around it, however, several tombs of priestesses and princesses were disclosed, one of the latter adorned with quite remarkable sculptured reliefs, representing the life of Princess Kauit in the lower world. The work at Deir el-Bahari is not yet completed. The expedition on the Sinaitic peninsula was in charge of Mr. Petrie, whose first visit was to the ancient turquoise mines of Maghara, whence he reports that the modern mining company which worked the old site in 1901, has utterly destroyed twenty-four of the ancient inscriptions before noted at that place, and has injured six others, leaving only eleven intact. These have now been removed to the Cairo museum. A recognition of distinctly Ethiopian characteristics in a portrait of Sanekht, the first king of the third dynasty, leads Mr. Petrie to surmise that the second dynasty may have been overthrown by an Ethiopian invasion. At Serabit el-Khâdem Mr. Petrie completely cleared the temple and its surroundings, finding many new inscriptions, and copying others completely for the first time. One piece of sculpture was discovered which is ranked by the explorer as not only of great historic interest, but among the best specimens of Egyptian art. This is a head of Queen Thyi, with her name on the front of her crown. It is well figured in the Fund's 'Archæological Report,' just issued. The existence of lavers evidently for ceremonial purification, of altars for incense, and of an immense mass of ashes before the sacred cave, apparently the débris from burned offerings, points to Semitic ritual in this place. A similar indication of Semitic influence is found in the sacred stones, or bethels, "on every high hill." Mr. Petrie will continue his investigation of Semitic relations in early Egyptian history by work the present year in the eastern side of the Delta, under the Egyptian Research Account. The results of the year's work at Deir el-Bahari will be published in the fifth memoir of the Fund on that subject, while Mr. Petrie's investigations will appear in an atlas of plans and inscriptions, with translations, published by the Fund, and in a more popular book of narrative and description, accompanied by 160 photographs, which Mr. Murray is to issue.

—The campaign of Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt, for the Græco-Roman Branch, on their old site of Oxyrhynchus was more richly productive of papyri than that of last year, though the pieces were for the most part of the first four centuries of the present era, and included fewer theological and classical fragments than were found in, for example, 1903. Among the Hibeh papyri, which will be published in June, are a number of marked interest, such as parts of perhaps the "Tyro" of Sophocles, the "Oineus" of Euripides, a gnomic poem of Epicharmus, the play of Philemon on which Plautus based his "Aulularia," with sixty-eight consecutive verses probably from Menander, several portions of Lysias against Theozotides, previously known by title only, fragments of Euripides's "Alcestis," "Iphigenia in Tauris" and "Electra," fifteen or sixteen centuries earlier than the mediæval MSS., and three hundred lines from the treatise on rhetoric now generally assigned to Anaximenes. Other Homeric fragments are said to add new weight to the contention of the editors concerning the Alexandrian origin of the Homeric vulgate. Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt return to Oxyrhynchus this year for the last time, but the immediate continuance of excavations beyond this season under the auspices of this branch of the fund is said to be doubtful, on account of the falling off of subscriptions.

VERRALL'S EURIPIDES.

Four Plays of Euripides. By A. W. Verrall. Cambridge (Eng.): The University Press; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905. Pp. 288.

It is eleven years since Dr. Verrall published his 'Euripides the Rationalist,' a work that endeavored to account for the

admiration of the Greeks and Romans for his plays as well as for the modern tendency to criticise them or defend them as one defends what the majority think open to criticism. How, in fact, was one to get round Mr. Swinburne's remark that Euripides was a botcher? Was it to see a botcher that Philemon, the writer of comedy, declared that he would hang himself, if only he could be sure that death would bring him face to face with the tragic poet? Mr. Verrall's solution of the problem is well known. Where Euripides introduces the gods or divine intervention, as in the "Alcestis" or "Ion," it is with the express purpose, perfectly intelligible to all his educated admirers, of discrediting the deities, of making them ridiculous or ineffective, of conveying by constant innuendo that they were quite unnecessary to the story. This, then, was what delighted antiquity; and if we want to appreciate the "Alcestis," we must not swallow it whole like Balaustion in Browning's poems; we must look out for subtleties, innuendo, thrusts at theology of which she never dreamed. Most readers of Euripides have accepted the grain of truth in this book, which, like all works of the kind, assumes, and, assuming, thinks to prove, far too much. We refer to it here because no one can appreciate the second set of essays who has not read the first.

The new volume is written with the acuteness and scholarship, the excessive ingenuity, the sensational manner of the old. The first essay is on the "Andromache," "A Greek Borgia." The late Sir Richard Jebb said of the "Andromache," only last year, that it was "a poor play," and the Alexandrian "argument" or abstract which called it "one of the seconds" had hitherto passed unchallenged. But Dr. Verrall interprets the Alexandrian comment very differently. It meant that the play was not second-rate, but second, a sequel, which we, who have not the preceding drama, must from mere ignorance consider formless and obscure. Dr. Verrall proceeds to construct a complete chain of evidence out of the "sequel" itself, evidence too long and complicated to be repeated here. We can only say that, read with his eyes, the existing play does indeed call for a predecessor and that explanatory prologue which he assumes to have been lost, and that if the Athenians could follow intelligently in a single performance in the open air the dialogue of Orestes and Hermione as he interprets it, they were riper than ourselves for grasping at sight all the complexities of psychology and social philosophy in the modern drama.

The treatment of another inferior play, the "Helen," "Euripides's Apology," is the most drastic of all Dr. Verrall's surgical operations on the Greek drama, worthy of the heroic mood in which, long ago, he cut out the choruses of the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus and put in scenes with conspirators. The "Helen" is a weak play, based on a situation which might be effective in a lyrical poem, as Stesichorus made it effective in his famous palinode, but on the stage could only seem absurd. Menelaus has fought for ten years to recover Helen, has wandered with her, as he thinks, for another seven after Troy's fall, arrives in Egypt with her, and, when he lands, is confronted with the real woman at last, who tells him that those seventeen years he has pursued and held a phantom. Her strategy for their joint escape closely resembles the devices of Iphigenia in the "Iphigenia in Tauris." "We shall see more in the play if we know what to look for," says Dr. Verrall.

This is a bare outline of what he sees: The "Helen" is a parody of the "Iphigenia in Tauris" in particular, and the methods of fifth-century drama as a whole. It is no more meant to be taken seriously than "How He Lied to Her Husband," the antidote to "Candida." It was written not for the Dionysia in the first place, but for private performance at a domestic feast of the Thesmophoria held on the island Macris (now Macronisi), also called Helene, on the east coast of Attica, which has for centuries been inhabited only in the summer and by herdsmen. Even as Milton composed "Comus" for the noble owner of Ludlow Castle, did Euripides write the "Helen" for the family of the respectable apothecary Proteas, who lived on Macris, and especially to do honor to his daughter Eido, whom he put in the play as Theonoe, daughter of the King of Egypt. Proteas himself was dead "these ten years," as is proved, says Dr. Verrall, by the reference in Aristophanes, "Thesmophoriazousae," 850 ff. All this, it should be remembered, is constructed by Dr. Verrall directly out of the play. The idea of private performances of the dramas that afterwards appeared at the Dionysia is all his own, and there is not a single passage in Greek literature to support the theory. But when one can manufacture one's own evidence, what need of scholiasts? He actually grows sentimental over this creature of his own imagination, the apothecary's daughter, as a woman "of intelligence and humor," who "deserves not to be altogether forgotten," till he almost persuades the reader to forget that she never existed, and that men have read the "Helen" for centuries and will read, without detecting even the shadow of such a personality. Dr. Verrall devotes nearly one hundred pages of argument and explanation to a theory which we must dismiss in a paragraph; and this is to do injustice to a most ingenious and searching study of the play, for Dr. Verrall is a thorough scholar, and no one can read him without profit. It is his method, not his knowledge, that is at fault. When, in 1897, Mr. S. Butler wrote his book to prove that a young woman wrote the Odyssey, he met with ridicule because he was not a competent scholar. Dr. Verrall's theories are no less far-fetched than Mr. Butler's, but his erudition is beyond question.

The "Heracles," "A Soul's Tragedy," has always been regarded as in some respects parallel with the "Ajax" of Sophocles. In both the hero is visited with madness, is led by it to furious slaughter, and, on the recovery of reason, can see no escape from the situation but death. Dr. Verrall gives a new interpretation of the character of Heracles as envisaged by Euripides. He is a megalomaniac, always on the verge of some violent outbreak, constantly under the illusion that he has performed marvellous exploits. For instance, Theseus and he have visited some cave or mine together and were perhaps imprisoned with the victims of a fatal accident. Theseus, as he tells us, was utterly unmanned. Heracles retained his courage and strength, and found an escape for both. "Euripides," says Dr. Verrall, "gives neither these details nor any, but indicates plainly to educated spectators or readers of his day that it is some incident of this kind, some natural incident, something like what was figured in this connection by rationalistic writers, that Theseus and his Heracles jointly remember." It is really astonishing that Dr. Verrall should be in sympathy with those dull and unimaginative persons, the rationalists, who merely succeeded in making the fine old myths seem trivial, and should suppose that a great poet would condescend to use their methods, and reduce the famous descent into Hades to a visit to a mine. But, given the mine, and suppose Hades abandoned as a conception that Euripides would not have tolerated here, we are still confronted with the hound of hell, Cerberus, who, as we all know, had been brought to the upper air by Heracles when he rescued Theseus. Cerberus is clearly mentioned, and it would be hard, indeed, to drag him into the mine episode. Dr. Verrall has the courage of his conviction, and interprets Heracles as saying to Theseus that "there is a miserable dog" which he had bargained to convey to Argos. Dr. Verrall reminds us that Euripides was tender to animals, and admires the care for dumb creatures which makes Heracles remember this neglected pet. So much, then, for the hound of hell. Why anything so irrelevant and unexplained as this wretched dog should be dragged in, Dr. Verrall declines to say. It is characteristic of his method that he leaves us with more difficulties than before. This is natural. You cannot import a quantity of fresh interpretation into a drama without stultifying what was already plain to see. And nothing to the unsophisticated reader could be plainer than the references to the descent into Hades, the rescue of Theseus, and the rape of Cerberus. One other fence there was to be leaped, and Dr. Verrall takes it with ease. Madness herself personified, Lyssa, sent by the implacable Hera, appears in the play above the house of Heracles, and is bidden by Iris to inflame him with the murderous frenzy in which he is to slay his children. Lyssa accepts the task, and describes the first signs of the hero's seizure before she enters. This is all against the theory that Heracles was "curst from his birth with a taint in his blood, a recurrent and progressive malady of the brain." So Dr. Verrall explains that, when the audience saw those supernatural appearances above the house and heard those words, they were to imagine that it was all a dream, a sickly dream of the chorus of old men who have fallen asleep at this crisis as they lie on the house steps.

The "Orestes," "A Fire from Hell," to quote the last of Dr. Verrall's sensational subtitles, was a favorite play with the Greeks, partly, no doubt, because it indulged that liking for melodrama which is the amiable weakness of most theatre-goers. Dr. Verrall thinks that, like the "Helen," it was written for private performance, with no chorus, that being added afterwards in view of the Dionysia. In the domestic version the play ended, as a melodrama should, with Orestes, Pylades, Electra, and Hermione burning alive in Agamemnon's

palace, where, a few minutes earlier, Helen has been murdered by Orestes. Not so could it end in the public theatre, where there was no curtain and the actors must walk off, while the audience, who knew well the later careers of the characters in Greek legend, would hardly accept the holocaust as convincing. Therefore, we are told, Euripides tacked on to the revised play the scene in which Apollo intervenes as the god from the machine, to bid Orestes marry, not murder, Hermione, and bestow the hand of Electra on Pylades, an unfortunate youth, if we follow Dr. Verrall in his description of the daughter of Agamemnon as a "fiend," a "demon," a "tragic cat, with the hideous malice of an old maid." While eliminating Apollo, Dr. Verrall tries to convince the reader that all the references to the oracle of Apollo as having bidden Orestes murder his mother are meant by Euripides to be taken as sneers at the theory which the sensible Argives described in the play would not have admitted for a moment. This is part of his effort to prove that Euripides avoided the introduction of the supernatural, discredited it when he could, and, in almost every case where gods are introduced, compels us to "suppose them unreal."

What vitiates these essays is the strong element of the fantastic, the evident yielding to caprice, which, on almost every page, pulls up the reader who is trying seriously to follow the course of the reasoning. A glaring case of this is in the essay on the "Helen," on page 121, where Dr. Verrall reduces the scene to mere farce by representing the chorus as eagerly watching for some hint that they will be invited to the banquet in the house of the apothecary's daughter, and ruefully uttering the familiar tag, "Many a shape hath fate, and many a surprise the gods decree, . . . and so hath this action ended," to express their private disappointment when the chief actors have passed into the house, leaving them to their usual tasks. If all this be true, then we must more than ever conclude that when Euripides wrote tragedy, his genius, as Jebb said, "was at discord with the form in which he worked."

LUCAS'S LAMB.

The Life of Charles Lamb. By E. V. Lucas. In two volumes, with fifty illustrations. Vol. I., 1775-1817; Vol. II., 1818-1834. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

Eleven hundred pages of biography and biographical appendix make a substantial postscript to Mr. Lucas's five generous volumes of the 'Works' and two of the 'Letters' of Charles and Mary Lamb. Having in these seven prior volumes industriously helped Elia and his sister to tell the story of their lives and thoughts after their own fashion—that is, for the most part imaginatively—and having in the process gained an exceptional familiarity with the immediate circumstances under which they were inspired to write, their most competent editor now causes them and their acquaintances to tell a similar story in *his* way—so to speak, scientifically. This chronicle of Lamb and his friends, the last that we are likely to have for some time, is a vast congeries of quotations, superficially disordered, since they flow from every source and form a bewildering panorama of styles, yet all grouped round one central figure, and all promoting a sequence in time, the rigor of which grows manifest as the years of Lamb's life unfold. The quotations draw largely, of course, from Elia himself, owing to Lamb's "inveterate habit of autobiography"; yet they come also from Coleridge and the Lloyds, from the Wordsworths and Southey, from Hazlitt, Haydon, and De Quincey, from Talfourd and Crabb Robinson—in fact, from every one whose orbit touched the circle of Lamb's activity and who has left for Mr. Lucas any significant record of the contact. To be sure, with the exception of hitherto inaccessible entries from the MS. diary of Crabb Robinson, comparatively little of this material is new; parts of it, as the amusing sketch of George Dyer, are incorporated with little or no change from Mr. Lucas's own previous publications. Nor does the new, comprehensive aggregation of materials, mostly old, bring with it any essential change in our traditional conception of the Lambs—in "the dear memory of a frail good Man" or the equally dear memory of his sister, "the self-restraining, and the ever kind"; unless perhaps there is still some reader who needs to be assured that not Charles Lamb's solicitude for his sister, but the gentle mitten of Fanny Kelly, was the cause of his continuing a lifelong bachelor. However, as its accuracy is well-nigh unimpeachable, so the epic amplitude of the work is impressive; no résumé could give a hint of its opulence in vivid, pathetic, and humorous detail.

The captious might, indeed, ask whether Mr. Lucas has not garnered with a hand too free and easy; whether, in Ben Jonson's phrase, he has not piled up excerpt and incident "with that facility that sometime it was necessary he should be stopped"; and, furthermore, whether in passing from one island to another of rare Elian prose he has not now and then slipped into tame, or even blind, transitions. If the substance of his final tribute to Lamb represents the investigation of years, the fusion of the parts, the mere technique of composition, seems in places to have been achieved with a rapidity scarcely Horatian. Zealous to surpass in thoroughness all extant biographies of Lamb, Mr. Lucas, trained journalist though he be, has not kept a steady eye upon the due retrenchment of his style and matter. His very first paragraph (vol. i., p. 1) illustrates his occasional prolixity, as well as a curious and useless precision which he displays throughout in giving the relative ages of persons whom he brings together for whatever purpose:

"In 1775, when Charles Lamb was born, Goldsmith had been dead a year, Gray and Smollett four years, Chatterton five, Sterne seven, Hogarth eleven, Richardson fourteen, Fielding twenty, Swift thirty, and Pope thirty-one. In the same year Dr. Johnson was sixty-six, Garrick fifty-nine, Horace Walpole fifty-eight, Reynolds fifty-two, Burke forty-five, Sheridan twenty-four, Crabbe twenty-one, William Blake eighteen, Burns sixteen, Bowles and Cobbett thirteen, Wordsworth five, Sir Walter Scott four, Coleridge three, and Southey one. Landor came into the world eleven days before Lamb, Jane Austen at the end of the same year."

This painfully graded list is ineffective not simply because of its length; its minuteness is annoying. Let us compare it with the opening of Mr. Morley's introduction to Wordsworth; here is a passage which with slight alteration might serve as beginning in a life of Lamb, and may very well serve as a model of style for his biographer:

"Most of the great lights of the eighteenth century were still burning, though burning low, when Wordsworth came into the world. Pope, indeed, had been dead for six and twenty years, and all the rest of the Queen Anne men had gone. But Gray only died in 1771, and Goldsmith in 1774. Ten years later Johnson's pious and manly heart ceased to beat. Voltaire and Rousseau, those two diverse oracles of their age, both died in 1778. Hume had passed away two years before. Cowper was forty years older than Wordsworth, but Cowper's most delightful work was not produced until 1783."

Of course it is hardly fair to set Mr. Lucas in an uninspired moment beside Mr. Morley at his best; yet one naturally expects something more than colorless prose, at all times, from a man who is weaving together an anthology of the happiest things ever said by and about Charles Lamb. Mr. Lucas writes in the long run with more light than warmth, his excuse being that he is "a stage-manager" who simply attends to the entrance and exit of his manifold speakers, and further, perhaps, that he is not trying to present his central figure as above all a man of literary bent. The chief lines, as he has conceived them, of the likeness he is executing in a sort of living mosaic, this biographer never permits himself to forget; for example (vol. ii., p. 60):

"The life of Charles Lamb, as these pages testify, is the narrative of one who was a man and brother first, an East India clerk next, and a writer afterwards. Hence, although from time to time we have had and shall have glimpses of some of the finest intellects of his day—the sixty years between February, 1775, and December, 1834—the story is that rather of a private individual who chanced to have literary genius than of a man of letters in the ordinary sense of the term. The work of Charles Lamb forms no integral part of the history of English literature; he is not in the main current, he is hardly in the side current of the great stream. As that noble river flows steadily onward it brims here and there into a clear and peaceful bay. Of such tributary backwaters, which are of the stream yet not in it, Sir Thomas Browne is one, Charles Lamb another."

The ring of a fine sincerity in this goes far toward justifying Mr. Lucas in his method of restoring the man and brother and the East India clerk to life, rather than the writer, and harmonizes well with his abundant success in a difficult attempt. The method of biography, in turn, necessarily relegates any systematic discussion of Lamb's reading to Mr. Lucas's appendices, in the third of which, "on the principle that the books a man likes are a sure index to his mind," we are offered "a list of a number of Lamb's favorite volumes." One is tempted to add: a careful history, not a mere list, of any cultivated man's reading is an index to the *growth* of his mind, to his spiritual biography, that no biographer can well afford to treat as of secondary importance.

After all, Lamb's place in literature is patently the reason why Mr. Lucas has read and produced literature about him, and his place in English literature the reason why scholarly men in this age, if not to a large extent during the latter part of Lamb's own, have taken interest in

him, the reason why Mr. Macdonald, Canon Ainger, Mr. W. C. Hazlitt, and M. Derocquigny have studied him. Mr. Lucas emphasizes the individual note in 'Elia': "Our prose literature probably contains no work more steeped in personality." Does he consider the history of literature an impersonal thing? If even in the very first analysis it is impossible to dissociate the life and personality of Lamb, of the man and brother and clerk—and the reader—from their literary expression, in the last it is unsafe to regard him in any measure apart from that living stream of which he drank so copiously; that stream which, among the currents of European literature, has been distinguished by its individualism. Was Milton, for example, in the "great stream"? His "soul was like a star, and dwelt apart." Was Wordsworth, in Lamb's own time? According to Emerson, "Wordsworth's genius was the great exceptional fact in the literature of his period." Was De Quincey? The "Opium-Eater" has always been deemed *sui generis*. Now Lamb is not less an "integral part" of his national literature than either De Quincey or Wordsworth, both of whom became literary men neither more nor less accidentally than he. He has, however, as they, met many interpreters who, like Mr. Lucas, insist upon looking at an individual case in and for itself, and who regard Lamb almost exclusively with reference to "the sixty years between February, 1775, and December, 1834"; whereas Elia declared with whimsical assurance that he "wrote for antiquity," herein suggesting, by an odd manœuvre of the comic spirit, that "he was *not* for an age." So far as English criticism is concerned, Elia has yet to be put in vital relation with "all time"; his literary biography—'Lamb and his Congeners,' we might style it—has not been duly recorded. In Germany a young Cornishman, Dr. Lake, working under academic stimulus, has at least commenced the sort of comparative study that we have in mind. His dissertation (Leipzig, 1903), which pays fruitful attention to the influence on Lamb of Burton's 'Anatomy of Melancholy,' is, in spite of its artlessness, a step in the right direction. In France M. Derocquigny has begun a more comprehensive examination in 'Charles Lamb, sa Vie et ses Œuvres,' a broad, genetic analysis, noticed some time since in these columns; this will not readily be superseded.

Mr. Lucas belongs very clearly with a school of expert literary investigators in his own land, who, within recent years, have rendered an essential service to the study of English by a narrow yet affecting personal attachment to various men of letters in the age of Wordsworth, and whose external reward is that their names are to be indissolubly linked with the objects of their devotion: Mr. Forman with Keats, Dykes Campbell with Coleridge, Mr. Hutchinson with Wordsworth, to give a few notable instances—and now Mr. Lucas with Lamb. Exactitude and completeness of an author's text and accuracy and fulness of knowledge concerning his outer life are, however, subsidiary ends, not the final goal of literary study. That final goal, we take it, is, so to speak, literary biology; it is the solution of a problem which, in Lamb's case, Mr. Lucas avoids by a tendency to deny its claim to existence—the problem of the direct connection between the life and work of each author, and the life and literature of his race. Whether the solution of narrower, preliminary questions, the hewing of wood and drawing of water, can be done to the best advantage by men who have not either for themselves or their successors that ultimate goal and ideal architecture continually in view, may seem an ungracious query to put in the presence of a work so high-minded and so fascinating as Lucas's 'Life of Charles Lamb'; yet in strict justice it is not wholly out of place.

LE ROY'S PHILIPPINE LIFE.

Philippine Life in Town and Country. By James A. Le Roy. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

There is neither a Filipino people nor a Filipino tongue. Our unhappy Asiatic burden is in the main Malay, crossed in the north with Mongol and Hispanic strains. Alongside are less familiar barbaric tribes, the Igorrotes being a type. In the south we call Filipinos Moros, a metaphor for Mussulmans. These are unallied bands of the same stock in a different environment; and unvexed, certainly uncurbed, by Spanish rule, Ishmaels of the deep, they exercised the sea-power that was theirs and harried the less turbulent natives north of them much as the swooping vikings distressed the English coasts. In this discussion we pass by pagan and Mohammedan, important enough where administration is concerned, and confine ourselves, with the author, to the Christianized and linguistically dissociated tribes with whom commerce and the West are in commoner contact. Were our newly-acquired "colonists" Canadians or Australians, for example, they would not be so puzzling. We might disagree along lines of self-interest, but otherwise both parties would understand the object of government, and certainly would appreciate, however they might dislike, its methods. What is the prospect of the intellectual and moral absorption of a radically different tropical race? Is the Filipino ethos compatible with the American, or is the brown man essentially irreconcilable with the white?

Mr. Le Roy is content with describing conditions as he understands them, and maintains no dogmatic thesis about the islands or the islanders, or their masters past or present. This sinking of the speculative beneath the objective has peculiar value for readers with all shades of preconceptions, the more as almost, if not quite, without exception the observations are accurately made and always temperately expressed. Avoiding detailed history, our author lays stress on one historical fact, that the purpose of the various revolts against Spanish rule is evidence of the elevating influence of that rule. No other Orientals have attempted to break the conquerors' yoke with an avowed purpose of improving the government. The Spaniards made no pretence of civil liberty even for themselves, but by degrees they raised these Malays to a position whence they aspired to it. It was not their design, but both Spain and the Church builded better than they knew; and the people should be credited with a laudable yearning, however irregular their route and grotesque their immediate ideal.

Our real concern is with the people of to-day. These are divided into classes of property-holders rather than into proscriptive castes. The social barriers are industrial and political conditions, virtually more difficult to surmount than those of birth, so that the native aristocracy, an aristocracy of possession, are masters and not brothers. The elders of these are, naturally, conservative; from the younger come leaders, revolutionary and martial in war, radical in peace—radical not in the European sense, but as against the established order. The masses controlled by them, especially in the country, are in virtual peonage—a bonded indebtedness, not an inherited slavery, which is fostered by the extortionate obligations imposed through primitive forms. In time of scarcity a poor man borrows rice for his pressing needs. The landowner who advances it charges an interest in kind equal to 30 or 40 per cent., besides which repayment is required, not simply of the quantity borrowed and the usury, but of an amount in time of plentiful harvest equal in value then to that which had been transferred at a high price when the crop had failed. The obligation to serve off the debt, with its additions, is a strict social one, compulsory upon descendants as well. Native, one may say natural, improvidence, the universal proneness to gambling, and the very moderate requirements of the climate combine to discourage thrift and accumulation. "From them that have not shall be taken away"; so that the lower classes are kept low chiefly from material need.

Growing out of this state is the political and social condition of caciquism, a combination of the "boss" rule of the American machine and the leadership of a true landed aristocracy. Where in a tropical environment a dozen families out of ten thousand live in stone houses and have solid floors under them, and the others are sheltered in bamboo huts, borrowing from the former money, produce, or the use of land for cultivation, it may be understood that the few are the political agents and religious leaders, not teachers. With the friars as over-lords, these local directors were practically dictators and absolutely controlled their respective communities; and although the schoolhouse is replacing the *convento* as the active centre of influence, the *presidentes* and other magnates must for a long future be found among, and only among, the same class as before. There is every reason to suppose that this class as a class has not been, and now is not, desirous of increasing the political liberties of the masses, or of educating them towards assuming greater responsibilities. But the Civil Commission, while compelled to accept such leaders as really standing for if not representing the people, is establishing an alternative educational or property qualification for the protection of the franchise, and has made that barrier low and the way to overcome it easy.

The education offered by Spain was most meagre, and there is every reason to believe, although Mr. Le Roy does not directly express that opinion, that there was no intention of supplying the masses with a common language, especially with one that

might open European literature. *Divide et impera* was a good working rule, and Tagálogs and Viscayans (Bisayans), Ilocans, and Bikals, all with numerous dialects, were encouraged to maintain their individual speech and to be content with little that passed for learning—certainly for practical learning—at all. An attempt at higher instruction was dominated and restrained by an ecclesiastical influence which, in Manila itself, had explained that "the natural sciences are materialistic and impious studies," and had denounced political economy as a "science of the devil." The course leading to the A.B. at the University of St. Thomas, royal and pontifical by charter and control, was so arranged in teaching and prolonged by vacations as to cover six or seven years (beginning, it is true, with mere boys), and to hinder, if not to preclude, the attendance of the poor. The Dominican spirit was clearly that of the Athenian, in Georgia, who (even after the war) thought it good public policy to require an education to cost $20,000. In this connection, the author seems to have overlooked the Nautical School, successfully maintained, we think under Jesuit auspices, during the Spanish régime, for he mentions it along with the Normal School and the School of Arts and Trades as "established," not reëstablished, "by the insular Government."

The position of the married woman, unique in the Orient, as the business head of the family, is referred to more than once as due to the Christianity which the Spaniards established wholesale *vi et armis*. It does not seem to be recognized as an imitation of the foreign rulers. These, bringing no families with them, acquired common-law native wives. The consideration for the alliance was the bestowal of the house upon the brown partner, with sufficient means to rear the family after the departure of the white man. The real estate was hers. With the lapse of generations other brown women with higher moral claims came, by force of example, into similar responsibilities. It became the custom of the country. The reverse of the shield is the frequent, by no means universal, acceptance of a relaxed code of personal conduct for the weaker, if not the fairer, sex. Some of us are too apt to confer upon our little friends virtues they hardly possess and to ignore qualities they surely exhibit. Repulsive and abundant barbarity has been incontestably proved before formal courts, displayed against hostile clansmen more frequently than against the invading whites, to show how thin is the veneer upon the essential savage. Especially under the encouragement of numbers, the insurrectos displayed courage and endurance; at the same time Government-employed Macabebe scouts, hereditary enemies of the Tagálogs, would sit down and weep when hard marching followed short rations or none. Reversing the circumstances, the conditions doubtless would have shifted correspondingly. The apparent heartlessness at and after native funerals has often been commented upon (although in other lands an Irish wake is not unknown); and yet in the height of the hostilities a Filipino lower-class woman has been known to cast her tribute in the open grave of an American soldier, in avowed sympathy with his distant and unknown mother. The human nature that makes the whole world kin is theirs as well as ours, and there are also quirks and eccentricities in their make-up that we might blush to own.

We can follow in no further detail the problem, important as it is, or the volume full of interest as every one will find it. The book is packed with impartial information about the people we have adopted by force and are governing with difficulty, through their and our own limitations. There is no true public spirit in the archipelago, but, like the cave of Æolus, the islands are filled with winds of oratory, more destructive than beneficent. It is impossible for this people, even more ignorant of politics than of literature, to stand alone, and we must supply crutches if not wings. Ladronism will be insurrection whenever wholesome restraint is lessened. Whoever wants trustworthy intelligence, untainted by visible prejudice and clearly presented at first hand, may keep this account of our unwilling wards within his easy reach. It is a well-arranged thesaurus of facts. We lay down with regret this story of the fierce yet humble, the weak but aspiring, the individually insignificant but numerically important Filipino, commending it to students of public affairs and to intelligent citizens at large. Trade, education, and religion find their place in it, as well as the matters we have touched upon. And because we have taken it up, the lure of the East revives. The crowded traffic over the stately Bridge of Spain, the light-crowned processions in the balmy night, the picturesque avenues of the fire-trees and the heavy perfume of the ylang-ylang, the palm-girdled drive of the Malecon, the open-air concerts on the Luneta—site of execution as well as of fashionable concourse—the gorgeous sunsets over Merivales as the lost day passes across the China Sea, come back with all their charm, and one forgets the vileness of man when so nearly every prospect pleases.

The Political History of England. By W. Hunt and R. L. Poole. Vol. I. From the Earliest Times to the Norman Conquest. By T. Hodgkin. Vol. II., by G. B. Adams. Vol. III., by T. F. Tout. Longmans, Green & Co. 1906.

Further instalments of 'The Political History of England' demonstrate the ability of the editors. The wonderfully firm and scholarly handling that has won for Mr. Poole a well-deserved reputation as editor of the *English Historical Review*, is clearly to be traced here, and the History already shows that it is to be well compacted, homogeneous and of uniform quality. In this respect the editors will undoubtedly be able to challenge comparison with Lavisse and Rambaud; more could not be said.

Mr. Hodgkin's contribution to the above series has been looked forward to with some curiosity; it may be said at once that it is likely neither to increase nor to detract from the author's previous reputation. The work is decidedly uneven. As might have been expected, the author shows a full knowledge in matters pertaining to Roman Britain; and such passages as the chapter on the coin-kings display (in addition to a fondness for Teutonic hyphenated forms) an erudition in numismatics that is often of the highest interest and value. But when we reach the Anglo-Saxons, and especially their institutions, Mr. Hodgkin perceptibly lowers his standard; he is now content, and frankly tells us so, to follow the judgment of those who have made that field their special province. The result is, as a whole, a narrative that reads well and is generally safe to follow, but with occasional passages that are not satisfactory.

Thus, at page 77, where he discusses the question of Saxon land tenures, the arguments of Seebohm are balanced and adopted against those of Freeman and Kemble, but with no mention of Vinogradoff or Maitland. A striking example of the author's lack of independent knowledge and criticism in this period is his account of the battle of Hastings. This event, one of the most dramatic and important in English history, and the one with which this volume closes, afforded him a splendid opportunity for a fitting climax. But the climax, such as it is, is merely rhetorical, and the interest of the intelligent reader is entirely forfeited by the obvious lack of grasp on the facts and details of the business in hand. Thus, for the death of Harold, the old story is repeated that William ordered his archers "to shoot high up into the sky so that their arrows might fall from on high on some unshielded part of their enemies' persons." The absurdity of this ought to strike the least critical of historians. The nature of the case, confirmed by the Bayeux tapestry's representation of Harold trying to tug the arrow from his eye, suggests clearly that what William did was to order his archers to shoot higher up the hill over the heads of the front Saxon ranks, on which they were probably making little impression, at the conspicuous mark offered by Harold and his housecarls. In the same way the flight stratagem, which Mr. Hodgkin adopts without discussion, is one of the most unusual, difficult, and dangerous employed in war; the fact that we are informed that it was several times repeated might have aroused the author's suspicions. This statement suggests very strongly that what happened was merely that the Norman footmen were several times beaten back and pursued, and that on each occasion the pursuing Saxons were caught at the foot of the hill and in turn driven back by a counterstroke of the Norman horse. The stratagem might well be the embellishment of a scribe anxious to maintain Norman prestige. The account of the battle is as confused and unconvincing as it was possible to make it, and it is not unfair to say of Mr. Hodgkin, as Mommsen said of Tacitus: "A worse narrative. . . . concerning this war is hardly to be found even in this most unmilitary of authors."

All deductions made, however, the volume is well written and up to the standard of the series.

Professor Adams's volume is characteristic of the writer. He covers the period from the conquest of England by William of Normandy to the granting of Magna Carta and the death of John. Within these limits he shows more acquaintance with the chroniclers than with the records, he is stronger in political narrative than in institutional knowledge. In the latter respect, although never very far from the mark, Professor Adams is too apt to generalize

on insufficient grounds. Where profound students of institutions like Maitland or Vinogradoff advance only in the most guarded manner, he does not hesitate to go beyond their utmost bounds. This habit of superficial generalization is the great drawback to Professor Adams's work, and becomes at times quite irritating to the careful reader. A typical example of it occurs at page 23, where, referring to the effect of the Conquest on England, he writes: ". . . in the main, as concerned the great mass of facts, there was no change of importance." Ten lines further on we find: "It is because we can see the results of the changes which it really introduced that we are able to estimate their profound significance." Perhaps the most curious example is that to be found at page 186, where we are presented with a novel and amusing computation of the space of time implied by the word "generation."

Among the very few slips noticed is one at page 68, where, in dealing with the Domesday Survey, we are told that the *missi* were to ascertain the number of hides each manor contained; this should be at what number of hides they were rated, which was quite a different thing. At page 152 the footnote is apparently mistaken; the reference is probably intended for Professor Haskins's article on the Norman Jury. All deductions made, this volume has many good points and will probably come up to the average of the series. The style, however, is far from vigorous, and is not unfrequently disfigured by such passages as the two following: "This would have been sufficient under a King like the first two Williams"; "William was determined to be strong, not because of any theory which he had formed of the value of strength, or of the way to secure it, but because he was strong and had always been so."

Professor Tout's volume begins at the accession of Henry III., and brings us down to the death of Edward III.; it is excellent in every respect. The style is direct, the scholarship sound, the judgment sane. As an example of balanced and clear statement the relations of Edward I., Bruce and Balliol may be cited, and the chapter on authorities is admirable. The treatment of military questions is especially good, though the novel description of the Black Prince's victory at Poitiers may well arouse question. Favorable mention must also be made of the treatment of questions connected with the Welsh marches and of the particularly valuable maps. Professor Tout, whose bias against the chroniclers appears strongly, will have no dealings with such tales as those of the six burghers of Calais and the incident marking the creation of the Order of the Garter that were current as history in our childhood.

There is perhaps more serious cause to quarrel with him for his apparent neglect of the influence of the Jews in the beginning of the thirteenth century. Again, the one incidental reference to Richard de Bury appears inadequate for a writer ranked by some as the English counterpart of Petrarch. One more small point that may be raised is the passing over of the fact that before 1231 the University of Cambridge was attracting large numbers of students from abroad, as is witnessed by a royal writ of that year quoted in Cooper's 'Annals.' On the whole, Professor Tout may be congratulated on an excellent and readable volume.

Studies in Architecture. By Reginald Blomfield. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

This book of studies is unusual in some respects, for it is a collection of detached essays written by an architect in very active practice. According to the books of reference, he is not more than fifty years old, and yet the well-known buildings which he has designed and superintended form a very long list. His 'History of Renaissance Architecture in England,' published in 1897, gives evidence of a careful noting down of experiences and special observation, and skill in weaving these together into a narrative. One approaches the new book, then, with a sense of respect and also of expectation conducive to a careful examination of what the author has wished to say. Some of the papers are the general essays of such an active and observing man, written without the need of much investigation, and giving general impressions rather than separate pieces of investigation. Such a paper is that on Andrea Palladio, to which thirty-three pages are devoted; such an one is the much longer article on Philibert de l'Orme; for in these there is, perhaps, no array of facts and dates more than can be obtained from books that are under the hand of any active student, and the general conclusions of such a student form the one theme of the essay. On the other hand, the article on the architect and the architecture of Newgate, with its considerations of the extraordinary building itself, rebuilt by George Dance the younger, who is always said to be the architect, is devoted to a subject which involves considerable original thought and some investigation, and the argument takes up with sufficient cause and without undue repetition the old question as to "paper designers" and practical workmen in architecture.

The paper entitled "Byzantium or Lombardy" contains in itself many of the characteristics of the whole book. It is devoted to an examination of Signor Rivoira's Italian treatise, published in 1901, 'Le Origini della Architettura Lombarda,' a quarto very richly illustrated with half-tone cuts of excellent quality inserted in the text, and having also a very few plates in phototype. That book was an almost avowed plea for the independence of Italian design, and formed a detailed argument against the theory that all that is good in the early Italian Romanesque came from the Byzantine Greeks. As a study more patriotic than critical, and as presenting a vast number of interesting analyses of existing monuments, this work was of importance, and yet the student can hardly avoid sympathizing with the counter-plea set up by Mr. Blomfield. Indeed, the immense importance to mediæval Europe of the influence coming from the Eastern Empire is only in part recognized as yet, and Mr. Blomfield's paper may be thought to exercise a useful influence in spreading a knowledge of that most important fact in art history. The paper, too, is full of minor points extremely well met. Thus, the remarks upon the preposterous book by "Leader Scott," which has been reviewed in these columns—the book which laid before the English reader an Italian theory about an imaginary company of masters of the art of building, whose headquarters were taken to have been at Como in Lombardy, is entirely welcome, for such a darkening of counsel should not be allowed to pass out of mind lest students of a new generation should take up that book, 'The Cathedral Builders,' and be led astray by it. In like manner, the discussion of the mediæval clumsiness seen in the Italian taking over of the Byzantine cupola and its supports is perfectly just and is well worked out. Many such points made in the essay might be dwelt upon and praised. James Fergusson's unlucky remark about a "fluke" in the designing of Newgate leads to several deprecatory remarks about that ill-informed and injudicious historian, and here is a delicious bit of criticism for one artist and writer whose work is accepted in a most uncritical way by the majority of recent English writers on art: "William Morris used to say that architecture must start again at the beginning; a remark of far-reaching sagacity, in singular contrast to his own practice in ornament."

There are odd bits of testimony to a certain haste in writing down the propositions and the conclusions of the article "Byzantium or Lombardy." Here is, for instance, that most curious and precious monument of antiquity which is called by Murray's and by Joanne's guidebooks S. Giovanni in Fonte, and which Baedeker and Gsellfels agree in calling by the same name and with the additional title (very familiar in Ravenna, as every traveller will say) "Baptistery of the Catholics" (*Battistero degli Ortodossi*). Three of these four writers speak of "Archbishop Neo" or "Archbishop Neon," but they speak of him only in passing. Now, this important building, a "real document," if there ever was one, is spoken of by Mr. Blomfield as the Baptistery of Neone (exactly as if "Neone" were an Italian town), and while one may look in vain through the article, seeking to discover what building is referred to, he may also look through a score of recent books of reference hopelessly if he searches for "Neone" as the name of either a man or a locality. This seems, in short, to be a hasty transference of the descriptive title "battistero di Neone" from Mr. Rivoira's book, which is printed in Italian, and which uses that descriptive epithet many times, and gives it in the index. A similar hasty remark is that which is repeated many times, about Imperial Roman building with "concrete." Now although this is a common phrase, it is so inaccurate that a first-rate practical architect should have avoided it. The great walls and vaults of the period, beginning with Hadrian, were not built with concrete, but with rubble stone in an abundance of strong mortar used in a very liquid condition. The stones are laid as bricks are laid upon a wall, one by one, and in courses, though unevenly.

It remains to be said that there are, in Mr. Blomfield's book, a number of very good half-tone plates, of which the seven devoted to Old Newgate will be most unexpected, and the most welcome to the already well-furnished student, while the two or three interiors of Venice churches by Palladio are the most attractive. We have all denounced Palladio so

strongly for his indifference to construction and his activity in pushing on the decadence of architecture, that the real charm of his designs is almost forgotten among men; but the interior of the Redentore—the church upon the Giudecca—should be enough to set us right in that matter.

Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty: A Statistical Study in History and Psychology. By Frederick Adams Woods, M.D. Henry Holt & Co. 1906.

Recent applications of mathematical analysis to biology have vastly extended the practical domain of that science. Ten years ago the more complex subjects called by courtesy biological were scarcely sciences at all in any exact sense of the word. Now the statistical method has placed anthropology on a firm foundation, and bids fair to organize psychology and even history into systems of definitely observed and rationally correlated phenomena.

An important impetus must be given to this movement by Mr. Woods's study, which is an exhaustive analysis of the characteristics of the members of the reigning families in Europe from the sixteenth century (in some cases from the tenth century) downward, in the light of present theories of heredity. The choice of material is singularly fortunate, and the method of treatment as far as possible fair and impersonal; estimates of character being founded solely on the consensus of a series of histories and genealogies chosen before the beginning of the investigation.

The first part of the book, which will prove of most interest to the general reader, traces the individual history of the various royal houses in detail; and the peculiarities are in several cases as characteristic as if they had been prearranged for a laboratory experiment. The house of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha exhibits the combination of high-minded virtue with a genial and cultivated intellect, and all through the lines of descent these characters are manifest. Dr. Woods says: "No royal family has been able to maintain itself without degeneration unless it has taken a good share of Saxe-Coburg blood." Contrast with this the line of the early Romanoffs in Russia, where, surrounding Peter the Great upon the genealogical chart, appears a startling group of degenerates sharing the same violence and epilepsy which marred his mental power. At the very summit for intellectual ability stand the houses of Nassau-Orange and the first Hohenzollerns; a group of interrelated geniuses began with the mingling of the bloods of Condé, Montmorency, Coligny, and William of Orange, which in five generations produced Elizabeth of Palatine, Sophia of Brunswick, the Great Elector and William III. of England, culminating in Frederick the Great of Prussia, his brilliant brother and sisters, and his nephew, Gustavus III. of Sweden. In Spain, for twenty-one successive generations from Sancho II. in the tenth century to Charles V. in the sixteenth, there were only five monarchs "who did not possess a high degree of strength and ability." All this time only good stock was introduced in the female line; and, as among the Hohenzollerns, quite close inbreeding produced no bad results. When, however, insanity was somehow brought in, appearing first distinctly in Isabella, the Queen of John II. of Castile, inbreeding intensified it to a fearful degree. The Hapsburg insanity and the Hapsburg lip appeared generation after generation, in the horrible procession with which Rostand appalls the Duke of Reichstadt.

In each family the character of the individual may in almost every case be accounted for by the simple influence of heredity. Alternative inheritance, by which a character in the ancestry is inherited by each child either in full force or not at all, is generally manifest. In large families, the law of ancestral heredity appears by which one-quarter of the children resemble each parent, one-eighth each grandparent, and so on. The biological law of regression by which children of exceptional parents tend to approach again to the mean of the race, is manifest. Inbreeding is bad only when the characters bred are in themselves pathological. There appears no general tendency to degeneration due to the ease and luxury of court existence; on the whole, it seems that a related group of 800 persons in which among the men alone there are twenty-five who must be classed as geniuses, stands far above the average. "The royal breed, considered as a unit, is superior to any other one family, be it that of noble or commoner."

The last chapters of the book bring out various points in more exact mathematical fashion. Dr. Woods divides his 832 individuals into ten grades for mental, and ten grades for moral, qualities, and shows that the correlation in grade with parents, grandparents, and great-grandparents is very close to that theoretically postulated by Galton and determined for various physical characters in other investigations. Apparently, hereditary tendencies alone are as sufficient to account for intellect and character as for the coat color of the classic Basset hounds. Even a mathematical comparison of those persons who inherited the succession with their less fortunate relations fails to show any appreciable influence of environment. Dr. Woods finds a very striking correlation between mental and moral traits, about as high as that which exists between a man's strength of pull and his weight. He also observes a distinct correlation between moral character and the number of children reaching adult life. Thus the prospect of general progress for the race seems fair. "We have found among royal families the morally superior surviving, and in the inheritance of mental and moral excellence we see ground for a belief in the necessary progress of mankind." On the other hand, "it is true that on this view we can do but little for the individual once born into the world."

There can be no doubt that the weight of current biological evidence tends strongly toward the preponderating influence of heredity. Nevertheless, there is a mass of credible testimony from various classes of social workers as to the practical results of environment, and most men can testify from their own inner experience to the impact of external influences which have profoundly modified their natures. The struggle between these two points of view is really a phase of the old problem of Predestination and Free Will which has passed from the church into the laboratory. The apparent conflict follows, perhaps, from the fact that the hereditary process, although mechanical, is so complex. Acting on a brain containing many and various ancestral potencies, the selective action of the environment may easily draw out one or the other in such a way as to alter at least the outward significance of a life in the profoundest manner. Whatever one may think of these problems, Dr. Woods's book is a solid and valuable contribution toward their solution. To the biologist, it fills an important place in the development of the theory of heredity. The historian who is wise enough to read the signs of his own as well as of other times, may ponder radical modifications of traditional points of view in the light of such promising scientific methods. All who are working for social progress must weigh the evidence it presents upon the ultimate aim of humanitarian effort, the improvement of the living stuff that men are made of.

Excavations at Nippur. (Part I.: Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania.) Plans, details, and photographs of the buildings, with numerous objects found in them during the excavations of 1889, 1890, 1893-1896, 1899-1900, with descriptive text by Clarence S. Fisher. Philadelphia. 1905.

Mr. Clarence S. Fisher, architect of the last expedition to Nippur of the University of Pennsylvania, has begun the publication of a work entitled as above. Beyond the words, "Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania," there is nothing to indicate that this is an official publication of the University. As no publisher is named, it would appear that it is published by Mr. Fisher at his own risk, and copies are to be ordered from him at Rutledge, Delaware County, Pa.

The first part, which is all that has so far appeared, contains sixteen pages of text (11x16 in.), with two cuts and sixteen plates, partly plans and drawings and partly photographic reproductions. By these means Mr. Fisher throws welcome light on some perplexing points. In his 'Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania,' the only account of the later excavations heretofore accessible, Hilprecht published an ancient map of Nippur, which, he asserted, was part of a small archæological collection made by a late Babylonian priest and found by himself in a vase on the "library hill." No explanation of the map was given; it was, in fact, published sidewise, and thus rendered quite unintelligible. Fisher states that the map was not found in a vase with other objects, nor even on "library hill," and was discovered months before Hilprecht reached Nippur. He has analyzed the map, which is fortunately provided with descriptive text, turned it right side up, and, by a comparison of the map and the excavations, restored the topography of the ancient city at a period about or a little before 3000 B.C. This is the earliest topographical map ever found. It is much to be regretted that the Director of the expedition, an Assyriologist, did not perceive its character while the expedition was still in the field, for it would have been an invaluable guide in the conduct of the excavations.

In his account of the excavations of the temple of Bel at Nippur contained in the book above referred to, Professor Hilprecht reported that evidences of occupation were found not only beneath the present plain level, but even below virgin soil down to water level. These earliest remains consisted of layers of ashes with fragments of pottery. From this he argued that the temple of Nippur was originally connected with the burning of the dead. But this theory did not account for the fact that excavations conducted to an equal depth in the parts of the Nippur mount farthest removed from the temple showed exactly the same conditions. Moreover, his account left us with a huge hole in the ground, below plain level and virgin soil, and no explanation of its meaning and origin. Fisher has given an entirely intelligible and reasonable explanation of these conditions. At the outset, when the marshes of the Euphrates delta were just emerging from the sea, the settlers were a rude population, living in reed and mat huts, similar to those occupied by the degenerate natives of those regions to-day. As now, so then, these villages were subject to frequent and disastrous conflagrations, of which the layers of ashes are the remnant and the proof. Gradually the land emerged from the marshes, by deposits of soil through inundations and by accumulation of débris. Out of one of these rude villages developed the town of Nippur, and out of the primitive sacred place of that village the temple of Bel. This temple grew *pari passu* with the growth in civilization of the town. By Fisher's plates we are able to follow the growth of this sacred place and temple upwards in a literal sense as it came to be raised on a terrace or platform, and then finally to be furnished with the *ziggurat* or artificial mountain. At the same time that it grew upward it expanded outward, occupying more and more space, until by the time of Sargon, circa 3000 B. C., the temple area was many times larger than the whole of the original walled town.

In tracing this development in its intermediate stages, effective use is made of the ancient map mentioned above, according to which Nippur was situated on the River Euphrates, and intersected and almost surrounded by canals, including a moat. Mr. Fisher certainly deserves great credit for the manner in which he has exhibited the topographical and culture development of Nippur and its temple. In this regard his work constitutes an important contribution to Babylonian archæology, and scholars will await with interest the publication of the remaining five parts, in which, it is to be hoped, more care will be bestowed on the proof-reading of the descriptive text.

The Spirit of Rome: Leaves from a Diary. By Vernon Lee. John Lane Co. 1906.

This book of impressions does not adequately fulfil the promise of its title or the expectations raised by the name of its author. In an explanatory apologetic preface, Vernon Lee tells of her childhood spent in Rome, of frequent subsequent visits confirming her conviction that Rome itself is too predominant and alive to allow of any distinct individual experiences being worked up in remembrance of its identity, as is the case with other cities; and for this very reason she has not attempted a portrait of Rome, but has left her notes untouched as a record rather of what Rome has said to her. These entries in her diary during the years from 1888 to 1905 read like hasty memoranda, jotted down carelessly at the end of a tiring day of sightseeing. Many of them are too fragmentary and personal to convey to the general reader any clear idea of what they mean, but here and there he will, if gifted with patience, come across vivid descriptions of the country and of events in that picturesque, impressionist manner which is natural to Vernon Lee even when, as in this book, she is as it were in her dressing-gown; for with her keen insight and freshness of vision she generally strikes a point of view utterly unconventional. In all the excursions to distant villas, bicycle rides to remote parts of the Campagna, religious functions, and wanderings in Roman gardens and among the ruins, we get the prevailing idea of immensity of scale and grandeur of line pervading everything—the feeling Piranesi has so effectively given in his exaggerated representations of Roman monuments, which Vernon Lee considers so truly representative of the very spirit of the place in things material. We quote from her note on the English Cemetery:

"I was right, I think, when I wrote the other day that it would be easier for us to face the thought of danger, death, change, here in Rome than elsewhere. To die here might seem, one would think, more like reentering into the world's outer existence, returning, as Epictetus has it, *where one is wanted.* The cypresses of the graveyard there under the city walls among the ruins do not seem to unite folk with the terrible unity Death, so much as with the everlasting life of the centuries."

It is a pity the book has been given to the public without eliminating all that is purposeless and inadequate—the brief mention of villas and galleries and the references to persons by initial. These futilities disturb the equanimity of the reader, and will prevent many from bestowing more than a cursory glance on its pages.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

A long step, if not towards a national law of marriage and divorce, at least towards a better national rule in such matters, was taken by the Supreme Court on Monday. Its decision that a divorce granted under the loose laws of one State need not be given "full faith and credit" in another, deals a blow at the long-standing scandal of "Dakota divorces." The court holds that the validity of a divorce granted almost *ex parte* in Connecticut can be successfully attacked in New York. Justice White, who read the opinion, had undoubtedly a difficult position in constitutional law to maintain, but his moral reasoning is certainly powerful. He shows how absurd it is for one State to be asked to give full faith and credit to the act of another which would destroy its own laws. "If," he says, "the-full-faith-and-credit clause were now to be held applicable to the enforcement in the States generally of decrees of divorce of the charcter of the one here involved, it would follow that the law of nearly all the States would be overthrown." The upshot of the decision appears to be that a divorce of two citizens of one State can be binding, when granted in another State, only when both parties were there present. This should either double or destroy the "divorce colony" in Sioux Falls and elsewhere. At any rate, the decision of the Supreme Court will do much to end the more disgraceful hugger-mugger of divorce that has so long been a national reproach.

Congressman McCall makes the point that the President might better busy himself about repealing unjust laws that conduce to swollen fortunes, than be so anxious to tax them when accumulated. Mr. Roosevelt declared that we must "grapple with problems connected with the amassing of enormous fortunes"; yet he himself has always favored, and now appears to favor, the class legislation which not only diverts wealth into the hands of a privileged few, but carries with it the sting of social injustice. The President at this moment is urging a ship-subsidy bill which is designed to put public funds into private pockets. He has never lifted a finger against the tariff, though it enables its beneficiaries to levy taxes upon the people. Think of the many "steel" fortunes "swollen beyond all healthy limits"; then think of the steel schedules in the Dingley tariff, and remember that the President has been so intimidated that he cancelled the tariff-reduction message which he had written. Far more important than the taxation of great fortunes after they are made, is the prevention of their being heaped up by means of purchased laws which destroy the only equality possible.

Senator Bailey's reputation, already great, will doubtless be heightened by his speech of April 10. To have held a crowded Senate and packed galleries for four hours listening to a close-knit legal argument, is an extraordinary achievement. On the validity of his contentions about points of law, we will not here undertake to pronounce, but he had a distinguished convert, in the very act, in the person of Senator Hale. The feeling was general that Mr. Bailey's speech had put a new face upon the whole rate-bill situation. In all the vacillation, however, it is gratifying to note that the President stands absolutely firm. Just where he stands, no one appears to know, but his friends indignantly deny that he has budged an inch from his original position, whatever that may have been. Seemingly, he has not got out of the realm of abstractions. He is heart and soul for a bill which will do "equal and exact justice," which will be "fair to railroad and shippers alike," and which will stand the test of constitutionality; but as to the actual details of a concrete bill, he refuses to commit himself. It is most reassuring, however, to get it on authority that he has not "surrendered."

It is obvious that a desperate effort is making to get the ship-subsidy grab through this session, after all. The bill slipped through the Senate, after perfunctory debate, though with marked Republican opposition, on the distinct understanding that the House would not touch it this year. Speaker Cannon's hostility to it was well known. But Grosvenor's approaching retirement from Congress seems to have spurred him to new exertions: his committee has begun a series of "hearings"; the lobby is at work; the press is being used; and the plan is plainly to make a grand onslaught and pull this bounty out of the Treasury, if possible, before the country is aware of the raid. The movement has every appearance of a sort of foreclosure on the Republican party by the ship-subsidy men. How much they gave to elect Mr. Roosevelt, Mr. Cortelyou could tell, but will not. They are now demanding that the goods they paid for be delivered. So transparent is this situation, and so unblushing the demand for a subsidy from the public funds, that a greater piece of folly than for the Republican managers to give way to the impudent appeal, could not well be imagined. Their Congressional campaign looks none too bright as it is. If they pile a ship subsidy on top of the tariff burdens which they have refused to touch with one of their fingers, the outlook for them will be black with political disaster.

The House Committee on Elections which has reported favorably upon a resolution providing for the election of Senators by direct vote, has heeded a growing sentiment. "Has again heeded," would be more accurate, of course, since the House has on four separate occasions passed such legislation as the committee now recommends. As a matter of fact, action by Congress to compel the choice of Senators by popular vote is becoming relatively unimportant. The States are falling into line, one after another, in insisting that at the State elections Senatorial candidates shall submit themselves to the judgment of the voters. So far, the popular verdict has not been regarded as absolutely mandatory, but practically the people's choice is as sure of being ratified formally by the Legislature as is the decision of the voters in a Presidential contest by the Electoral College. The Legislatures of Virginia and Arkansas may refuse to send to the Senate the man who won at the Democratic primaries; but the chances of this are small.

It would be strange if the United States, which opened Japan to Western nations, should be the first to shut the door in the face of the Japanese immigrant. In Congress the other day Mr. Hayes of California spoke in support of a bill to extend the Chinese exclusion laws so as to embrace the subjects of the Mikado and the Koreans. He professed to represent 95 per cent. of the people of his State in this matter, which, he said, is one of domestic policy, not of international law. He admitted that the Japanese had shown extraordinary intelligence and courage in the conduct of the war, but he condemned them for their dishonesty as a people, and declared that the vast majority "do not understand the meaning of the word 'morality.'" It would, indeed, be unfortunate if the Arcadian simplicity and purity of our politics were to be corrupted by admitting our Asiatic neighbors. The economic aspects of the question deserve more consideration. Mr. Hayes, who is himself an employer, presented statistics going to show that the Japanese coolie could greatly underbid the European and American workman. However this may be, it is to be hoped that Con-

gress will never exclude the Japanese who come here to attend our universities and technical schools. A continuance of intellectual relationship should increase the friendship between the two nations.

The American Federation of Labor evidently meant business when, through President Gompers, it announced that it was in politics. He now is circulating among the labor unions what must pass for a pretty definite programme. Its chief terms are these: The working people "will act as a unit at the polls of every election." It will "elect men from our own ranks to make new laws and administer them along the lines laid down in the legislative demands of the American Federation." Alongside this manifesto it savors of the bathetic to read that all labor candidates must have "clear, unblemished, paid-up union cards in their possession." President Gompers undoubtedly realizes that, however desirable a possession an untarnished union card may be, it is by no means the equivalent of a certificate of election. The labor leaders generally are probably encouraged by the success of their British colleagues. It was proved the other day, in the Commons, in the matter of immunity of union funds from damage suits, that about ten minutes of Mr. Keir Hardie's reefer was worth an hour and a half of the Attorney-General's robes. Mr. Gompers possibly foresees similar triumphs in the Capitol. However that may be, nobody need regret that American unionism is about to try its political luck. We are glad that the people are going to have a chance to vote on the claims of the labor oligarchy, and we have no fear of the verdict. Even for unionism itself we anticipate only good from a policy that will abate the present guerilla warfare, substituting therefor a comprehensive and unambiguous plan of campaign.

Secretary Taft's speech at Tuskegee has stirred up the Southern press not a little. Several editors are so frank as to say that no matter how far the negro may progress in wealth, education, and civic worth, he will never be allowed to vote. The Atlanta *Journal* finds in the Secretary's remarks fresh reason for the proposed Georgia disfranchisement laws, which, it tells its readers, "will insure the elimination of the ignorant and venal negro vote without disfranchising a single uneducated white man for at least the next quarter of a century." One Georgia editor has expressed great indignation at Mr. Taft for letting the negro know that, after the expiration of the grandfather clauses, he will be in an enviable political position, holding the balance of power between the two parties. This editor, betraying that regrettable ignorance of the educated colored man so noticeable among Southern men, exclaimed bitterly: "Mr. Taft tells the negro just what we have been trying to keep from him." As well might the South attempt to keep from the blacks the colors in the American flag as to hide from them any phase of the political situation. On this the negroes are becoming better informed and more dissatisfied every day. They do not share Mr. Taft's roseate hopes of what will happen after the grandfather clauses expire, for they fear that they will be defrauded anew. Recently two teachers in a Virginia school, one white, the other black, and both worthy American citizens, were disfranchised because they were held to have failed to answer properly some abstruse Constitutional questions propounded by an ignorant "poor-white" registrar for the deliberate purpose of disqualifying them.

The lynching at Springfield, Mo., presents anew the too familiar paradox of an apparently civilized—at any rate a representative American—community suddenly inflamed by the lust of blood. Springfield is a county seat. It is evidently a public-spirited town, for, with a population of some 23,000, it contains a college, a private academy, a high school, and maintains a zoölogical garden. It is, presumably, like most cities of the Middle West, a religious community. In fact, one of the most distressing details of the dispatches is the description of Sunday-school children searching the ashes in the spot where three negroes were burned—for souvenirs. The inhabitants of Springfield employ probably the considerate courtesy common to all communities with an infusion of Southern blood. Yet they disputed, on Sunday, a bit of the charred skull of a negro whom the mob had taken from the jail and consumed in a bonfire. Individually the citizens of Springfield would deny any lack of personal courage; but a sheriff and a group of armed deputies discreetly effaced themselves while the mob battered in the jail doors, wrecked the building, and hanged the prisoners from the windows. Probably Springfield would deeply resent any insinuation that its civilization is defective in sweet reasonableness. It perhaps reads with some amazement Gov. Folk's just characterization of the members of the mob as murderers. But what must one think of the civilization of a community where race hatred lies so near the surface that the representation of an incendiary play, the occurrence of a crime of violence, the consumption of bad whiskey, are sparks enough to kindle an *auto-da-fé?* We must in fairness add that both city and State are making such amends as are possible for the atrocity. The militia has cowed the mob, the bench has promptly issued warrants for the ringleaders, and the "better element," we are informed, is "shocked" at the belated discovery that the wrong negroes were lynched. Gov. Folk, in particular, has acted with exemplary vigor, both in supplying troops and in condemning the mob.

In Gov. Deneen's hurry call for an extra session of the Illinois Legislature to remedy the defects in the primary law passed last year, and just declared by the Supreme Court of the State to be unconstitutional, he says: "The old nominating system has been discredited. . . . The people have demanded the substance instead of the semblance of participation in the nomination of candidates." The Governor's general interpretation of State sentiment has been supplemented by ex-Gov. Yates's illuminating remarks upon the act that has been declared to be of no effect. Yates, of course, is an aspirant for Senator Cullom's seat, and he has been conducting a campaign for some months with the expectation that the choice would be made at the Republican primaries. Now he charges that the law as it passed the Legislature last year was "doctored" by "the friends of the Senatorial machine in Illinois." He declares that these plotters intended that it should be declared unconstitutional, and that they prefer the old convention system to any primary at all. We may doubt Yates's implication that it was all a plot hatched to kill his boom for the Senate; but it is evident that Gov. Dineen has public sentiment behind him in his desire to secure the prompt amendment of the faulty statute.

"Comic" is the only word to apply to the surprise and pain of our own rose-water and angel-cake Socialists, now that they have discovered that Maxim Gorky is not a hero for the *Ladies' Home Journal.* Gorky in turn is equally amazed and puzzled. He cannot understand why Americans who pine for that intellectual and moral freedom which will result from destruction of the existing social order, should look askance on a man who does a little destroying on his own account. Gorky is astonished at his own moderation. He has done nothing but leave his wife in Russia and come to America with another "spiritual affinity." The performance is not strictly legal, but—like all such cases—it has the sanction of the "higher law." Can it be that our own apostles of emancipation are still the slaves to grovelling superstition? Do they still make a fetish of the bourgeois virtues? Would Robert Hunter, James Graham Phelps Stokes, and Edwin Markham shackle a man to one woman for all his days? When she has borne two or three children and has lost her youthful comeliness, must he still

be compelled to gaze at her, fat and forty, across the breakfast table? This is to tie a soaring soul to earth and turn it to a clod. Mr. Markham's Man with a Hoe has a jolly time of it compared with the Man with One Wife. Let us drop a passing tear for victims of cruel and stupid conventions, and then push on to the goal of a revolutionized, glorified, and polygamous humanity.

For a good many years past the *American Grocer* has performed the important service of translating the Government excise statistics into current retail prices, and thus determining how much the people of this country actually spend for beverages, both alcoholic and non-alcoholic. The data thus obtained serve as valuable and exceptionally accurate indications of current changes in certain social habits and conditions. The figures for 1905, just issued, show a continuation of the same steady annual increase in this item of national expenditure as has been observed in the years previous. We spent for beverages $1,548,708,307, as against $1,498,622,715 in 1904, $1,451,633,379 in 1903, $1,369,098,276 in 1902, and $1,273,212,386 in 1901. The total drink bill to-day, as the compiler states, is "one-fourth of the total estimated production of the cotton, wheat, corn, hay, and tobacco crops, and every other product of farms, orchards, cattle ranches, dairies, and every other agricultural industry. It amounts to one-eighth of the nation's total expenditure for food." Although this increase has been larger not only absolutely, but relatively to the population—21.6 per cent. during a period when the population increased 6.5 per cent.—it would hardly be contended by any one that it has been a period of increased intemperance. It has been characterized, it is true, by the abandonment of statutory prohibition in two small States, but the local-option system has made great headway at the same time, and the area of legalized liquor selling has been very considerably decreased in many States, especially in the South. Corporations in certain lines have taken to requiring total abstinence from their employees, and the demands of industry have steadily become less compatible with over-convivial habits.

If we compare the per-capita consumption of liquors in 1905 with that for 1840, the first given in the current statistical abstract, we find a tremendous change in the relative proportion of alcoholic beverages consumed. Here are the figures in gallons per capita:

	Wines.	Malt liquors.	Distilled spirits.	Total.
1840.....	.29	1.36	2.52	4.17
1905.....	.43	18.50	1.45	20.28

That is, in sixty-five years, the average American has increased his allowance of beer fourteen times, and learned to drink half as much again of wine, but at the same time cut off three-sevenths of his consumption of whiskey. Only one of these changes, however, has been at all steady. The consumption of wine, as shown by the official statistics, has been wholly erratic, ranging as high as .63 gallon in 1902 and as low as .26 in 1896. The individual consumption of whiskey and other spirits showed an irregular decline until it reached its minimum of 1.01 gallons, also in 1896, after which it mounted again steadily for eight years to 1.48 gallons in 1904, and only this year has the increase ceased and a slight decline been indicated. But the increase of beer-drinking has been as steady and seemingly inevitable as that of population. From 1863 to the current year there have been only six years in which setbacks of even a fraction of a gallon occurred. In the days when practically untaxed whiskey sold for 25 cents a quart, this was emphatically a whiskey-drinking country. The question is now whether the present changes are to go on until we are to settle down beside Germany as characteristically a beer-drinking nation.

The Harvard Overseers having voted their disapproval of the Athletic Committee's decision to continue football at that institution next fall, the situation at Cambridge is in a worse muddle than ever. Faculty and Overseers, it will be remembered, voted against the game; the Corporation is still to be heard from, and has been holding off with a view to getting the final decision of the Athletic Committee. That body, it seems, failed to comply with the request of the Overseers to submit a report on the proposed changes in the game, and decided to go counter to the opinion of both Faculty and Overseers. Obviously, Harvard is suffering from a division of powers, and it would be difficult to forecast what the next step will be. The Athletic Committee may persist in its attitude, in which case the Corporation might end the whole controversy by abolishing football outright. The present condition of affairs contrasts unfavorably with the clear-cut action of other colleges. Surely, the oldest of American universities ought by this time to have reached a decision and, like Columbia and Northwestern, forbidden the game, or, like Wisconsin, prohibited it for a year. Harvard ought, also, to limit the powers of the Athletic Committee in such a way that it should be incapable of delaying the settlement of broad questions of policy. Curiously enough, the undergraduate members of the committee have generally been more radical and more sensitive to public sentiment than either the graduate or Faculty members.

When Emperor William's epitaph comes to be written, it will need to be almost the reverse of the satiric one on the English king who never said a foolish thing and never did a wise one. The Kaiser does a great many wise things, but whenever he speaks or writes—especially whenever he telegraphs—he is apt to go off in a blaze of indiscretion. His telegram on Friday to the Austrian Foreign Minister, apropos of the Algeciras Conference, is about as needless a blunder as one could well imagine. He speaks of Austria as his "brilliant second on the duelling ground." But this is to imply that there was a deadly combat, not a free and friendly conference, at Algeciras. It implies also that Germany was badly beaten. The "brilliant second" and the German principal were repeatedly outvoted; thus, according to the Kaiser's awkward figure of speech, Germany must have received several ugly thrusts in the "duel" at Algeciras. This is incontinently to repudiate Prince Bülow's public statement that the German contentions had been satisfactorily upheld. So much for Imperial rushing into print. Some one ought to send the Emperor a copy of Van Buren's old counsel of political wisdom: "Walk eleven miles rather than write a letter." In the Kaiser's case this might advantageously be amended: "Sail a thousand leagues rather than send a telegram."

Vesuvius will very soon be in politics. In fact, the legislative sequel of the eruption may very well outweigh its recent spectacular interest. The destruction of entire communes will push thousands of people over that narrow margin which in all Southern Italy separates a scanty livelihood from dire distress. Successive Parliaments have dealt with this South-Italian question without arriving at a solution. To-day that problem, to which Premier Sonnino has devoted especial study, becomes doubly acute. These Vesuvian villages are typical of Southern Italy generally. Their inhabitants suffer under a grievous burden of taxation, amounting in the case of small farmers to a full quarter of annual income. Besides the national and local taxes, an over-numerous priesthood takes toll of a superstitious populace. Of course, the distressed communes will be promptly relieved, both by suspension of taxation and by direct gifts; but this will only make the burden heavier elsewhere in Calabria and Apulia. In other words, the destruction on the Vesuvian plain furnishes the strongest argument for carrying promptly into effect the benevolent intentions long expressed towards the "Mezzogiorno." Tax reform is the most pressing need, but it is probable that a rather paternalistic programme of public works and agricultural improvement will also be instituted.

OUR SENTIMENTAL PRESIDENT.

Mr. Roosevelt has become a fearsome Socialist a little too suddenly to be entirely credible in that guise. He did, indeed, ruin his carefully prepared corner-stone speech on the Man with the Muck Rake by a chance phrase which made him look to the unwary like the Man with the Crowbar, ready to prize over the pillars of society. As a mere lapse in taste, this was deplorable enough. His speech was wholly sacrificed to one interjection. It was much as if the preacher of a temperance sermon had wound up by inviting all his hearers to go out and take a drink with him—they would not remember what had gone before. But we cannot ourselves see in the President's happy-thought proposal to limit private fortunes the deliberate and formidable political programme which some are reading into it. We have had too many of his impulsive utterances before to be unduly alarmed. His choice of a text from Bunyan should have suggested the true character in which he appeared on Saturday. One of the prototypes of our day whom the inspired tinker "saw in his dream" was Talkative. He thus described his own function:

> "I will talk of things heavenly or things earthly; things moral or things evangelical; things sacred or things profane; things past or things to come; things foreign or things at home; things more essential or things circumstantial."

Thereupon Christian smiled, and sagely remarked to Faithful:

> "This man with whom you are so taken, will beguile, with this tongue of his, twenty of them that *know him not*."

In short, we are inclined to think that those who know our Presidential Talkative will not be so much frightened as amused by his latest identification of his own temporary personal feeling with the policy which the nation ought to adopt permanently. He has gayly done the same thing many times before. It does, indeed, require a certain "pitch of presumption," as Burke said, for a man to think of his country as merely a piece of white paper upon which "to scribble whatever he pleases," but no one has ever accused President Roosevelt of erring through too great distrust of himself. A thing which appears to him overnight as really an excellent proposition, becomes *ipso facto* wise, feasible, Constitutional. So it was with his ready and confident proposal that Congress take over the regulation of life insurance. He thought it ought to be done, and that was demonstration enough. But the House Judiciary Committee felt compelled to look into the laws and Constitution, and then unanimously reported that the President's plan was absolutely unconstitutional. Since then he has made haste to "forget it." So it would be with any other splendid idea which occurred to him yesterday, and which he will abandon to-morrow.

People are beginning to have a more correct idea of Mr. Roosevelt's nature. The conception of him, fostered by some indiscreet friends and easily given color by his tremendous energy and loud speech, as a man of iron will and slowly formed determination and far-reaching thought and mature choice of line of action, is breaking down. We know better now what his "spontaneity" implies. His public speech is filled, like his private conversation, with whatever pops into his head. His view of his duties is essentially jovial. He loves to slap the country on the back with a "bright" thought, just as he delights to startle a foreign visitor by wild and whirling words that make the hair of the timid stand on end. He means no mischief by it.

It is time we understood that it is sentiment which predominates in the Presidential character. He has a surge of feeling; this he immediately translates into what he calls a "personal conviction"; then he identifies that with true public policy. No one should imagine, however, that he has given real thought to the matter, or that he will not drop it as hastily as he took it up. In a word, he seems to belong to what Cobden called the "genus sentimentalist." Of public men in that class he said: "They are not to be depended on in political action, because they are not masters of their own reasoning powers. They sing songs or declaim about truth, justice, liberty, and the like, but it is only in the same artificial spirit in which they made odes to dewdrops, daisies, etc. They are just as likely to trample on one as the other, notwithstanding."

Yet this, the most charitable explanation of the President's vagaries, does not diminish the regret and disquiet which his unconsidered deliverance on Saturday must cause. The very fact that, as he confessed, he had not thought out a single detail of his proposal to fix a limit beyond which private wealth should not go, and that he is absolutely without the Governmental means to effect that purpose, makes his rash utterance a serious discredit to him. It is too much like a boy wantonly thrusting a stick into a delicate machine. A truly responsible statesman, urging such a revolutionary proposition, would come forward as if with a halter round his neck, and request that it be drawn if he could not show that a law could be drafted to carry out his ideas. But what glimmering of a suggestion did Mr. Roosevelt make about his "progressive tax on all fortunes," to be laid by the national Government, with the end of keeping them within "healthy limits"? An inheritance tax would not do the business. Besides conflicting with State taxes of that kind, and leading to the grossest injustice, it would not accomplish the purpose at which the President professes to aim. He himself, for example, is said to have inherited something like $500,000. Of course, to a thorough-going Socialist that would be a thoroughly "unhealthy" fortune; but suppose that a Federal inheritance tax could be devised which would forbid any one from coming into a greater amount than that. It is clear that a man of Mr. Roosevelt's energy and ability, inheriting $500,000 at thirty-five, could double or treble his fortune before he died. So the only way of keeping him "healthy" would be a progressive income tax which would take all above $500,000. But here comes in the vexing trifle that the income tax has been declared unconstitutional.

We do not expect any terrible results from the President's happy-go-lucky remark about a subject to which, it is plain, he has given no serious thought. It will be a mortification to his friends, and a real public misfortune, that his mouthing has made Bryan appear a reactionary, Hearst a conservative, and has elevated Debs and Powderly to the level of Presidential statesmanship. But our laws, the Constitution, the inertia of our institutions, the common sense of the people, the ineradicable tendencies of human nature itself, may still be trusted as against either demagogues or improvisators.

SECRETARY SHAW AND GOLD IMPORTS.

Before passing judgment on Secretary Shaw's announcement regarding his use of Government money to "facilitate" gold imports from Europe, it will be best to make perfectly clear three points—what the situation was which prompted such a decision, what the law is under which his action is taken, and what its effect on the markets is likely to be. It is well known, in the first place, that the strain on our money markets this season has been abnormally great. The usual recourse is heavy borrowing from foreign markets. If this movement is large enough, New York exchange on London falls to a point where gold from abroad can be profitably imported. This is what happened last week; in response to the fall in exchange to the "gold point," gold was engaged for New York in London. With a decline in money rates, however, exchange on London last Thursday rose again to a price which, by general agreement of foreign bankers, rendered further gold imports unprofitable.

This was the moment chosen by the Secretary to use the Government surplus to facilitate imports. In the words of Mr. Shaw's own announcement, "the price of exchange having reached the point where gold ought to have been imported,

and believing the reason why it was not engaged to be the loss of its use during transit," the Treasury notified banks holding public money that it was willing "to increase the deposit to any amount when assured that the money would be immediately used in the engagement of gold for shipment to the United States," and that, as security for these new deposits, "bonds available as security to savings banks" would be accepted. What the Secretary means by "loss of use in transit" is that a banker, engaging, say, $1,000,000 gold in London for import to New York, must forego the interest on that sum during the week when the gold is on the ocean. By making a special seven-day loan of public money to the banks—this is what the Secretary's plan really amounts to—the cost of importing gold is reduced by precisely the sum of "interest during transit." With such allowance, gold could be profitably imported by a bank without waiting for sterling exchange to fall to the normal "gold point."

It should be clear, then, that Mr. Shaw's arrangement is an interference of the Government with the market. Had the Secretary merely announced that the Treasury was again absorbing the market's money supplies through a surplus revenue, and that therefore public deposits in banks were to be increased, the action would have followed precedent. That this was not the primary purpose of last week's step is shown by the conditions laid down by Mr. Shaw. Deposits will be increased only "when assured that the money will be immediately used" for gold import purposes, and, furthermore, it must "be returned immediately on the arrival of the gold." As a matter of fact, the excuse of Treasury absorption of money did not exist last week. Since March 1, the surplus revenue has been $4,600,000; but, in the same period, public deposits in banks have been increased $12,000,000. The fact, however, that the Secretary explicitly provides that the bank must pay back the Treasury money when the gold arrives, shows that he is not thinking of the Treasury drain at all.

Under what warrant does the Secretary make this unusual arrangement? The Federal law undoubtedly gives rather broad powers in the matter. Its stipulation is that the Treasury shall require banks holding public funds "to give satisfactory security, by the deposit of United States bonds and otherwise"; beyond this it states that they "shall be depositaries of public money, except receipts from customs, under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary." It is a somewhat violent construction of this clause to regard the supplying of Government funds to invest in gold imports as within the meaning of the "regulations" referred to, yet we suppose that construction to be the Secretary's recourse. But something more is involved than the letter of the law. The use of Government money, avowedly to influence a financial market with whose movement the Treasury is not itself concerned, is something new. Government bond redemptions, Government bank deposits, and "anticipation" of Treasury interests are expedients which have been adopted repeatedly in times of money stringency; but always on the ground, most carefully set forth, that excessive surplus revenue had caused the trouble. It is true, also, that Government credit has been employed, as in 1895, to enable bankers not only to influence but to control the foreign exchanges and the flow of gold. But President Cleveland's "Government-bond-syndicate contract" was a measure adopted to rescue the Treasury itself from a "run" which threatened suspension of Government gold payments—which is a very different thing from using public money to reduce the normal cost of a banker's private operations.

Our own judgment is that this extraordinary move by the Secretary is wholly unjustified by the law or the circumstances. We further think that it will be futile—if indeed it do not further complicate an already tangled money situation. It cannot be properly compared with the occasional offer of "interest in transit" by the Bank of France or the Bank of Germany. Such offers have been made by banks, not by a Government, and made because banks saw a profit in the operation. Furthermore, it is questionable whether such an offer, in any market, ever actually caused gold imports. With gold going out from London or New York, it is easy to understand why "allowance of interest in transit" by the French Bank might draw all the exports to Paris rather than to Berlin. But the "special inducement' would not have caused the shipment; that is an old and exploded delusion very current in Wall Street during 1892 and 1893, and which we are sorry to see the present Secretary share. All that this very remarkable Government interference has accomplished, so far as concerns the market of the day, is slightly to alter the "gold-import point," as Mr. Sherman, in 1892, altered the "gold export point" by raising the export tax on bullion. Mr. Sherman thought, apparently, that his plan would stop gold exports by making them more expensive, just as Mr. Shaw seems to think that he can cause gold imports by making them cheaper. Both ideas are pure economic delusion. That the effort to further so hare-brained a scheme should have been made through a highly questionable use of the public moneys, does not help the matter.

RURAL CORRUPT PRACTICES.

It is generally agreed by those who have worked hardest and longest at Albany this year to secure the passage of a corrupt-practices act, that the strongest opposition has come from country members of the Legislature. The bill went up with an impressive backing from this city. Other large centres of population in the State were at least ready to give their assent. There would have been no great difficulty about getting the delegations from "corrupt cities" like Buffalo and New York to support the measure, but the pure-minded representatives from the innocent rural regions were the ones who got in the way. They first amended the bill so as to make it as ineffective as possible; and then proceeded to dilly-dally over it until there is now admitted to be grave doubt whether the act in any form can be got from the present Legislature.

The country Senators and Assemblymen who object to a law more stringently controlling the outlay of money in elections, and calling for complete publicity of the accounts of party committees, do not, when you press them, conceal their motives. Behind their assumed legal scruples and doubts on the ground of public policy, lies an intimate acquaintance with the way in which party primaries are carried and elections won in the sparsely settled districts of the State. There the cost is, we believe, much greater per voter than in the cities. It is not charged that direct corruption is resorted to on any great scale; but there are countless methods of indirect bribery. Old Bill Jones of Stony Hill Road cannot really be expected to get to the polls unless paid for the wear and tear of his team. If he brings his hired man along, that necessarily means $5 more. And if he stops on the way to pick up half-a-dozen friends, why, he and they must have at least what the economists call the "rewards of abstinence." They have abstained from earning $100 on their farms, and naturally should, in all fairness, have it made up to them. The habit spreads all through the district, and is clearly one of the most expensive habits known to politicians. The amount of money which it is considered absolutely "necessary" to put out among country people in a political campaign is notoriously large. The debauchery of the hill towns of Connecticut, by such means, has been made the subject of careful study. Investigators in darkest New York, meaning thereby the sweet, clean, unsophisticated villages and farms, would find material as unpleasantly instructive.

We have at hand a slight unveiling of conditions in Putnam County. A contest for control within the Republican party has been going on there, the rivals being Assemblyman Yale and "the

friends of the Hon. Hamilton Fish." Putnam County has, of course, long been a sort of preserve of the Fish family, and the effort to wrest it away could not be other than arduous, spectacular, and costly. Many picturesque details are given in the *Putnam County Courier*, published at Carmel, of April 6. From Ludingtonville, for example, came an account of the Republican caucus of March 31. The Yale men beat the Fish men by 104 to 49. This was not bad—153 votes when the registry showed a total of but 163 voters in a district which the Democrats carried last fall. Some of the forcing methods used to make two Republicans grow in the caucus where only one grew in the election, are suggested in the following:

> "It is estimated that over $5,000 was paid directly to the voters, and that, with the preliminary expenses, over $6,000 was expended. The successful faction paid $40 per vote, and the losers averaged about $16. We hear of one family of four voters who were paid $200, and the Fish faction in some cases is said to have offered as high as $20 for a vote."

It was, however, at Adams Corner on April 2 that the hottest contest was waged. The *Courier's* correspondent waxed enthusiastic in his account of the magnificent political strategy displayed and the glorious fighting witnessed. An expert Republican politician from Peekskill was on the ground to see what he could learn of skilled caucus-packing, and "spoke in the most favorable terms of the impression he had received."

It was hoped that Mr. Fish would be at the scene in person to cheer on his followers, but "at the very last moment he telegraphed that, it being Monday, his busy day at the Sub-Treasury, it would be impossible for him to be present." Yet Deputy Collector of Internal Revenue Donohoe was present "in the interest of Mr. Fish," and "paid strict attention." Democrats as well as Republicans were "lined up on either side," so that, "in looking the crowd over, one could not be sure whether it was a Republican or a Democratic caucus that had been called." But all knew why the gathering was so large. Farmers' wagons were never so thick, and as much as $50 was said to have been paid for a "lift." When the votes were finally counted, the score stood: Yale 127, Fish 122. Thus the Yale faction appeared to be winning, and the *Courier's* knowing correspondent remarks: "It will be necessary for six to change their minds in the convention in order for Mr. Fish to win. Can Mr. Fish manage so many? His friends believe he will."

It is but right to add that the *Courier* is a Democratic newspaper. Hence its zeal in exposing the corruption of the other fellows may have made its details too precise. But the main outlines of the picture, with its life-like rendering of the very atmosphere, are drawn with a veracious pencil. It helps us to understand the holy horror with which the provisions of the corrupt-practices bill are read at Albany, since the contested country primary is not very different from the country election. Section 203, for example, provides that "every political committee shall have a treasurer, and shall cause him to keep detailed accounts of all money or its equivalent received by or promised to, and of all expenditures, disbursements, and promises of payment or disbursement made by the committee or any of its officers or members, or by any person acting under its authority or in its behalf." Imagine that put in force in Putnam County!

A PROBLEM OF ADMINISTRATION, NOT RACE.

In his suggestive essay on "Race Questions and Prejudices," in the current *International Journal of Ethics*, Prof. Josiah Royce discusses with great ability and charm a question which for Americans daily becomes of larger and larger import. No one can hereafter claim to be an authority on race antagonisms unless he has acquainted himself with this scientific and masterly treatment of the subject. Here is the college investigator at his best, for Professor Royce has obviously written without prejudice and solely with the desire to establish certain truths. But he has not contented himself with theoretical studies; a part of his paper rests upon personal observations of the relations of whites and blacks in the West Indies.

Professor Royce's intimation that the race problem is a misnomer for a difficulty of quite another character, of itself throws light. Neither in Trinidad nor in Jamaica did he discover what is known as our Southern problem. There are no mobs there and no bitter antagonisms. There are other topics of conversation than the negro; the whole economic and political life of the islands does not revolve around him. The question of intermarriage between blacks and whites is not the final outcome of every conversation dealing with the future of the islands. Your white West Indian would be astounded to read such an indictment as a Southern white man presents against his own section in the current *South Atlantic Quarterly*. The Rev. John E. White there declares that the source of the South's "past and present weakness" was and is "the absorption of the Southern thought by one single issue—the question of the negro." The Jamaica race question, Professor Royce reports, was solved "by the simplest means in the world, viz., by English administration and by English reticence," and in this he confirms the view of an English colonial official, as expressed last year in the *International Quarterly*. When once the sad period of emancipation with its consequent disorder had passed, the Englishman organized Jamaica, established good courts which by fair treatment gained the confidence of the blacks, and then trained negroes to police the other negroes under white direction. The courts dealt with the too forward and litigious negro by encouraging him to air his grievances in court and by punishing him moderately when he deserved it. This, says Professor Royce, is a "truly English type of social pedagogy," which makes of the negro a "conscious helper towards good social order."

But administration did not stop there. It filled the island with good roads, reduced tropical diseases to a minimum, established a civil service for which in due time black men qualified, taught the population loyalty and order, and helped them "up from slavery." In this work, reticence played a great part: the superior did not dwell upon his superiority nor the other's inferiority; "superiority is best shown by good deeds and by few boasts." Moreover, there was an absence of certain irritating and annoying customs familiar to our South. Legal hanging is regarded as more desirable than lynching; there are no attempts to "make an example" by burning up a negro quarter as at Springfield, Ohio; and black women are not regarded as deserving of abominable violence because of mere relationship to an alleged murderer, as has happened in Mississippi and elsewhere. In short, the law takes its course, and the population remains calm.

All this leads Professor Royce to say to the Southerner:

> "The problem that endangers the sanctity of your homes and that is said sometimes to make lynching a necessity, is not a race-problem. It is an administrative problem. You have never organized a country constabulary. Hence, when various social conditions, amongst which the habit of irritating public speech about race-questions is indeed one, though only one condition, have tended to the producing and to the arousing of extremely dangerous criminals in your communities, you have no adequate means of guarding against the danger. . . . If you insist that in some districts the white population is too sparse or too poor, or both, to furnish an efficient country constabulary constantly on duty, why, then, have you not long since trained black men to police black men? Sympathy with the law grows with responsibility for its administration. If it is revolting to you to see black men possessed with the authority of a country constabulary, still, if you will, you can limit their authority to a control over their own race."

Whether it would thus be possible to limit the powers of a colored constabulary is open to question. But the record of the American negroes in the army of the United States, under both colored and white officers, makes it perfectly plain that they can be trained to be obedient, faithful, and self-restrained servants of the law. At Tuskegee the spirit of discipline inculcated by colored teachers is the school's most remarkable exhibit. We have long maintained that, in view of all the conditions

in the South, his own ignorance, and his terrible heritage from slavery, the negro is singularly docile, singularly law-abiding. That he is wholly without that desire to use a knife or revolver so characteristic of the Italian and the Greek, is creditable to him, and a great piece of good fortune for the country.

We shall not dwell further on the contrast between Jamaican and Southern administrative conditions, save to speak of affairs in Louisville. Its citizens complain that the negroes are a menace, and that they are retrograding. Yet they do next to nothing to elevate them, while setting the worst possible example of bad government before them. As if this were not enough, the city is without modern housing or sanitary laws, and the negroes are crowded into cellars or abandoned stables—precisely the conditions for a high death-rate and for a low morality. Here English administrative methods would work a revolution, if only because the best whites would coöperate with the best blacks—even if they did not eat with them. Truly, Professor Royce is correct. Too many Americans, North and South, "view as a fatal and overwhelming race-problem what is a perfectly curable accident of our present form of administration"; and this is as true in the slums of New York as in the desolate stretches of Mississippi or Arkansas.

DECORATIVE ARTS IN AMERICA.

An English architect visiting among us has made some stir by pointing out the low estate of decoration in America. His criticism touched particularly upon the uninteresting and stereotyped nature of our designs for furniture, and upon the inappropriateness of our architectural ornamentation. A number of local decorators and mural painters who commented on these strictures, agreed in the main. A movement in the National Arts Club to found a school of fine craftsmanship shows a feeling that all is not well in this field. The Director of the Metropolitan Museum undoubtedly feels that he is acting as a missionary *in partibus* when he brings over specimens of fine wood-carving and copies of old interiors. A certain uneasiness on the topic is periodically expressed. Our fathers and mothers hoped to be saved æsthetically by installing "Eastlake" chairs—uncommonly uncomfortable they were to sit or look upon—and we ourselves are only gradually escaping the domination of "Mission" carpentry and "fumed" woodwork.

In the matter of furniture and interior decoration, we have never fully recovered from the hideousness of the decadent Empire style, and the even worse anarchy that prevailed through the sixties and seventies. One has only to observe the woodwork of the houses built in the forties or earlier to perceive that then a standard of taste, narrow, to be sure, but cultivated and intelligent, still existed, and was served by a craftsmanship which, if by no means inventive, was at least competent. A comparison of a very humble interior of that period with those of to-day would show that we have passed from intelligent adaptation of two closely related styles—the so-called Georgian and the early Empire—to haphazard and lifeless copying of all the historic styles. From this point of view, the unenterprising devotion of our handful of Beaux-Arts architects to the Louis XVI. style has at least the merit of being a protest against the ruling flabby eclecticism. It may be that a scholarly revival of one style will furnish a basis for future invention.

All along the line is displayed the same incapacity for the simpler elementary forms of design. The best mural painting of our artists is set up amid machine-made decoration, usually of the most inappropriate sort. Unhappily, the average mural painter is incapable of designing the simplest arabesque for himself; both he and his architects are reduced to selecting a border or moulding from the books, which is coldly copied by a mediocre craftsman. Those artists who, like Mr. La Farge, have rebelled against this condition, and have sought to attain an harmonious setting for their wall paintings, have struggled against practically insurmountable difficulties. In external decoration for architecture the case is the same. How rarely is the eye pleased by a bit of truly inventive design like the façade of the New York Yacht Club, or even by well-executed and effectively distributed ornament, such as one finds in the new Madison Square Church.

Henry James, in his recent analytical ejaculations upon transformed New York, finds the particular root of the evil in the checkerboard skyscraper. When a building must consist of the greatest possible amount of rentable window space, he asks, Where is the place for beautiful design or incidental ornament? This seems to lay upon a particular form of speculative building the blame that should fall upon the public taste generally. One should condemn not the thrift that insists on these steel and glass houses, but the vanity on the owner's part and the hurry on the architect's, which fill these vast wall spaces with superfluous and ineffective ornament. Would that more architects might take the time not to decorate! That might force some study of the actual problem of design, and might lead, along the line of color, perhaps, at least to skilful evasion of the present sieve-like effects.

The real responsibility for the fallen estate of decorative art among us must be sought in the undue contempt in which it is held by artists and the artistic minority, and in the general absence of taste among the newly-rich classes. This scorn of applied design on the part of the artistic is eminently provincial and bespeaks a limitation. The best artists of the Renaissance were willing to decorate furniture, design frames, or undertake an entire interior. They passed readily from painting to sculpture and architecture. Raphael and his school evidently took a keen delight in the invention of arabesque patterns. Even in the eighteenth century, the culmination of academic ideals, nobody seems to have thought it was *infra dig.* for Clodion and Falconnet to apply their exquisite sculpture to the adornment of furniture and clocks. Condemned by the professional artist and misunderstood by its best patrons, decorative design either has fallen into commercial hands, or has fared worse in the keeping of an army of ill-trained amateurs. Mr. La Farge has invented the beautiful art of painting in opalescent glass, only to see it commercially vulgarized in his own lifetime. In architectural bronze work and iron work alone can one discern a promising condition. Meanwhile eager amateurs here and there glaze pots which they have bought in open market, painfully imitate colonial needlework, bind books in unhandy fashion, set stones in random collocations of precious metals, or otherwise illustrate the ineptitude of the individual when unsustained by an artistic tradition.

The remedy will come, we believe, not by direct effort, but by the education of the wealthy classes into something like taste. To syndicate a regiment of under-trained and over-individualized craftsmen into a school would merely increase the output of bad and eccentric craftsmanship. On the other hand, the moment that our rich men and our rulers who have the say in public building, learn to know good design from bad, good design will follow their demand. The growth of museums and the indiscriminate collecting that is going on should further this process of education. The possessor of a single piece of fine wood-carving should gradually come to see the inferiority of those poor excerpts from French châteaux and Italian palaces with which his mansion is decorated. It should not forever be possible to live with the best Persian carpets and the finest tapestries of Flanders and France and tolerate the kind of wall and floor covering that our commercial decorators affect. One may at least hope something from the generation of privileged children that is growing up amid a mixture of the best and the worst decoration. A child's taste is usually singularly sensitive and correct, and despondent æsthetes among us may fairly take this comfort, that, if we are in worse state than our grandfathers, we have at least emerged from our fathers'

complacent acquiescence in ugliness. Our children may actually rise to the conception that an identical merit obtains in a fine mural painting and a fine door escutcheon, that the makers of both are artists, and that a keen appreciation of the minor arts is the surest guarantee of a healthful condition in the fine arts.

NATHANIEL SOUTHGATE SHALER.

Dean Shaler died at his home in Cambridge on April 10. The fluctuations of his last illness, extending over more than a fortnight, were followed with intense anxiety, not merely in Cambridge, but throughout the community. Among Harvard students and graduates he enjoyed a unique popularity. By a common impulse, the flags on the students' clubs and on the city buildings were hung at half-mast; and on the afternoon of his funeral the shops in Old Cambridge were closed—a tribute which, during the past generation, no other Harvard professor has had. In his death the *Nation* likewise mourns an old friend and contributor. His first review, on "Volcanoes and Earthquakes," was printed in 1869, in the eighth volume of this journal, and he continued on its active staff of reviewers until 1898.

Professor Shaler was born near Newport, Ky., on February 20, 1841. His people had migrated from England to the West Indies, and thence to New York State. His great-uncle, William Shaler, was appointed in 1815 by President Madison consul-general to the Barbary States, with residence at Algiers, where, in concert with Commodore Decatur, he negotiated the peace that put an end to Algerine piracy on American commerce. His father, Nathaniel Burger Shaler, after graduating from Harvard College in 1827 and from the Medical School two years later, spent some time in Jamaica, then settled in Kentucky, and came to hold an honored place among the physicians of his section. He married into the Southgate family, which had crossed the mountains from Virginia. Thus, in stock and antecedents, the future scientist had a fortunate inheritance. His early education he received from a tutor, a learned German named Escher, who taught him the humanities, discussed philosophy with him, and fostered his insatiable appetite for reading. His father encouraged his taste for natural history.

In 1859 the youth was sent to Harvard, where he enrolled himself in the Lawrence Scientific School, and very soon attracted notice, whether by his hearty and downright manner or by his quick, keen, and versatile mind. He pursued the course in zoölogy, did special work with Louis Agassiz, and graduated Bachelor of Science in 1862. Not waiting for Commencement, Mr. Shaler hurried to Kentucky, enlisted in the Federal army, and was commissioned captain of the Fifth Kentucky Battery, which came to be known as "Shaler's," and during the next two years he saw active service, for the most part in his native State. At one time he was on Tillson's staff, at another he was chief of artillery for fortifications under Burnside; at Perryville, in 1862, he helped to repulse Bragg's invasion, and in 1863 his command was sent to intercept Morgan's raid into Ohio. The military experience, besides giving him wide human contacts, taught him self-discipline. The impress of it made one feel, in later years, that behind the delightful talker, with his flashes of dazzling speculation, was the man of action, who had looked danger in the face.

Broken in health, he resigned from the army in 1864, and returned to Cambridge, where he received an appointment as instructor in Palæontology, and in 1869, at what even then was an unusually early age, he was promoted full professor. This chair he held continuously till his death, its title after 1888 being changed to Geology. As he was one of the first American men of science to accept evolution, it required courage in him to interpret that doctrine under the very eyes of Louis Agassiz, who still adhered to the old cosmogony; but he had tact as well as courage, and his relations with the then "pope" of American science remained untroubled. After Agassiz's death in 1873, Mr. Shaler had a free hand at the Museum, where, needless to say, Darwinism speedily prevailed. In 1891, on the resignation of Prof. W. S. Chaplin, he became Dean of the Lawrence Scientific School, which, under his direction, has grown rapidly in numbers, and, what is of real consequence, in efficiency. It was Dean Shaler who, in 1893, brought Prof. I. N. Hollis to Harvard to take charge of the Department of Engineering; he planned the metallurgical instruction, which is already second to none in America; and he has been largely responsible for the improvement in the intellectual standard and moral character of the members of the School. The last months of his life were devoted to the organization of the Graduate School of Applied Science, an object long in his mind, and at length made possible through the magnificent bequest which, at his suggestion, the late Gordon McKay left to Harvard.

But while Mr. Shaler in these and other ways stamped his influence on the structural growth of the University, it was not as an able administrator that forty classes of Harvard students knew him best; it was as a lecturer of unique gifts and as a friend that he stirred their interest and kindled their admiration and affection. He gave a course in geology, known as "Natural History 4," which became the most popular of any at Harvard, frequented by so large a proportion of undergraduates that in the space of a generation it attracted more than seven thousand of them into his lecture-room. There they found a thin, wiry man, somewhat under six feet in stature, but erect, quick of gesture, with a great mass of tawny hair brushed German-fashion away from his forehead, a tawny beard, a long, prominent nose, and pale blue eyes, which had, on occasion, now a penetrating flash, now a humorous twinkle. This was Shaler, and, as soon as he began to lecture, his hearers discovered that he was unlike every one else they had ever heard. He poured out a stream of wonderful entertainment; science, anecdote, wit, humor, reminiscence, pertinent illustration, or mirthful aside, followed each other in sparkling sequence. He used a wholly individual language, strong, vivid, picturesque, with plenty of simple Saxon raciness, and, at need, he coined fantastic but expressive words, or drew from the Shaksperian vocabulary. His laugh, which had many stops, was the laugh of the man of humor, and often confirmed or carried forward his meaning. He alone knew with how large a number of students he came into personal relations, how many he helped with advice or money, how many he found positions for after they left college. If any was sick, Mr. Shaler made straight for his room or the hospital, to see that everything was done for him.

But Mr. Shaler's popular lectures, and his personal friendly oversight of hundreds of students, consumed only a part of his time. He always conducted one or more advanced courses in palæontology, and during the past fifteen years he had shouldered the growing responsibilities of his deanship. He also directed the Summer School, which, in fact, grew out of his practice, early in the seventies, of offering instruction to volunteer students during the long vacation. Still, these various services to Harvard did not exhaust his energy. Appointed in 1872 Director of the State Geological Survey of Kentucky, he held that post for seven years. From 1884 to 1900 he was geologist in charge of the Atlantic Division of the United States Coast Survey. As a geological expert, his advice was sought by some of the largest mining enterprises in the country. At different times he was a member of Massachusetts commissions on highways, agriculture, and the extermination of the gypsy moth. As if this were not enough, he took part in local political matters, to the extent at least of aiding in the election of proper candidates, and he expressed himself freely on national issues.

Mr. Shaler began to print early, and before his death he had brought out twenty-five or thirty volumes, besides unnumbered magazine articles and scientific papers. His books illustrate the breadth of his interests. In science, for instance, there are a geological manual, 'The Story of Our Continent,' 'The Interpretation of Nature,' 'Illustrations of the Earth's Surface,' 'Fossil Brachiopods of the Ohio Valley,' 'Features of Coasts and Oceans,' 'American Highways,' and 'Domesticated Animals.' To history belongs the volume on Kentucky in the "American Commonwealths" series. 'The United States of America' gives an encyclopædic survey of the physical and material elements of the republic. In quite a different class fall four books which have appeared in the past five years—'The Individual: A Study of Life and Death,' 'The Citizen,' 'The Neighbor,' and 'Man and the Earth.' These present in clear and often striking language what we may call Mr. Shaler's philosophy, his final views on the relations of the individual with the infinite, on his political and civic contacts, and on his social and human ties, with an examination, half-scientific, half-prophetic, of man's probable destiny on the earth. Only a critic endowed with Mr. Shaler's versatility could pass an intelligent opinion on this great body of work; but even an unscientific reader cannot fail to do justice to the Shaleresque qualities of these later volumes, so rich in suggestion, so stimulating, so alert, and so human. A few years ago, Professor Shaler surprised his associates and the reading public by publishing at a single volley five dramas under the

general title 'Elizabeth of England.' He undertook their composition to disprove the assertion of one of his colleagues that the pursuit of science destroys the poetic imagination. These plays certainly show that in his case the imaginative faculty never languished, and they are much more than a mere *tour de force*.

After all, it is the great university figure whose passing we deplore. By his many talents and his ceaseless industry, wedded to a large, helpful nature, he showed that the calling of a university professor has the noblest possibilities; he humanized it. There is the constant danger that the drudge, the bookworm, the narrow specialist, shall bring learning into disrepute by divorcing it from life; it was Mr. Shaler's distinction to prove by his example that a professor may touch life on all sides, carrying to the world the disinterestedness of the university, taking to the university the higher practicalness and vitality of the world, and teaching both that that is the true learning which most enriches life and best reveals "come l'uomo s'eterna."

ON INDIA'S FRONTIER.

PESHAWAR, February 2, 1906.

In these days when the Amir of Afghanistan so rigorously excludes all white men from his dominions, there is to the traveller a certain satisfaction in obtaining at least a glimpse of his borders; and when such a glimpse combines a visit to Peshawar and the historic Khaibar Pass near by, a trip to the northwest frontier of India proves to be well worth while. Peshawar itself is reached from Delhi by a journey of thirty-six hours in the train northwards through the Punjab. It is a city with a distinctly northern atmosphere, and, though anything but beautiful in itself, has a decided attraction in its inhabitants, who are for the most part tall, strapping Afghans, clad in dirty white shawls and fantastically wound turbans. They have very light skins and fierce, bearded faces. From their general lawless, if not desperate, appearance we can understand that in entering the native city after dark, an Englishman takes his life in his hands, if he does not actually throw it away.

Ten miles to the west rises a chain of mountains, part of the system of natural barriers which shut off India from Central Asia, but at this very point pierced by the famous Khaibar Pass, through which from time immemorial, from Alexander to Tamerlane, ambitious conquerors have led their invading armies. The pass, which is some thirty miles long and extends across the strip of No Man's Country dividing India from Afghanistan, is in charge of an English officer, called the political agent of the Khaibar, and is fortified by several blockhouse posts, mounted at intervals on the hillsides so as to command the road below. Three quarters of the way through the pass the English have their furthest post, a strong fort called Landi Kotal, garrisoned by several hundred native troops. Six miles further on, the mountains end, and a broad valley marks the beginning of Afghan territory.

There are probably few more unsafe regions in the world than this Afghan borderland. The unruly mountain tribes, who live practically in a state of anarchy, have for generations spent their lives in raiding villages, robbing caravans, and quarrelling among themselves. As a result they are recklessly bloodthirsty, fighters first and foremost, holding life appallingly cheap. Thus the Khaibar Pass is closed, except on Tuesdays and Fridays, when the hills on both sides are heavily picketed. On these days native caravans toil through the defile escorted by squads of native troops. It seems rather curious that these troops should be recruited from the same Afridi villages, and even families, whose warriors are likely to murder passers-through, but the English could not with safety employ other races of Sepoys in such a hostile neighborhood. At the same time internal warfare is so common among the Afridis themselves that they see nothing unnatural in having a son in the English service shoot his own father or brothers who are engaged in some predatory raid.

Ordinarily tourists and even British officers are not allowed in the pass as far as Landi Kotal, but have to be content with the bit extending to Ali Masjid. Fortunately, however, we secured the necessary "special permission" to proceed to Landi Kotal, and, armed with a note in Hindustani to that effect, we set out early one gray morning in a two-wheeled tonga, drawn by a pair of swift ponies. Quickly outside of Peshawar, we raced for an hour over a bare level plain towards the mountains. Then we passed Fort Jumrud, a post connected with Peshawar by a military railroad, and in a few minutes were in the mouth of the pass, ascending the winding and twisting road (also military) which the English have carefully built from one end of the pass to the other. Another hour among the mountains brought us to Ali Masjid, where we dismounted to present our pass, while the driver found a relay of ponies. On this Friday we found starting on its way to Kabul a large caravan of camels, huge, awkward, shambling beasts laden with heavy packs, accompanied by a number of ragged, uncouth drivers on foot, and escorted by a guard of "Khaibar Rifles," the regiment of Afridi troops stationed at Landi Kotal which pickets the pass—against its own relatives.

Soon distancing the slow-moving caravan, we found that the chief interest of the day was about to begin, for a few miles beyond Ali Masjid, we came upon our first Afridi villages, square, mud-walled forts, some of them strengthened by tall mud towers pierced with narrow slits for rifles. From now on, the road, passing through a widening valley, led past several score of these unique communities, each resembling an isolated stronghold. They are in the nature of family dwellings, containing from fifteen to forty inhabitants, and cover on an average perhaps half an acre of ground. The enclosures give one the impression that each Afridi is at war with his neighbor, and that is not far from the truth, for life among these people is anything but tranquil. The pass is wide enough at this point to allow of a certain amount of agriculture, by which they find means of subsistence. But their fighting qualities are predominant, and the distinguishing institutions among the Afridis is the blood feud. It is in this that we find the explanation of their fortified homes.

Since the Afridis cannot always unite in slaying common foes, their bloodthirsty instincts find expression in the system of hereditary feuds, tribe against tribe, section against section, subsection against subsection, down to family against family. The whole thing, with its complicated code of etiquette, presents a maze of quarrels, murders, and revenges far too perplexing for a Western mind to grasp, and entails a familiarity with family pedigrees, histories, and relationships for generations back, quite bewildering to any but these spirited Mohammedans—for they are Mohammedans, and, though their religion does not prevent blood feuds, it regulates to some extent their prosecution. Truces, often of months, are declared at times of religious festivals, marriages, and the like; and a truce may be declared at any time when both parties are willing.

An elaborate code of etiquette, scrupulously observed and rarely broken, is perhaps the strangest feature of the feud system. For instance, the Government road is held to be neutral ground, and no man will harm his bitterest enemy on this highway. Upon this the English insist; otherwise, as far as the authorities are concerned, the murdering goes on unheeded. Accordingly, many of the houses near the road are connected with it by deep trenches protected by stone walls, by which householders may reach neutral territory without exposing themselves to the fire of their neighbors, who may be sitting, rifle in hand, in their towers near by. Another condition of neutrality recognized by etiquette is that of service in the British forces. Hence, as many of the Afridis spend a part of the year in the ranks, two men at deadly feud will serve in the same company as bosom friends. Then, as soon as their uniforms are off, they return to their native village and shoot each other at sight. At the present moment two important natives at feud have made a truce in order to undertake in partnership a Government contract for a road. When the road is finished and the rupees are divided, they will be once more marks for each other's rifles. All the people in the pass on one side of the road are at feud with those on the other. Of course, for the most part, such big tribal feuds by mutual consent are allowed to lag, what with truces and festivals, and only the bitterest private feuds are prosecuted without cessation. Thus two families may wage violent war though their respective sections or tribes are at truce. In the most vehement enmities, where there can be no truce, it is a case of war to the knife; one of the families is ultimately exterminated, including the women and children down to the last family dog or chicken. According to the authorities, there have been about ten "casualties" in the last four or five months, besides some indiscriminate "popping."

Passing by the Afridi houses—each one of which might well be called its possessor's "castle"—we approach the large fort at Landi Kotal, where we find a hospitable Englishman in command, busily drilling some raw recruits from the neighborhood. On climbing a high spur across the valley, crowned by a small outpost, we obtain a splendid view through the end of the pass into Afghanistan. In the clear, bracing air we can see for miles over a broad valley

dotted with villages until our sight loses itself beyond in successive walls of high mountains covered far down their sides with snow. Sixty miles in a straight line beyond those mountains lies Kabul, while Jelalabad is but half that distance—practically as near Landi Kotal on the west as Peshawar is on the east. Finally, descending to the fort again, we take lunch with the Commandant. From him we learn something of the general state of affairs on the frontier and hear some amusing tales about the inhabitants of the Khaibar.

Dark comes on early at Peshawar, and as we have a three-hour drive before us, we take early leave of Landi Kotal, and are soon passing to right and left the silent Afridi strongholds. There are almost no people on the road, and few signs of life in sight save a group of old women with jars on their heads, who are fetching water from a well to one of the houses. Now and then on the hillside we notice stray couples of pickets, stalwart Afridis in khaki uniforms, whiling away their duty with a smoke and a chat. Before long we leave behind the last enclosure with its intrenched pathway leading to the road, and its expanse of forbidding brown walls unbroken except by rows of loopholes. The pass narrows, and there remain only fifteen miles of barren mountains between us and the plains of India. The day has been most satisfactory. Thanks to the pickets, we have been able to penetrate into the Khaibar far enough to see something of the conditions of life among the Afridi tribesmen; in fact, we have so nearly crossed the wild borderland as to get the desired glimpse into the forbidden state beyond. Judging by the character of the Afghans and the uninviting aspect of their mountainous country, we should expect to find Afghanistan still more inhospitable than its Indian frontiers.

RICHARD B. HOBART.

GENERAL LAMARQUE.

PARIS, March 28, 1906.

M. Bertrand Lasserre has used the inedited papers of General Lamarque for a volume which he has just published on the period of 'The Hundred Days in La Vendée.' Let us first say a few words about General Lamarque, who is known now only by his political career, his eloquent speeches in the French Chambers, and the popular demonstration which took place the day of his funeral. He made war for twenty-two years during the period of the Revolution and the Empire. He spent five years in Italy from 1807 to 1811, four years in Spain. On the fall of the Empire he seemed condemned to rest, but the period of the Hundred Days gave him a part to play in Brittany and the Vendée. This episode is not much known; it was lost in the history of the great but brief struggle of Napoleon against the Allies, which ended at Waterloo.

In the popular mind, Brittany and the Vendée are confused even in our times; in reality, the River Loire cuts in two these regions, where civil war so long raged. On the north of the Loire we find Brittany proper, Quiberon, Le Maine, the land of the Chouans and of Cadoudal; on the south is the Vendée.

"During the Revolution, as well as during the Hundred Days," says M. Lasserre, "on both sides of the river people fought for the same cause, without ever succeeding in coördinating or uniting their efforts; the insurrection to the north and the insurrection to the south remained, at different times, completely distinct. In 1815, the events which form the subject of General Lamarque's notes concern only the Vendée—that is to say, the vast quadrilateral bounded on the north by the Loire, from the Ponts-de-Cé to its mouth; on the west, by the ocean; on the south by the Sèvre Niortaise; on the east by the meridian of Bressuire, the hills of lower Poitou and the flat land of the Gâtine."

In this vast region there are three parts of very different aspect, commonly called the Bocage, the Plain, the Marsh, names which constantly occur in the history of the insurrection of the Vendée, which you will find in the memoirs of Madame de la Rochejacquelein, in Balzac's admirable novels, in a hundred other books. This enormous surface, which at the time of the Consulate and the Empire was intersected by very few roads, is attached to the central part of France like a sort of virgin island. Its inhabitants, who belong to the Celtic race, were like a people apart. The inhabitants of the Bocage especially, a very sylvan region, had been preserved from all outside contact; of pure life, savage and distrustful, brave almost to madness, attached to Church and King from generation to generation, they had among them natural leaders, captains of parishes, chiefs of districts, whom they blindly followed. The Royalist party of the Vendée remained quite torpid under the Consulate and the Empire; it began to revive only in 1814. Louis XVIII. disappointed the local chiefs of the Vendée by ordering the Chouans, Bretons, and Vendéans to surrender to the Government their old guns of great calibre for the equipment of the National Guards. The effect of this ordinance was disastrous, La Vendée felt wounded. It was nearly disarmed when Napoleon returned from Elba.

The King was urged for a moment to retire to the Vendée; he preferred to go to Lille, and to remain in touch with the allied Powers. He sent the Duke de Bourbon to the Vendée; the Duke obeyed. The Duke d'Angoulême and his wife were at Bordeaux; the Comte d'Artois was on the road to Lyons. The Duke de Bourbon had left Paris in great haste, without any staff, almost without money; he arrived at Angers on the 14th of March, preceded by M. d'Antichamp. He found at Nantes the Count de Suzannet and Prince Louis de la Trémoille. The Duke de Bourbon, father of the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien, found the Vendée irritated against Louis XVIII.

"In order to draw the province out of its discontented reserve and to galvanize it as in old days, there would have been need of another man than the Duke de Bourbon, the ex-commander-in-chief of the useless army of Coblentz, an old man of fine presence, but of weak and almost vacillating character. Besides, the peasants were far from having their old temper; more than one chief discovered with much sadness the weakening of the royalist energy by the slow infiltration of the new ideas."

The Duke de Bourbon tried, however, to organize some armed battalions, but he soon felt that his efforts were vain when he heard of Napoleon's return to Paris. The Prince left Beaupréau, where he had established his headquarters, in the night of the 24th of March, alone with the Count de Rully; he travelled from farm to farm, and, after a journey of eleven days, he embarked at Paimbœuf in a small vessel which took him to Spain. Curiously enough, it was only after his departure that the royalist chiefs became more active, each of them working in his own district. The principal officers were Saint-Hubert, Dupérat, Duchaffault, Ludovic de Charette, Suzannet, Sapinaud, D'Antichamp. Louis de la Rochejacquelein, having accommied the King to the frontier, left him to go to England to procure arms and munitions, and reached the coast of La Vendée. Gen. Canuel, who had adopted the cause of the Bourbons in 1814, was among the insurgents and had become their major-general. On the arrival of the Marquis de la Rochejacquelein, the insurrection, which had been prepared in secret, broke out, on the 15th of May. Four army corps were to occupy the Vendée, under the command of D'Antichamp, of Sapinaud, of Suzannet, of La Rochejacquelein. The insurgents hoped to have fifty-one thousand men under arms, but the reality was far below this expectation; two-thirds of the peasants had no other arms but their old-fashioned guns, one-third had no arms at all.

On the 17th of May the Emperor heard at the Tuileries the news of the rising in the Vendée and of the arrival of the Marquis de la Rochejacquelein; he immediately dispatched troops to the Loire. General Corbineau was sent to the Vendée, but the means placed at his disposal were insufficient, as the Emperor intended to limit his efforts in the West, and was giving all his attention to the approaching campaign against the Allies. M. de Suzannet and Sapinaud recognized La Rochejacquelein as the general-in-chief; they all three marched on Napoléon-Vendée. They slept at Aizenay on the 20th of May, and were surprised in the night and obliged to fly. At Cholet, La Rochejacquelein had an interview with another Vendéan chief, D'Antichamp, who delivered his command to him; they all marched towards the coast in order to protect a second disembarkation of English arms and munitions. By that time Gen. Lamarque had arrived and taken command of all the troops of the west, which formed the army of the Loire; he put everything in order, interrupted all communications between the two sides of the river. Full powers were given to him; fourteen departments were placed under his orders. His headquarters were established at Angers.

Fouché, head of the police, sent three agents to the Vendée, in order to make overtures to the insurgent chiefs; he was well acquainted with their divisions, their jealousies, and had always had a foot in both camps. He was as ready to serve the royalist cause as the cause of the Empire; he knew that the fate of Napoleon would soon be decided on the battlefield, and his object was to gain time. The mission of his envoys had for its first effect to create division in the ranks of the insurgent chiefs. The Marquis de la Rochejacquelein and M. d'Antichamp were both jealous of preëminence, and their forces ceased to act in common. The first basis of a pacification was discussed; the forces of Sapinaud, Suzannet, and D'Antichamp returned to their homes. They met on their march Gen. Travot, and, notwithstanding their su-

periority in numbers, they did not attack him.

It is difficult to give a clear account of the confused events which followed. La Rochejacquelein lost his life in an engagement, and consternation became general among the insurgents. Sapinaud took the command; there was another battle at Roche-Servière, in which the Vendéans were defeated, and M. de Susannet mortally wounded. Military operations came naturally to an end after Waterloo; and the Vendéan chiefs signed at Cholet a treaty of peace with Gen. Lamarque. The new Provisional Government formed in Paris after the abdication of the Emperor gave little attention to the pacification of the Vendée; it is to the credit of Sapinaud and his companions that, on the circulation of a rumor in the Vendée that the allied Powers intended to dismember France, they informed Gen. Lamarque that they would unite their forces with his in order to fight against the foreigner. Louis XVIII., on his return, discharged the Army of the Loire. Gen. Lamarque was exiled for a time, till 1818.

In 1828 he was elected Deputy from the Department of the Landes. The history of the brief insurrection of the Vendée in 1815 is told with much care by M. Lasserre, though he recognizes that it was an affair "of pure sentiment. Caused by the return from Elba, it had a laborious beginning, and developed at random, irrationally, according to the caprice of different chiefs, and committed suicide in the end." He adds that twenty thousand men were kept in Brittany and in the Vendée in order to quiet these provinces, and that "these twenty thousand men, flung on the battlefield of Waterloo, would perhaps have hindered the disaster."

Correspondence.

LITERATURE VERSUS PHILOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial article in No. 2128 on "Teaching Literature in Colleges" must strike a responsive chord in the breasts of a large number of American university men who were compelled to forego the study of literature for the sake of philology—either because the instructors all stressed philology, or because it was practically impossible to get a degree with high credit based on purely literary work.

But shall we not have to wait until a change comes over the "American spirit" before we can hope for a change in the methods of teaching "literature"? So long as this measures the value of a college course by the extent to which it will increase a man's money-making power; so long as we have the "strenuous" spirit penetrating more and more into every department of life, just so long will the Gradgrind method which enables a man's work to be weighed, measured, or counted, be the prevalent method. We Americans are mad for tangible results; and in seeking them we lose sight of the spirit of life which gives force and meaning to these results.

G. S. W.

Greensboro, N. C., April 13, 1906.

SANCTA SIMPLICITAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Cannot something be done to check the assaults of those subsidized vandals, the Simplified-Spelling Board, upon the finest of modern arts, the traditional English orthography? They would destroy at one blow, if they could, a nice and delicate sense for visual symbols which has been built up through centuries. Consider, for example, the following quotation from one of Keats's letters to George and Georgiana Keats, written under date of February 14, 1818:

"We—*i. e.*, Brown and I—sit opposite one another all day authorizing (N. B., an 's' instead of a 'z' would give a different meaning)."

Is this fine perception of a difference between *authorizing* and *authorising* utterly worthless? Has it no artistic or literary value? Or, to ask a more pertinent question, what is its equivalent in United States Steel bonds? I call on the Simplified-Spelling Board for a reply.

Philologus.

"COMPARATIVE LITERATURE" AND "PHILOLOGY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with your recent suggestive editorial on "Aspects of Comparative Literature" (*Nation*, March 29, 1906), it may not be out of place to recall two prior, authoritative utterances on similar themes. Trustworthy documents on the general conception of literary and linguistic study have been relatively infrequent on this side the water, where, perhaps, they are at present needed most; we should do ill to neglect the few that we already possess. At all events, a comparative examination of your editorial and the two earlier articles in question might be of considerable advantage to many teachers of language and literature in this country, if only by way of fostering precision in the use of fundamental and inclusive terms. When, for example, we are handling a weapon of great range like "philological" or "comparative literature," it behooves us to discover the right end and the proper make.

The expression 'comparative literature," as Prof. C. M. Gayley pointed out several years ago (*Atlantic Monthly*, July, 1903), is fashioned improperly; it is a rude, even barbarous term, unfit, assuredly, for employment in the defence of polite learning. To speak plainly, we may brand it as a virtual solecism. According to good usage, the word *comparative* is associated in similar combinations, not with a noun representing an objective material—such as *literature*, in any customary sense—but with a noun containing the idea of a verbal action, a methodical process—such as *anatomy*, *physiology*, *philology*, and the like. Thus, we say not *comparative embryos*, but *comparative embryology;* not *comparative forms* (of plants, etc.), but *comparative morphology;* and, finally, not *comparative language*, or *literature*, but, as our safest teachers tell us, *comparative philology.**

The marriage of *comparative* with *literature* was not made in Germany. *Compared literature* (*la littérature comparée*), we might say, with the French, were the phrase not objectionable on other grounds. *Comparative study of literature*, though clumsy, is tolerable, and may pass muster with those who cannot accustom themselves to the true and inclusive signification of that much-abused word *philology*.

This word we Americans almost invariably grasp by the wrong end, although the Germans since the days of the immortal August Boeckh have been trying to teach us and others its real function. Apparently, we have been willing to appropriate from them anything in or around the realm of *Sprachwissenschaft* and *Litteraturgeschichte*, save a knowledge of the origin and application of this single, embracing term *Philologie*. As a result, most of us recognize no term whatsoever that comprehends the study of language and literature combined, though these two things are never separate in nature; and, in our teaching, some of us even try to divorce what God has joined together. At any rate, the consequence of a lack of precision at the top of our nomenclature is a certain amount of confusion in our thinking all the way down to the bottom of literary and linguistic disciplines. Professor Gayley, of course, has come to our rescue here also, with the admirable essay cited above, "What is 'Comparative Literature'?" But, more particularly, your readers may be referred to Prof. Albert S. Cook's presidential address on "The Province of English Philology," delivered before the Modern Language Association of America in 1897, and printed subsequently in the *Publications* of that society, Vol. XIII., No. 2. Professor Cook's plea for a broader definition of philology seems irresistible. Fortunately, this valuable address is to reappear shortly in a volume of essays by the same author, to be published by Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. A reprint of Professor Gayley's article would be welcome.

Lane Cooper.

Ithaca, N. Y., April 12, 1906.

[The late Asa Gray used to object to "*Comparative* Zoölogy" in the title of the Agassiz Museum at Cambridge.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce for speedy appearance Bishop Potter's 'Reminiscences of Bishops and Archbishops,' and a translation of Fogazzarro's 'Il Santo.'

Recent political events lend special interest to the announcement of a new illustrated history of Norway from the earliest time to 1905, by six of the leading historical writers of that country, each of whom will be responsible for the period as to which he is a recognized authority. The first volume, dealing with the Viking period and bringing the story down to 1035,

*Or simply *philology; comparative* is superfluous. The progress of knowledge in every field, great or small, rests necessarily upon two bases, observation and comparison. The scientist begins with the observation of smaller, contiguous magnitudes, and proceeds to greater and more remote. *Comparative literature* presupposes some such thing as *observative literature*. Our universities ought really to have established chairs in the latter before they took care of the former.

will be written by Prof. Alexander Bugge, and will appear early in 1907. The sixth volume, which treats of the union with Sweden, will be by Prof. Ernst Sars.

Under the title of 'Les Sources Inédites de l'Histoire du Maroc,' the famous African traveller, Count Henri de Castries, will publish through the Paris house of Leroux a three-volume collection ranging from 1530 to 1845, the material consisting of the reproduction of manuscripts, reports, letters, and other documents. The first volume, of almost 700 pages, has just left the press. The author secured his materials in the archives and libraries of France, England, Austria, Spain, and other countries, and what he gives is the result of years of labor. The work is divided into three parts for as many dynasties. It closes with 1845 because in that year the definitive settlement of the boundary lines between the Moroccan and Algerian territories was made, and the modification of the treaties between the various European states and Morocco took place. Count de Castries criticises quite severely the elder literature on Morocco, especially Sir Lambert Playfair's 'Bibliography of Morocco.'

The Monuments of Egyptian Sculpture, as revealed in typical examples historically and chronologically ordered, are to be luxuriously illustrated in a folio issued at Munich by F. Bruckmann (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The text will be in German. The twelve parts proposed will be concluded at furthest by the end of 1907. The sample illustration is convincing.

Among the works which are being edited for the Hakluyt Society, London, are some of interest to Americans. Mr. Bolton Corney, the chief medical officer of the Fiji Islands, is preparing Four Narratives of Voyages undertaken by order of the Viceroy of Peru, in 1774, with detailed accounts of Tahiti and Easter Island. Mr. A. P. Maudslay is editing the translation, from the original MS. in Mexico, published by photography in 1904, of 'The True History of the Conquest of Mexico.' The honorary secretary and treasurer of the Society, Mr. Basil H. Soulsby, of the Map Department, British Museum, is bringing out a translation (from the copy in the Grenville collection at the British Museum) of Jacques Cartier's Short Narrative of the Voyage made to the Isles of Canada, Hochelage, and Saguenay, which was published at Paris in 1545. In view of the approaching tercentenary of the founding of Quebec, in 1608, this is a very timely republication. The second edition of Sir Walter Raleigh's Discoverie of Guiana, the first Hakluyt edition of which was so admirably edited by Sir Robert Schomburgk, is still promised by Sir Everard im Thurn, now Governor of Fiji, who was for some years an officer of the Government of British Guiana, in which colony he travelled much and familiarized himself with the ways of the Indians.

Volume IV. of Mr. J. W. Fortescue's 'History of the British Army,' now just appearing, ought to awaken fresh interest in the islands of the Caribbean Sea, the Mediterranean of the New World. The story of the campaigns there, from 1793 to 1798, is told consecutively in this volume, for the first time. Among the commanders who figure in it is Sir Charles Grey, afterwards Earl Grey, and father of the Lord Grey of the Reform Law (of 1832), and grandfather of the present Governor-General of Canada. It was this Sir Charles Grey who was named to be the British commander-in-chief against the Americans, had not peace been made in 1783. The volume is a long one, extending to 900 pages, and the author has found this part of his work the most difficult to handle of any subject he has yet attempted, owing to the complications of the narrative. The original letters in the Public Record Office, London, are the backbone of Mr. Fortescue's work; but many collections of private papers have been thrown open to him, so that abundant materials are available. The next volume will probably be delayed, owing to Mr. Fortescue's appointment to be the King's librarian at Windsor, and that will also necessitate his relinquishing the calendaring of the Colonial Series of State Papers at the Record Office, in which service he has so ably followed the late Mr. Noel Sainsbury; but it is hoped that he may yet find himself able to supervise those who will hereafter carry on the work, which is of such deep interest to all who are students of the colonial period of American history.

From the office of the *Publishers' Circular*, London (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*), we receive 'The English Catalogue of Books for 1905,' the 69th issue of this standard list. We need say no more of it except that it is typographically very neat in appearance, and that an appendix gathers up the names and output of learned societies, printing clubs, series, etc., and is followed by a directory of publishers, British, American, and Canadian. Some American books are included in the main list, and in the appendix.

Harper & Bros. have brought out in pale blue covers, rather taking except for the front design, a popular edition of 'Through the Looking Glass,' 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland,' and 'The Hunting of the Snark.' The illustrations are Peter Newell's, less enjoyable than Tenniel's, whose distinction they lack, but at their best very humorous.

The Russo-Japanese war is already losing some of its prominence as a topic of the hour, but the struggle of the Russian people towards light and knowledge has never been more vividly before the public. For the latter if not for the former reason, J. Taburno's 'The Truth about the War' (Kansas City: Franklin Hudson Co.) may well attract readers. The author, an engineer by profession, sets down readably, candidly, and naïvely the impressions he received while with Kuropatkin in Mantchuria. The way in which his eyes were gradually opened to the shortcomings of the Russian Administration and to the virtues of the Russian peasant may be taken as typical of the larger process at present in active operation throughout the Empire.

Prof. John S. Phillimore has published through the Clarendon Press a verbal index to Propertius, which he had made in preparation for his intended commentary on that poet. It is far more complete than such indices usually are, even including full records of such particles as *et*, *-que*, *ut*, and *non*, which are generally disposed of with a few examples and a comprehensive etcetera. Thus, while the Propertian index in the Delphin edition omits *et* altogether, Professor Phillimore's claims to register 605 recurrences, with 75 under *ab* to the Delphin's four. The index is not strictly analytical, and yet sufficiently so to seem inconsistent because not always so. For example, *et* for *etiam* is separately listed; but *et . . . et* (both . . . and) is not; *ut* is listed by the mood governed, but both *uts*, the adverb and the conjunction, are listed together; *expertus* in I., iii., 18, is listed with the other forms of *experior* without note of its relatively unusual passive sense. But this does not seriously affect the usefulness of the index, nor could it be expected that a list made to meet the needs of one workman should equally suit those of all. It is interesting to note that Propertius's vocabulary does not much exceed three thousand words; but those to whom this seems a limited thesaurus should remember that many words are, either wholly or in certain inflections, excluded from elegiac verse.

'Contributions to the History of American Geology,' by George P. Merrill, head Curator of Geology, United States National Museum, has just been issued as an extract from the report of that institution for 1904 (Washington). It is a serviceable review of the personal side of our geological progress, refreshed by numerous portraits, among which those of Dana, Logan (our esteemed Canadian neighbor, if not of our own country), Hall, and Powell are excellent likenesses of strong personalities, which the geologists of the younger generation will do well to look upon. Outline maps give definite location to the routes and field of study of the earlier explorers. After chapters on what are called the Maclurean (1785-1819) and Eatonian (1820-29) eras, the chapters proceed by decades, reviewing the work and workers of State surveys up to 1869, and of the national surveys in later years. Four peculiarly American problems are given chapters by themselves —the fossil footprints of the Connecticut Valley, in which Deane and Hitchcock are the leading figures; the Eozoon question, championed by Dawson of Canada and now a past issue; the Laramie question, on which the geologists of the Western plains and mountains were for a time divided into hostile camps; and the long-lasting Taconic question, over which the Eastern geologists have had many a battle, and concerning which many "last" words have been said and are probably still to be said. An appendix contains brief sketches of 196 American geologists, with references to fuller biographies.

Of Pope's 'Handbook of Tamil' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), already noticed by us as the several preceding parts have appeared, the fifth part, 'Prose Reader,' has just been published in the seventh edition. It consists of reading exercises, adapted to the Handbook and Dictionary by the same author, with specimens of classical prose and business Tamil, suited to the use of officials, together with thirty-one easy stories and some additional tales, especially intended for those studying for the Higher Proficiency Test and drawn from the Paṅca-Tanthiram. Considering the small type, the number of errata is reasonably small. For Englishmen fitting themselves for active service, this Handbook is the best, and it may be studied with profit by any one desirous of beginning Tamil.

The waves of influence from Mr. William James's 'Varieties of Religious Experience' have gone far and have touched strange shores. Perhaps the farthest and strangest is the paper by Prof. Asín y Palacios of the chair of Arabic in the University of Madrid, on the psychology of ecstasy as exemplified in the two great Muslim mystics, al-Ghazzali and Ibn Arabi, which appeared in *La Cultura Española* for February. Al-Ghazzali, for a Muslim theologian, is a comparatively well-known figure even to non-Arabists, thanks largely to Professor Asin himself. But Ibn Arabi, important as he undoubtedly is for the history of theology and philosophy in Christendom as well as Islam, has been little studied even by Arabists. Such a treatment, therefore, as we have here of the emotional psychology of Ibn Arabi can be confidently commended to those students of philosophy who still retain an interest in its history and threads of influence, to psychologists of even the latest school, and to all interested in religious phenomena. Professor Asín begins frankly with Professor James's book and the reaction which it marked and induced. A student of Muslim mysticism of some years' standing, he is interested in seeing modern philosophy come round to him, as it has done with great completeness. The pragmatists are as good Ghazzalians as al-Ghazzali himself could have asked for. But that he only touches, going on to develop with learning and skill, as an Arabist and a psychologist, the phenomena of religious ecstasy, the resultant theological conceptions and their consequences for life, as experienced and stated by Ibn Arabi especially. He also brings forward some other evidence in support of the thesis, already laid down by Professor Ribera, that Raymond Lully was under deep Muslim influence, and might be described as a Christian Sufi and an imitator of Ibn Arabi. That there was communication and influence, one way and another, between the Christian and the Muslim mystics of Spain, can hardly be doubted. Some things in this paper remind strongly of visions of Santa Teresa; mystics, too, it may be remembered, are seldom fanatical.

The circle of modern Arabic dialects studied and reduced to phonetic form is steadily rounding out. For north Africa there are several excellent books by Stumme; for Egypt many, from Spitta down; for Damascus Oestrup, and for Beirut and its neighborhood Hartmann; for Central Palestine Christie, and now for Jerusalem and southern Palestine Dr. Max Löhr ('Der Vulgärarabische Dialect von Jerusalem, nebst Texten und Wörterverzeichniss,' Giessen, 1905). What is left is practically Arabia proper; and Socin did something in the north and east, and Landberg is doing much in the south. The grammatical part of Dr. Löhr's investigation is full and careful, and the little Arabic-German lexicon will amply cover all ordinary usage. But, as the vocabulary is not also given reversed, the beginner in Jerusalem will have to find his way by instinct, or use some other guide, such as Hartmann's golden little book. The texts, too, are over scanty; for that, Littmann's gatherings will help out. But the grammatical treatment can stand by itself and will not need redoing.

Portable copies of the 'Divine Comedy' in the original are always in order, and the new pocket school edition (*edizione minuscola*) just issued by Hoepli in Milan will find everywhere a wider circle eager to possess it. Both publisher and editor, Prof. Raffaello Fornaciari, rightly dwell on this. The 577 pages are, by means of an opaque thin paper, reduced to half an inch in thickness; the letter, though necessarily small, is round and clear; the notes are disposed at the foot of the page. There is a prefatory word on the poet's life and the meaning of his poem. The text and mainly the notes alike are derived from Cassini, Passerini, and Scartazzini (4th edition). The covers are flexible.

It has remained for a Frenchman, Dr. Paul Mantoux, to write the first satisfactory account of the Industrial Revolution in England, 'La Révolution Industrielle au XVIIIe Siècle' (Paris: Cornély, 1905). In a solid but well-written work of 540 pages, Dr. Mantoux reviews instructively the condition of English industry in the first half of the eighteenth century, describes the great mechanical inventions which wrought the sudden transformation, traces their introduction into the several branches of manufactures, and then considers the economic and social results of the Revolution. With evident mastery of materials and clear insight into the working of complex and sometimes obscure economic causes, he has produced what should be, for a decade or more, the standard treatise upon its subject. The work is of such interest to English and American students that it should be translated as speedily as possible; to teachers of economic history, it will prove a great boon.

'L'Empire de l'Argent,' by Joseph Dubois (Paris: Guilmoto, 1906), is an elaborate study of the monetary system of China. It explains fully and clearly the existing currency system, deals with the perplexing question of exchange with gold-standard countries, and gives a detailed account of Chinese banking institutions, both native and foreign. Then, after reviewing recent experiences of certain provinces with French and Russian coins, it concludes with a vigorous attack upon the plan of monetary reform proposed by the late American Commission. M. Dubois is strongly of the opinion that the existing silver standard is so firmly established in China, and rooted so deeply in the habits and prejudices of the people, that it will long be maintained, in spite of the well-intended but uninvited advice of other nations. He thinks that the American Commissioners, "le professeur Jenks en tête," were deceived by "les sourires fallacieux de quelques mandarins," and failed to appreciate the coolness of the reception accorded their proposals. The book is one which the American student may well place on file beside the reports of the American Commission on International Exchange.

The March number of *Public Libraries* is largely devoted to matters relating to library instruction. Members of the faculties of the various library schools and training classes have contributed more or less full accounts of the history, characteristics, and ideals of the schools with which they are connected, the statement of Miss Mary W. Plummer, director of the Pratt Institute School, in many respects taking the lead, while undoubtedly that of Mr. J. I. Wyer, jr., the new vice-director of the New York State Library School at Albany, is the most significant, in that it expresses the purpose of the authorities of that institution to develop it into a real graduate school by eliminating many elementary courses and giving particular attention to bibliographical and administrative subjects. These accounts are supplemented by statements of students; among these the letter from Mr. Leon M. Solis-Cohen, a recent graduate of Albany, deserves special attention for its frank criticism.

The *Library Journal* for March opens with a thoughtful paper by Dr. E. C. Richardson on "The Library in the Community," which emphasizes the function of libraries, both private, corporate, and public, in enlarging the ideas of the members of the community. The most interesting paper in this number is certainly Miss E. D. Renninger's breezy and amusing account of her experience in "The Organization of a Library in a Small Town." She relates how she was led to believe there was a strong and active organization behind the movement, but found, when she came to the place, that it was pushed by only two persons—the chairman of the Library Department of the local Civic Club and the recently appointed librarian. Her account of her fight against ignorance and indolence and ultimate success must be read in full to be appreciated.

The Balkan question is the subject of most general interest treated in the *Annales de Géographie* for March. Professor Cvijic of the University of Belgrade states, as the result of investigations made during his travels in that region, that the great majority of Macedonian Slavs have no exclusive patriotism. They have neither a national Bulgarian nor a national Servian feeling, but could be transformed easily into either Bulgarians or Servians under the force of circumstances. Bulgaria is at present in greater evidence because of the activity of the revolutionary committees and the establishment of a national church. More than a third of the Slavs, however, have refused to abandon the foreign Greek Church for the Exarchate. In treating of the language, he says that Bulgarian is not an ethnographic term. It designates a man of simple laborious life, while Serb and Slav are interchangeable. Further study is needed to determine whether or not there is a distinct Southern Slav language or dialect. Light is thrown upon the present condition of Algeria in an account of the evolution of the nomads of that country, who are gradually changing their habits of life. Instead of the tribes following their flocks to their different pasturages, they now abide in one place, and trust their flocks, as is done in Europe, to the care of shepherds. Lieut. Desplagnes gives a brief but encouraging account of the development of the rich basin of the Middle Niger. The peaceful conditions established by the French are inducing the people who sought refuge in the mountains from the raiding nomads, to come down to the plain and cultivate it. This paper and one on the geology and physical geography of Morocco are illustrated by some beautiful reproductions of photographs.

Alexander Lange Kielland, whose death was recently announced, was born in Stavanger, Norway, February 18, 1849. He studied law in Christiania, but never practised, preferring to devote himself to business. With the exception of some time spent in Copenhagen and Paris, Kielland lived in Norway, most of the time in Stavanger. His earliest publications, two volumes of novelettes (1879-1880), one of which was translated into English, show the marked influence of Daudet; but his novels, which appeared between 1880 and 1891, belong to the modern Scandinavian school of realistic fiction, with some direct indebtedness to Zola. Among the best of these eight volumes are 'Garman and Worse,' containing many autobiographical touches, 'Working People' and 'Skipper Worse,' somewhat in the style of Jonas Lie. 'Jacob,' the last of the novels, is a brilliant but unpersuasive study of a business man who, like the patriarch, bases a brilliantly successful life upon a fraud. Kielland's chief merit as a writer is the extreme elegance and finish of his style. Most of his novels have been translated into German and Swedish, and several into English. In 1891 Kielland was appointed burgomaster of his native town, and was later promoted to the position of *Amtmand*, or sheriff of the district. The last fifteen years of his life were practically without literary output.

The former Liberal Prime Minister of Norway, Johannes Steen, whose second term of office extended from 1898 to 1902, died April 1, at the age of seventy-eight.

—A week ago to-day we received from Dr. Richard Garnett a letter, not in his own hand, dated London, April 2. In it he spoke of suffering from an affection of his eyes, which had prevented his executing a certain review for the *Nation*, but he looked forward to a somewhat tedious recovery. On the day following the receipt, namely, April 13, he passed away, in consequence (as the cable reported) of a hemorrhage; and at this writing we know no more. Dr. Garnett was a library product if there ever was one. His father, whose name he repeated, a clergyman, was Assistant-Keeper of Printed Books in the British Museum, and he himself, becoming an employee of that institution at an early age (he was born in 1835), rose to be Keeper of the same department (1890-1899). As such he was well and graciously known to all Americans having need to profit by his official position. It was in the year of his retirement, when recreation by "change of occupation, *dolce far niente*," was his aim, that he voluntarily entered into relations with this journal, and latterly became a highly valued reviewer for it: his prodigious habit of work could not be repressed. His list of published works is extensive. He was a poet and the biographer and editor of poets—Shakspere, Milton, Dryden, Shelley, Blake, Emerson; a poetic translator from the German and the Italian, an historian of Italian literature; an encyclopædist for collaboration with the Britannica and the Dictionary of National Biography; editor with Mr. Gosse of the splendidly "Illustrated Record" of 'English Literature' concluded two years ago. But we need enumerate no further. As genial bookman and gifted imaginative writer and learned maker of books, Dr. Garnett lived the ideal life of the scholar spirit. He gave as freely as he absorbed, and directed and will continue to direct a multitude of students in the paths of literature, English and foreign. His death, at seventy-one, must be thought untimely, and he will be greatly missed.

—It is several years since the late Gaetano Negri published his well-known work on 'Julian the Apostate,' but until now this interesting essay in criticism has not been available for those who read English only. The present translation (Scribners) is from the hand of the Duchess Letta-Visconti-Arese, and appears with a delightful introduction by Professor Villari. The facts of Negri's career as here recited throw much light upon his personal attitude towards Julian, and have also a pathetic interest of their own. We do not refer merely to the accident which cost the author his life when we suggest that there is an element of pathos in the details narrated by Professor Villari. Negri was a man of great eloquence, attractiveness and versatility, who, either through force of circumstances or excess of talent, failed to do the one central thing that posterity looks for as the hall-mark of eminence. Perhaps his main achievement was the upbuilding of Milan, where for the years 1886-1889 he was Syndic or Mayor. We have at least Professor Villari's word for it that during this tenure of office "he achieved notable results in the material, moral, and commercial transformation of Milan, for he was one of the first to see its coming prosperity and importance." Dispossessed eventually by the Socialists, Negri turned his energies to historical and literary pursuits. Among modern writers George Eliot aroused his greatest enthusiasm, and he considered that his own best work was to be found in the criticism of her novels, which he published after a long and analytical study of them. Towards the close of his life, he was turning more and more to historical subjects, and particularly to those problems of Church and State which emerged during the latter part of the fourth century. Though as a philosopher he was a pure rationalist, he felt drawn by a strong impulse to the personality of St. Augustine, while on the eve of his tragic death he was collecting materials for a book on St. Ambrose.

—We condense these facts from the pages of Professor Villari because they will be new to most of our readers, and because they furnish us with Negri's point of departure in approaching the saints and philosophers of the later Roman Empire. He was not a specialist in the minuter points of erudition, but yet a scholar who had read the principal sources for his period and reflected deeply upon them. Perhaps no one in modern times has so completely identified himself with the thoughts of Julian and reproduced them in his own experience. He maintains truly enough that his book is neither an attack nor a panegyric. "My aim in writing this book has been purely objective, and it will require a large dose of good, or I shall rather say bad, will to construe it otherwise. He who possesses a critical temperament regards moral phenomena with the same absolute impartiality with which the chemist analyzes a substance or the astronomer determines the orbit of a celestial body." The claim to impartiality thus made is not unwarranted by the tone of the book; and if Negri is drawn to what is best in Julian's Hellenism, he is by no means blind to those curious oddities of mind and temper upon which Glover has laid so much stress. Some slips will be found in these two volumes, and one rather large error—the acceptance as genuine of Julian's letters to Iamblichus. But, with whatever limitations, the work deserves on the score of eloquence and talent to find a large circle of English readers.

—Negri's rationalism, however blended with a genuine interest in the subject-matter of theology, leads him at times to pass frank criticism upon both the Church of the fourth century and Christianity. But his temper in this respect is gentle and sympathetic when compared with the positive animosity of Mr. W. G. Holmes. Justinian and Theodora have been dealt with in a great variety of ways and by authors who differ as widely as Ludewig and Sardou, but biographies of them remain scarce. For many years the hope was entertained that Mr. Bryce might publish a life of Justinian, prompted thereto by the nature of his Oxford professorship. Whether he will ever find time for such an undertaking may well be doubted. Meanwhile we have from Mr. Holmes the first volume of a history entitled 'The Age of Justinian and Theodora' (Bell). A biography in any limited sense of the word this does not promise to be. The author's motive, so far as it can be briefly indicated, seems to be expressed by the following sentence: "When Grecian science and philosophy seemed to stand on the threshold of modern enlightenment, the pall of despotism and superstition descended on the earth and stifled every impulse of progress for more than fifteen centuries." These words, while they refer to the first century of the Christian era, indicate with sufficient clearness Mr. Holmes's attitude towards "the disintegrating and moribund Byzantine Empire." As for his dislike of Christianity, we can best convey its nature and extent by one or two quotations: "The Yggdrasil of Christian superstition spread its roots throughout the Roman Empire, strangling alike the nascent ethics of Christendom and the germinating science of the ancient world." In modern times "an intelligent hypothesis of existence has been deduced from observation and experiment, idealism and dogma have been recognized as the offspring of phantasy and fallacy, and the mystical elements of Christianity have been dismissed to that limbo of folly which long ago engulfed the theogonies of Greece and Rome. The sapless trunk of revelation lies rotting on the ground, but the undiscerning masses, too credulous to inquire, too careless to think, have allowed it to become invested with the weeds of superstition and ignorance; and the progeny of hierophants who once sheltered beneath the green and flourishing tree, still find a cover in the rank growth." Mr. Holmes has collected a good deal of curious information, or rather his book discloses solid erudition. At the same time he has not kept his text free from small inaccuracies, like placing the Vandal conquest of Africa in 439, nor from as large a one as placing the desertion of Britain by the Romans in 446. His gibes at Chris-

tianity are expressed in such form as to remind one of the question which Elizabeth Bennet addresses to her father after hearing Mr. Darcy's first letter: "Can he be a sensible man, Sir?" Finally, Note 1 on page 340 (and it does not stand alone) reminds us of the French sarcasm regarding "l'obscénité froide et érudite de Gibbon."

—Count Paul Hatzfeldt was an able and distinguished Prussian diplomatist who, after the usual training in subordinate positions, became successively ambassador at Madrid, at Constantinople, and at London, where he died in 1885. From 1868 to 1874 he worked in immediate association with Bismarck in the Foreign Office, and during the war of 1870-71 he was with the Chancellor in France. He married in 1863 an American wife, the daughter of a Mr. Moulton, who had become a resident of Paris. During the whole French campaign Count Hatzfeldt wrote to the Countess in Berlin almost daily letters. These have been translated from the French, in which they were written, into smooth and idiomatic English, by Mr. J. L. Bashford, of Trinity College, Cambridge; and they are now published, with a brief preface by the Countess Hatzfeldt, under the title of 'The Hatzfeldt Letters, 1870-71' (E. P. Dutton & Co.). They are eminently conjugal letters, full of affection and of little domestic solicitudes. A letter from Saarbrücken, August 10, 1870, is a fair sample of the rest. It begins with a description of Spicheren heights and the evidences of the hard fighting a few days before; gives rumors of French discouragement; asks the Countess to send his frock-coat; complains that he has had no letter "either yesterday or today," which "is very annoying"; and closes (as printed): "Tell me how you have arranged your household and how much you spend on it per month." The hardships of the Moultons, shut up in Paris; the exposed situation of their summer residence outside in the zone of siege operations; and the expectation and advent of a daughter, born while the Count was at Versailles—these matters naturally bulk much bigger than the military and political events of the year. There is occasionally a bit of interesting description, and we get side lights on historic events and personages; but there are no "revelations." Careful foot-notes give all the necessary information concerning the persons mentioned in the letters, and there is an inadequate index.

RECENT POETRY.

We have come to know pretty well what to expect in a new "tragedy" by Mr. Stephen Phillips. In "Herod," "Ulysses," and "The Sin of David" the poetic promise of "Paolo and Francesca" was decreasingly fulfilled; a growth in the skilful management of melodramatic spectacle kept pace with a loosening grip on tragic structure and a lessening ability in the handling of dramatic verse. His latest play, "Nero" (Macmillan), has little in it to defeat this discouraged expectation. The old Marlowesque world-straining of phrase, that for a time held critics spellbound, is still there. In the very first line is "the dazzling doom of kings," and within the space of a few pages we find such characteristic touches as "the windy chair of the world," "the deep heart of the mighty world," "this pulsing world his theatre," and "O wine of the world, the odor and gold of it." Nor do we have to read very far before finding passages of that mellow charm, that mannered, somewhat wistful, beauty that made his "Marpessa" so lovely and so memorable. Take this of Poppæa:

> "Yet hath none fairer strayed into the world
> Or wandered in more witchery through the air
> Since she who drew the dreaming keels of Greece
> After her over the Ionian foam."

This is pleasant in its reminiscential suggestion and in its musical suavity, pitched, as is habitual with Mr. Phillips in his purple patches, in the key of "w"; but it is put into the mouth of Acte, Poppæa's unsuccessful rival in Nero's regard, and, like most of Mr. Phillips's more striking passages, it is conspicuously void of dramatic propriety.

The conception of Nero's character and the construction of the fable show a similar defect of dramatic instinct. If we mistake not, Mr. Phillips has made a most careful study of Mr. Bernard W. Henderson's recent learned and (to use a wearying word in an unhackneyed connection) sympathetic volume on 'The Life and Principate of the Emperor Nero.' Something of Mr. Phillips's understanding of the melancholy æstheticism of Nero's temperament, as well as several pieces of business, seem to be derived from this source. Yet there is a firmer *dramatic* structure, a more moving liberation of pity and terror, in Mr. Henderson's historical study than in Mr. Phillips's play. He has oddly chosen to conclude his piece in four acts with the burning of Rome—following hard upon the death of Poppæa—which Nero takes as a kind of atonement for the murder of Agrippina.

This is the spectacular ending of the play as it stands:

> *Nero.* Blaze! Rage! Blaze!
>
> [*The flame flashes up more fervently.*]
> For now I am free of thy blood,
> I have appeased and atoned,
> Have atoned with cries, with crashings, and with flaming.
> Thy blood is no more on my head;
> I am purged, I am cleansed,
> I have given flaming Rome for the bed of thy death! O Agrippina!
> [*He falls in a swoon. Acte runs towards him.*]

In "The Sin of David" the chief source of dramatic weakness was, as we took occasion at the time of its publication to point out, too soft and slight an expiation of a tragical sin. The defect in "Nero" is almost precisely the same. The lines above, uttered by Nero in his ranting delusion, would have made an admirable conclusion to a fourth act, provided there was to have been a grim, ironic fifth act in which Otho should have had the "innings" which history (for once more philosophic than poetry) conceded him, and Nero should have atoned in the only way that has ever proved permanently impressive in tragedy, by his death, for his tragical sins against Agrippina, against Otho, and against the inexorable order of the world. Such an ending added to the piece exactly as it now stands might almost have persuaded us that Mr. Phillips is a dramatist. As it is, however, it proves him more conclusively than his previous plays did a talented writer of elegiac verse, an expert composer of cycloramic spectacle, who thinks habitually rather in terms of poetic phrase than, as has been the way of the true dramatist, in terms of character, of concerted situation, of human destiny as it is shaped from the clashing, fatal actions of men.

The second part of "The Dynasts" (Macmillan), Mr. Thomas Hardy's "drama of the Napoleonic Wars in three parts, nineteen acts and one hundred and thirty scenes," prevails a little over the regret that we expressed at the publication of the first part that so fine a faculty as Mr. Hardy's should be employed in so uncouth and monstrous a production. There is a greater proportionate amount of prose in this part, and Mr. Hardy's prose is always more readable than his rough-hewn, unmelodious verse. There is, too, here rather less of unconvincing, supernatural machinery, while of the hundred speaking parts of terrestrial personages all are vividly actualized. The gift of panoramic vision over the face of the historied globe which constituted the chief element of imaginative force in the first part, persists throughout the second, and Mr. Hardy's pessimistic philosophy of history as the operation of

> "Unmaliced, unimpassioned, nescient Will,"

becomes still clearer. We hesitate to commit ourselves to an opinion of the final meaning and achievement of "The Dynasts" before the publication of the third and last part. In the meantime, from the curious assortment of lyrical interludes, in metres ranging from Sapphics to *terza rima*, wherewith Mr. Hardy has chosen to adorn his colossal enterprise, we may select this fine bit of "aerial music" as a specimen of his poetic vein at its best:

> "They come, beset by riddling hail;
> They sway like sedges in a gale;
> They fail, and win, and win, and fail. Albuera!
>
> They gain the ground there, yard by yard,
> Their brows and hair and lashes charred,
> Their blackened teeth set firm and hard.
>
> Their mad assailants rave and reel,
> And face, as men who scorn to feel,
> The close-lined, three-edged prongs of steel,
>
> Till faintness follows closing-in,
> When, faltering headlong down, they spin
> Like leaves. But those pay well who win Albuera.
>
> Out of six thousand souls that sware
> To hold the mount or pass elsewhere,
> But eighteen hundred muster there.
>
> Pale Colonels, Captains, ranksmen lie,
> Facing the earth or facing sky;—
> They strove to live, they stretch to die.
>
> Friends, foemen, mingle; heap and heap.—
> Hide their hacked bones, Earth!—deep, deep, deep,
> Where harmless worms caress and creep.
>
> Hide their hacked bones, Earth!—deep, deep, deep,
> Where harmless worms caress and creep.—
> What man can grieve? what woman weep?
> Better than waking is to sleep! Albuera!"

The 'Last Poems' of "Laurence Hope" (The John Lane Co.) is the ultimate record of a fervid life lately brought to a tragic close. Mrs. Nicholson, it may be said now with regretful candor, kept too closely to her favorite theme of "Love's supreme surrender," too rarely varied the sombre monochord of unresisted passion, for her work ever to achieve quite the position that her very remarkable abilities promised. To a Sapphic intensity of devotion to youth and the lure of youth, she added at times a note

of frank savagery, as in these stanzas of "Atavism":

"Deep in the jungle vast and dim,
That knew not a white man's feet,
I smelt the odor of sun-warmed fur,
Musky, savage, and sweet.

Scent of fur and color of blood:—
And the long dead instincts rose,
I followed the lure of my season's mate,—
And flew, bare-fanged, at my foes."

At other times, as in the following lines, her Sapphic mood dissolved in visionary whimsies that yet found expression as vivid and fragrant as Blake's:

"My paramour was loneliness
And lying by the sea,
Soft songs of sorrow and distress
He did beget in me.

Later another lover came
More meet for my desire.
'Radiant Beauty' was his name;
His sons had wings of fire!"

Yet such variety was not habitual with her. In the long run she was an Anglo-Indian "poetess of passion," whose lyric torrent of words and gift of throbbing metre never quite availed to idealize the Oriental provocation of her themes. Her "Translations from the Book of Indian Love," as the present volume is styled in its sub-title, are likely to stand rather as a slightly dubious "human document" than as an addition to the true poetry of passion. Nevertheless, there are in it many pieces of unalloyed poetry. It is pleasant to take leave of her with such a pure and plaintive, and in a way symbolic, melody as this of "Kristna and his Flute":

"Be still, my heart, and listen,
For sweet and yet acute
I hear the wistful music
Of Kristna and his flute.
Across the cool, blue evenings,
Throughout the burning days,
Persuasive and beguiling,
He plays and plays and plays.

Ah, none may hear such music
Resistant to its charms,
The household work grows weary,
And cold the husband's arms.
I must arise and follow,
To seek, in vain pursuit,
The blueness and the distance,
The sweetness of that flute!

In linked and liquid sequence,
The plaintive notes dissolve
Divinely tender secrets
That none but he can solve.
Oh, Kristna, I am coming,
I can no more delay.
'My heart has flown to join thee,'
How shall my footsteps stay?"

Mr. Andrew Lang, the variously delightful and invariably readable, is never more delightful and readable than when he turns for a little while from Anthropology, or Scottish History, or psychic phenomena, or the literary gossip of London, to meditate the poetic muse. His 'New Collected Rhymes' (Longmans) have the metrical facility and grace, the urbane humor, that make his 'Ballads of Books' of such pleasant memory. The variety of the collection, however, is rather unexpected. There is a series of Jacobite lyrics, a handful of cricket rhymes, some parodic Jubilee Poems, a group of Folk Songs, and three ballads written, as Mr. Lang tells us in his preface, "in competition with the street minstrels of the close of the sixteenth century." All of these are spirited performances, but most of them are interesting rather archaically than æsthetically. For the amateur of poetry the most attractive pieces are those described with a touch of mockery as "Critical of Life, Art, and Literature," in which Mr. Lang exhibits his mingled aptitudes of critic, humorist, and verse writer. These stanzas from his "Rhyme of Oxford Cockney Rhymes (Exhibited in the *Oxford Magazine*)" are a fair sample of his vein at its freshest:

"Though Keats rhymed 'ear' to 'Cytherea,'
And Morris 'dawn' to 'morn,'
A worse example, it is clear,
By Oxford Dons is 'shorn.'
G——y, of Magdalen, goes beyond
These puny Cockneys far,
And to 'Magrath' rhymes—Muse despond!—
'Magrath' he rhymes to 'star'!

Yes, G——y shines the worst of all.
He needs to rhyme 'embargo';
The man had 'Margot' at his call,
He had the good ship *Argo;*
Largo he had; yet doth he seek
Further, and no embargo
Restrains him from the odious, weak,
And Cockney rhyme, 'Chicago'!

Oh, Hoxford was a pleasant plice
To many a poet dear,
And Saccharissa had the grice
In Hoxford to appear.
But Waller, if to Cytherea
He prayed at any time,
Did not implore 'her friendly ear'
And think he had a rhyme."

He would be a temerarious critic who should venture to make unfavorable animadversions upon Mr. Harry Seymour Koopman's 'At the Gates of the Century' (The Everett Press), for Mr. Koopman can express his opinion of critics with pungency, if not with urbanity. In one place he writes:

"Whence comes your skill from song's vast mines
The richest ore to choose?
I simply gather up the lines
Condemned in the reviews."

In another, of Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound":

"Unbound, for who would bind it? the perplexed
And sneering critics of the poet cried,
Whose son saw English scholarship divide
Over a doubtful comma in the text."

In another:

"Always the asses in chorus denounced the poet's arrival,
Drowning the voice of his music, drowning his gathering praises,
Idle to answer them, vainer to scold them than scolding the weather,
For they will always be with us, the asses, and always be—critics."

In still another:

"The critic snarl at the Maker, what has it ever meant
But jealousy of the Potent on the part of the Impotent?"

Fortunately, there is little in Mr. Koopman's slender but pithy book to arouse any other sentiment than admiration for his gift of compact, suggestive phrase. The amenities may prevail; and we may concede the truth of his epigram:

"He riddles the mark and the neighborhood
With a Gatling gun;
I send one shot through the heart of the white,
For I have but one."

It would be unfair to Mr. Wilfred Campbell to insinuate that his poetic method is that of the Gatling gun, yet his 'Collected Poems' (Revell) would have gained in poetic value by a more rigorous standard of selection, and by the drastic pruning of some of the pieces selected. At times Mr. Campbell shows himself the master of that long unsuspected accomplishment of M. Jourdain. No American poet is more consistently stirred by the "high emotion" which, as Mr. Campbell very justly declares in his Introduction, is the essence of poetry; none is more uninterruptedly capable of decorous, sonorous phrase. Yet at the best his phrase is, if we may venture a distinction, felicitous rather than happy. Read consecutively, his 'Collected Poems' are a little lacking in vivid poetic life, a little overweighted with irreproachable moral, political, and æsthetic sentiments. Nevertheless, it is a volume admirable in its sustained idealism; and at times, as in these stanzas from an elegy upon Archibald Lampman, Mr. Campbell's poetry, touched with deep personal emotion, attains a forceful eloquence:

"Soft fall the February snows, and soft
Falls on my heart the snow of wintry pain;
For nevermore, by wood or field or croft,
Will he we knew walk with his loved again;
No more, with eyes adream and soul aloft,
In those high moods where love and beauty reign,
Greet his familiar fields, his skies without a stain. . . .

Like some rare Pan of those Old Grecian days,
Here in our hours of deeper stress reborn,
Unfortunate thrown upon life's evil ways,
His inward ear heard ever that satyr horn
From Nature's lips reverberate night and morn,
And fled from men and all their troubled maze,
Standing apart with sad, incurious gaze.

And now, untimely cut, like some sweet flower
Plucked in the early summer of its prime
Before it reached the fulness of its dower,
He withers in the morning of our time;
Leaving behind him, like a summer shower,
A fragrance of earth's beauty, and the chime
Of gentle and imperishable rhyme.

Songs in our ears of winds and flowers and buds
And gentle loves and tender memories
Of Nature's sweetest aspects, her pure moods,
Wrought from the inward truth of intimate eyes
And delicate ears of him who harks and broods,
And, nightly pondering, daily grows more wise,
And dreams and sees in mighty solitudes.

Soft fall the February snows, and soft
He sleeps in peace upon the breast of her
He loved the truest; where, by wood and croft,
The wintry silence folds in fleecy blur
About his silence, while in glooms aloft
The mighty forest fathers, without stir,
Guard well the rest of him, their rare sweet worshipper."

The 'New World Lyrics and Ballads' of Duncan Campbell Scott (Morang & Co.) are pieces of a keen poetic tang. Mr. Scott has taken imaginative possession of the cool, pine-grown, history-haunted Canadian country, and has sung of it in spare athletic verse. His poetic background is not of the broadest, his "criticism of life" not perhaps of the deepest, but he rarely fails to give his reader that delicious shock of surprise of strange and vivid beauty that is the final test of Poetry as distinguished from poetry.

The seventh edition of Mr. Theodore Watts-Dunton's 'The Coming of Love, and Other Poems' (The John Lane Co.) is described on the obverse title as "enlarged and revised." The enlargement consists chiefly of a "Dedication of the Seventh Edition," in which the coming of love is styled by Mr. Watts-Dunton, somewhat romantically for so good a critic, "the expression of the heart-thought of my life," and in the addition to the title poem of certain sections which "had been lent to friends in manuscript and mislaid," and "were not available at the moment when the material of

the book was put together for the press." Whether or not this statement is part of the artistic mystification wherewith Mr. Watts-Dunton has filled his other ample and numerous Prefatory Notes to the poem, we do not presume to say. It is certain, however, that the additions add nothing to the completeness of the story, and that, in retarding its speed they rather dull its charm. Yet, for all the clap-trap that Mr. Watts-Dunton has chosen to spread round the poem, and despite these additions, its Gypsy zest and tragic passion do not lose their potency. Among the "other poems" the only new piece is this awkward but suggestive sonnet:

NEW YEAR'S MORNING, 1867, AFTER THE LIBERATION OF VENICE.

(The poet goes to the window of his bedroom and gazes down the Grand Canal, over which the morning is glowing.)

"Man's knowledge, save before his fellow-man,
Is ignorance—his widest wisdom folly.
In Nature's eyes still gazing, dazzled wholly
By sights his own eyes make, how should he scan
Pictures like those in Nature's iris-span?
Hers show the cypress, his the melancholy,
His shine with Christmas, hers with simple holly
That knew no mirth till Yule-tide feasts began."
So Reason says; yet to my heart it seems
That yonder sun, firing the mists of morn,
Gilding each dome that scorned the Austrian's scorn,
Painting the Grand Canal with rosy gleams,
Looks conscious down on me and vanished dreams—
But—Freedom's year o'er Venice smiles new-born!

Though Mr. John Burroughs is not at his best as a poet, his little volume of nature poems, 'Bird and Bough' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is pleasant reading. The freshness and precision of Mr. Burroughs's observation need no comment. He is a master of clean-drawn phrase, and, despite a tendency to lapse into sing-song, has a good gift of short-lined metre. So far as his work is poetry rather than versified nature study, it is so by virtue of a certain single-minded affectionateness of interest in Nature, as in these lines:

"I hear the wild geese honking
From out the misty night,—
A sound of moving armies
On-sweeping in their might;
The river ice is drifting
Beneath their northward flight.

I hear the bluebird plaintive
From out the morning sky,
Or see his wings a-twinkle
That with the azure vie;
No other bird more welcome,
No more prophetic cry.

I hear the sparrow's ditty
Anear my study door;
A simple song of gladness
That winter days are o'er;
My heart is singing with him,
I love him more and more.

I hear the starling fluting
His liquid "O-ka-lee";
I hear the downy drumming
His vernal reveillé;
From out the maple orchard
The nuthatch calls to me.

O, spring is surely coming,
Her couriers fill the air;
Each morn are new arrivals,
Each night her ways prepare;
I scent her fragrant garments,
Her foot is on the stair."

'Selections from the Poetry of John Payne,' made by Tracy and Lucy Robinson with an Introduction by Lucy Robinson (The John Lane Co.), is a fairly representative selection of the original work of one of the most talented and indefatigable translators of our time. We do not hold with those who believe concerning Mr. Payne that "posterity will place him between Tennyson and William Morris, side by side with Swinburne and D. G. Rossetti"; and that it is wholly "Mr. Payne's lack of acquaintance with journalists and journalism" that has kept his work in the background. The first impression made by the selection is that of a marvellous virtuosity, an amazing metrical and verbal ingenuity. There are pieces in French, pieces in Italian, and English poems of an astonishing variety and fluency of form. Of the poeticalness, so to say, of Mr. Payne's literary impulse there can be no doubt. His mind fairly brims over with poetic thoughts, poetic emotions, and the imagery of all the romantic poetry of the world. Yet there can be but one conclusion: if Mr. Payne possessed at the beginning of his literary career a poetic faculty that might have placed him beside Swinburne and Rossetti, then the facility that comes from the life-long habit of translation can only be regarded as the dissipation of it. This crucial strophe from a musical but somewhat over-long elegy for a dead girl, entitled "The Grave of All My Songs," is a fair specimen of Mr. Payne's manner:

"Could we but hope the all-engrossing earth,
That for the eternal rest
Took back her blighted beauty to its breast,
Might yet enrich our dearth
With some unknown, enchanted wonder-birth
Of blossom, brilliant as her starry eyes,
Sweet as her balmy breath,
Some flowerage of heaven, defying death,
Wherein our yearning memory might retrace
The frankness of her face,
In whose bright beauty thought might recognize
The spirit-prime of her lost loveliness,
Born as it were again
In some new earth, delivered from the press
Of mortal grossness by the purge of pain,—
Or might we deem the unresponsive air,
That bore her gentle spirit far away
And scattered it for aye
Beyond the confines of the night and day
To all the winds of being, nor would e'er
Vouchsafe to our despair
One echo of her voice's dulcet strain,
Should yet grow great with graciousness and bear
Some mystic birth of music strange and fair,
Some seraph-song of Paradisal bird,
Some melody of mortals never heard,
Wherein her silver speech
And the far memory of her voice might reach
Our longing ears and witness to our faith,
She was not all disfeatured by the scaith
Of unrespective death,
That something of her sweetness yet survives
In interstellar lands
Or in the sunset-calm of spirit-lives,
Nor was all scattered by the 'scape of breath!"

When it is observed that these lines, with their variety of image, their easy copiousness of phrase, make but a single sentence, something of Mr. Payne's ability to sling poetic ink, if the expression be allowable, begins to be perceived. Yet that they are lasting poetry is not so clear. Mr. Payne, as we are emphatically told in the Introduction, is a devoted amateur of music, and the music of the verses, as is customary in the poetry of great music-lovers (notably Sidney Lanier), is rather in the impetuous movement of the lines, in the more obvious tricks of alliteration, than in those subtler harmonies of vowelled speech which make the quenchless music of poetry. Furthermore, there is, if we mistake not, in these lines, as in all of Mr. Payne's work, and in the work of most English poets who have found in modern France their most sympathetic models, a tendency for profusion to become diffusion that is a source of weakness. But if these poems have not such stuff of immortality in them as his sponsors think they find, it is, nevertheless, not fair to Mr. Payne to dismiss him as a kind of Magico Prodigioso working his wonders from the more curious contents of the New English Dictionary. For a leisurely reader there is a certain mild Spenserian charm in his narrative poems. And signs have not been wanting that Mr. Payne, following in the path of his master, the poets' poet, is like to achieve a position of some permanency as the minor poets' poet.

LORD HOBHOUSE.

Lord Hobhouse: A Memoir. By L. T. Hobhouse and J. L. Hammond. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans. 1905.

Lord Hobhouse was the incarnation of the intelligent Liberalism of 1850 to 1870. In him we see the finest characteristics and also the limitations of the Liberals who at that era represented all that was best in the public life of England. He assuredly displayed all the finest traits of the body of men to whom he belonged. He was a complete English gentleman; he was also, what many excellent gentlemen are not, a man of singular ability. Ill health, fortunately for his country and fortunately for himself, arrested his career at the bar. Had his bodily strength enabled him to stand the stress of an exciting and competitive professional career, he might probably have been a law officer of a Liberal Government. He might, if fortune had favored, have risen with general approval to the Chancellorship. He almost certainly, if he had failed to gain the highest of legal prizes, would have passed the latter part of his life as a Lord Justice of Appeal. All this he would have done if his strength had held out, and then he would have been, like other eminent judges, forgotten. He would have done excellently work that many others could do as well as he.

The misfortune which turned him away from the bar did not in reality deprive him of appropriate employment, and it enabled him to show, as no merely legal career could, his intense and absorbing devotion to public affairs and to everything that concerned the interest of the nation. It is this high, enduring, absolutely disinterested public spirit, combined with rare ability in the transaction of public business, which gives its whole color to Hobhouse's career, and this fine public spirit and devoted application of trained intelligence to the conduct of affairs are exactly the traits which lent a certain nobility to the energetic and intelligent Liberalism of the Victorian era. No doubt the virtues of a time which seems now so far removed in feeling from modern England, are represented by Hobhouse in their best and noblest form. Still, one can never for a moment forget, and his biographers do not suffer us to forget, that he was, when Liberalism was in fashion, and also when Liberalism of his type was out of fashion, essentially "a Liberal of the old school." None of the ideas he entertained can be called original, but then they are some of the best ideas of the party to

which he belonged, and Hobhouse held them with singular tenacity. He esteemed highly the new Poor Law of 1834. He distrusted, rightly enough, the effect of endowments. He fought, tooth and nail, as an Endowed School Commissioner, for the destruction of all the noxious charities which, under the pretence of furthering education, really gave effect to the bitterness, vanity, or eccentricity of some so-called pious founder. In India, as the legal member of the Government's Council, he fought hard, and probably did much to promote just legislation, and opposed with all his vigor the forward policy of Mr. Disraeli and of Lord Lytton.

Every kind of injustice, or everything which Hobhouse thought was injustice, was to him hateful. He hated war, and fully believed in the blessings of peace on almost any terms. He believed in local government, and generally adhered to the Liberal doctrine that to give men a share in local government is the way to teach them to govern wisely. Till towards the end of his life, he seems to have felt, in common with the Liberals of the day, the trust in the people which at one time was the watchword of Mr. Gladstone and his followers. To everything, again, which savored of attack on freedom of opinion he offered zealous opposition. He supported Bradlaugh in 1888, and a year later had a friendly correspondence with Holyoake; not because he agreed with their views, but because he regarded them as the defenders of free thought. Amid arduous judicial work he "found time" (to use the pompous language of his biographers) "year by year for the furtherance of many movements—London government, land reform, and even the liberation of Sunday from the trammels of the Judaic law"—trammels, by the way, which sit with extraordinary lightness on English men and women of to-day. Let no one deny—we assuredly do not deny—that these labors were in the main the work of a good man, and that Hobhouse himself left behind him something even better than his work, namely, the "example of a man who, through a long life, put the public service above personal ambition, who found in work its own reward, small and great, with equal thoroughness, because it was work and had to be done." All this is excellent, and we fully believe that a eulogy which savors somewhat of an inscription on a tombstone has the rare merit of absolute truth. Still, a critic who ought not to be a flatterer must insist upon the patent fact that the virtues, the principles, and the ideas of Lord Hobhouse, though they were his own, yet were also in a special sense the characteristics of the political school to which he belonged.

Hobhouse's own character, moreover, betrays the moral and intellectual limitations of the Old Liberals. They were men of strong common-sense. But then, common-sense is occasionally a very different thing from wisdom. "I have intimated," writes Hobhouse, "my deep distrust of *a-priori* reasoning on practical subjects." The sentiment is a sound one, but, as employed by a Liberal of 1850, it too often meant the failure of any attempt thoroughly to understand either his own principles or those of his opponents. The tendency of the day was, indeed, to mistake maxims for well-established principles. Whenever Lord Hobhouse deals with any matter which requires subtlety or even play of thought, one feels that he never gets to the bottom of it. "He held," say his biographers, "that no fundamental distinction can be drawn between the obligations of nations and those of individuals." This maxim would probably command pretty general assent, but any one who thinks over the matter at all will see that it embodies a doctrine which is far from self-evident, and can be accepted only with considerable limitations. To the confusion of maxims with axiomatic truths is due another defect which is strangely visible in every word that Lord Hobhouse utters about opponents. The men who dissent from the Liberal creed are considered by him as persons distinctly in the wrong. He cannot credit them with either genius or insight. Consider the many allusions throughout the memoir to Disraeli. In none of them is there the least recognition of the great fact that he was a man who, with all his faults, had qualities which will make him remembered when Lord Hobhouse, Lord Melbourne, Lord Cardwell, and all the good and respectable Liberals of 1850 are forgotten. Lord Beaconsfield is, in the eyes of Hobhouse and his friends, nothing but the adventurer and the charlatan which he appeared to his critics of 1852. A comparison between Lord Hobhouse's attitude towards Disraeli and Mr. Bryce's estimate of Lord Beaconsfield in 'Studies of Contemporary Biographies' displays the whole difference between the condemnation of a worthy but unintelligent opponent and the judgment of a thoughtful and impartial critic.

Lord Hobhouse, lastly, in common with the body of Old Liberals, pursued a path of which he hardly, till towards the close of his life, foresaw the end. Trust in the people is a maxim which points directly towards democracy. But the last thing perceived by Liberals who confided in the wisdom of the people was, that the people—or, in other words, the mass of the wage-earners—were little likely in the long run to accept the social or political doctrines of Liberalism. Hobhouse looked, in 1897, with grave suspicion on measures such as the Workmen's Compensation Act. He, by that time, at least, had perceived the contradiction between the dogmas of Old Liberalism and the tendencies of democratic Socialism. He felt that

> "there is nothing for the isolated thinker to do except to sit by and wonder what will come next. I guess that the next thing will be to throw all the burden of individual misfortune on 'the State,' which the wise leaders of the artisan classes teach them to look upon as an omnipotent being, existing apart from individual men and women, with an inexhaustible purse filled by some magic, and ready to remove all the ills of life. And so they cry more and more for 'State' aid, not knowing that they themselves are the State, and that payments by the State come mainly out of their own pockets and are to a large extent a device for making the industrious and thrifty pay for those who are not such."

Did it, even in 1904, dawn upon him that the day might be near when the Labor Party would destroy all that he most valued in the creed of the Old Liberals?

Cloud Studies. By Arthur W. Clayden, M.A. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Not only meteorologists, but laymen who care for the ever-changing panorama of the sky, will welcome this fine book, first published in London by John Murray. Titles of some of the subjects treated will give an idea of its scope: "Cloud Types," "Altitudes," "High Cirrus," "Formation," "Cumulus," "Influence of Hills," "Nomenclature," and the like. More than sixty excellent illustrations from photographs serve to show many forms of classified and intermediate clouds, heretofore but slightly differentiated.

Not until 1803 was there any attempt at uniformity of description. In that year Luke Howard proposed three names for three distinct varieties—cirrus, stratus, and cumulus; by combinations of these words other types were identified; and because the discharging cloud may partake somewhat of the character of all three, it was called nimbus. Mr. Clayden does not regard this as a special type, but includes it in the general stratus variety, using the word nimbus as an adjective, and only to indicate that rain is falling from a certain cloud. While some meteorologists will agree to this departure, others will probably not accept it.

What may be called the observational part of cloud study is still in its infancy, despite the fact that countless generations have viewed the sky with a general desire for information as to the weather. No common language, or system of terms, was employed, by which early experience could be accurately transmitted. A curious scarcity of cloud names occurs in all languages, and personal equation often caused existing designations to be used for quite different phenomena. Accordingly, the decisions of the International Meteorological Conference at Munich in 1891 were welcomed, even if not the most perfect of classifications. A revised scheme of nomenclature was presented by the late Hon. Ralph Abercromby and Prof. H. Hildebrand Hildebrandsson of Upsala, with the idea that such a convenient arrangement would become useful at meteorological stations and in the navy. For the sake of simplicity, only ten forms were proposed, as now given in the International Cloud Atlas. While sufficient, however, for general purposes, a great many subdivisions were of course necessary in specialized work, in cloud transformation, or the relation of types to weather. Each of these large divisions changes by varying gradations into many other sub-species, whose names should indicate their origin and characteristics.

The Atlas did not appear until 1896, and meantime the Rev. W. Clement Ley had published some excellent suggestions, which, however, came too late. Meteorologists in Germany, England, and America have attempted an extended and detailed cloud-nomenclature, and Mr. Clayden carries this excellent work forward with praiseworthy clearness and simplicity. The next world-gathering assembled to discuss these subjects will probably effect any desired changes along lines of modification rather than substitution. It is now possible, through this wide discussion and uniformity of designation, to arrive at something like precision of description, a first essential to a satisfactory system; in spite of which many pictorial illustrations must still be employed, so delicate is the gradation from one type of cloud to another. By the use of soft pastels aided by the finger-

tip in sketching cloud forms, satisfactory results can sometimes be obtained, but oil and water-colors are scarcely rapid enough to follow changes exactly. Only the most sensitive photographic plates can reproduce the infinite delicacy of detail. Some of the illustrations in Mr. Clayden's book from direct photography are exceedingly beautiful—poetic as well as scientific, and the directions given for obtaining them, in the chapter upon this method of studying forms, are of great value.

Mr. Clayden remarks pertinently that it would be well if artists of landscape would occasionally give some little study to the clouds they introduce, instead of presenting the usual vague splashes of white so generally made to do duty for pictured skies. One recalls the cry in one of Ruskin's letters: "I want to be able to draw clouds, and to understand how they go—and I can't make them stand still, nor understand them —they all go sideways. . . ."

The story of a thunder-shower is scientifically, even dramatically, told, with careful description of changes in the cumulus headquarters of the storm, and with remarkable attendant photographs. The author's views as to the causes of differing cloud forms are exceedingly probable, and the book is full of suggestiveness for further investigation. Exact personal observation forms the basis of the entire volume, which cannot be too highly recommended to students of this delightful branch of celestial research. All the varieties depicted and described have been selected from hundreds of examples, as showing differences due to conditions of formation. Diagrams and other purely technical matters are avoided, so that the book, while of great value to specialists, is hardly less interesting to the general reader, and will be immensely helpful in continued and more accurate study of this fascinating subject. Such a book is well worth an index of more than two pages.

Problems of Philosophy; or, Principles of Epistemology and Metaphysics. By Dr. James Hervey Hyslop, Ph.D., LL.D. Macmillan. Pp. xiv., 647. 1905.

Dr. Hyslop's book has an abundance of defects and lays itself open to criticism in a variety of ways. To begin with, it extends to 650 pages, and is too heavy to hold. The average length of its chapters is 50 pages, and in one case exceeds 100, without a section or a break to articulate them; and even its paragraphs not infrequently prolong themselves to three pages. It has no literary charm, and its wording is often obscure. It bears many marks of its original lecture form, which should have been eliminated. It gives no references. It contains a large number of highly dubious historical statements. In short, it is a book which a hostile or wearied critic would have ample excuse for condemning utterly.

And yet, in spite of all these serious faults, we have found Dr. Hyslop's book in some respects an impressive work. It is, in the first place, very honest. We seem to see its author sturdily wrestling with the great problems of philosophy; and even when he plainly seems to be worsted, we find ourselves reflecting that those problems have always proved too great for any man. Thus its very defects have something humanly attractive; they evoke the sympathy we naturally feel for an honest struggle against overwhelming odds. And so long as so many philosophers aim at nothing higher than mere dialectical cleverness in playing with problems which, after displaying their mental agility and (it must be added) disingenuousness, they leave pretty much where they found them, the moral atmosphere of Dr. Hyslop's work is decidedly refreshing. In the next place, Dr. Hyslop, if not startlingly original, is distinctly independent. He has the courage to swim against the stream and to ignore the fashions. Lastly, he seems to be fundamentally right about some of his main contentions, such as that idealism ought in consistency to confess to solipsism, that the antithesis between it and realism properly concerns epistemology rather than metaphysics, that the real metaphysical antithesis is between materialism and spiritualism, and that what renders it really important is that the former denies, while the latter affirms, the possibility of a future life. By "spiritualism" he means the denial that consciousness is a function of material organization, and the affirmation of the reality of soul, without, however, telling us what he precisely means by "soul." This philosophic usage easily develops an affinity for the vulgar sense of "spiritualism" when it is added that the question of the existence of a "soul" can be decided, not by philosophic speculation, but only by scientific research.

In this contention Dr. Hyslop is doubtless right; but might not the same be said of every philosophic topic? Does speculation ever do more than explore the ground before science proceeds to effect a stable occupation? In all these points Dr. Hyslop's views seem sufficiently interesting and important to sanction a regret that, instead of entangling and stifling them in masses of unessential words, he did not bethink himself of the wise old Greek adage that sometimes the half is greater than the whole.

The Life of Oliver Ellsworth. By William Garrott Brown. Macmillan. 1905. Pp. ix., 369.

It is, on the whole, surprising that Oliver Ellsworth should have had to wait so long for a biographer. The task, it must be admitted, presented some difficulties. Unlike many of his contemporaries who, with him, were making American history, Ellsworth was a singularly reticent man. His legal opinions were excessively brief. He did not indulge in "journalizing." He wrote few letters, and most of these disappeared. Of the great number of papers to which, in the course of a long and active life, he must have set his hand, few of importance have survived. His biographer, accordingly, finds a dearth of material, and is forced to rely much upon that indispensable and most dangerous faculty of the historian—imagination. Yet the career of Ellsworth, if not as a whole of first-rate significance, was nevertheless such as to give him high rank among the founders of his country. He was a lawyer of solid attainments, a clear-headed and effective judge, a forcible and convincing debater, and a skilful manager of men. As a member of the Connecticut pay-table, he largely directed the Revolutionary policy of his State. As a member of the Congress of the Confederation, he labored unceasingly to build up the federal administration. In the Federal Convention of 1787, no influence was superior to his, and some of the most important provisions of the Constitution are due mainly to him. He was admittedly the leader of the Senate so long as he was a member of it. He was a dignified and industrious chief-justice, and an astute and broad-minded representative of his country at the French court. With all, he was a New Englander and a gentleman. Yet his name and his work passed quickly out of particular remembrance, and he has waited nearly a century for some one to tell worthily the story of his life.

The reasons for this neglect are not, however, altogether obscure. The lack of literary remains has doubtless told heavily against him. Had he kept a diary, like John Adams, or copied his letters, like Jefferson, or written pamphlets and newspaper articles, like Hamilton or Madison, or elaborated his legal decisions, like Marshall, we should long since have had a limited and costly edition of his collected works, and been able thereby to measure his importance more nearly as it appeared to his contemporaries. Again, while he was a stanch advocate and able expounder of Federalism, he lacked the ability so to present his ideas as to make them seem original with him. He never, for example, rivalled Hamilton as an expositor of the theory of the Constitution, though he did rather more, on the whole, than any one else to give practical effect to Hamilton's views. Further, he lost a great opportunity in the Federal Convention to restrain the growth of slavery, and perhaps, as Mr. Brown suggests, to put an early end to the system altogether, by his attitude towards the slave trade. And, finally, he never reached an entirely sound theory of constitutional law, as appears in his contention that the United States, as well as the States, inherited the common law, and his erroneous interpretation, in *Wilson* vs. *Daniel*, of the constitutional provisions regarding the appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. It is true that Ellsworth lived in a formative period, when precedents were to be made rather than quoted, and that he was far oftener right than wrong; but there were others of the time who, at these several points, builded more solidly than he; and for this reason, probably, posterity has adjudged him not altogether great.

Yet the character of Ellsworth was so lofty, his devotion to the public welfare so sincere and unselfish, and his industry so painstaking and tireless, as to win for him a high place even in a generation thickly set with great names. In his dignified bearing, his industry, frugality, and thrift, his combination of aristocratic reserve and emotional restraint with rare conversational powers, and his serious regard for religion, he was typical of the eighteenth-century New England in which he was born and bred, and whose welfare he always held dear. The public service was with him a public trust, and a long career in positions of responsibility and exaltation brought with it no taint of moral weakness or sus-

picion. His devotion to the wearisome and interminable details of administrative and judicial business, in a day when the organization of such business had as yet reached but slight development, was beyond all praise, as it was also one of the secrets of his influence. Nothing, indeed, but extraordinary physical powers and an iron will could have enabled him to do what he did. No presence save that of Washington was more imposing, no words more weighty than his, and he won alike the respect of men and the affection of children.

Mr. Brown has done his work with notable success. The materials which he has used have been widely dispersed and far from abundant, but he has gathered them industriously and employed them with skill, and has refrained from drawing upon conjecture for facts. The chapter on Ellsworth's work in the Federal Convention is especially able. Of course, the book is readable, for Mr. Brown is the happy possessor of a brilliant style; but readers who have found the author's earlier works too strikingly phrased, will note with satisfaction in this one evidences of greater maturity and restraint. As a judicious and sympathetic study of a notable American statesman and jurist, the volume is heartily to be welcomed.

China and her People. By Charles Denby. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1905.

The American who is thoughtful as well as patriotic does not swell with pride when he looks over the list of our envoys and plenipotentiaries in the Far East, though there are some names that shine with the permanence of the stars, while the influence of their lives rather increases than diminishes as the years roll on. Such a man was our minister to China, Charles Denby. A Virginian and ex-soldier, Colonel of the Eightieth Regiment, Indiana Volunteers, during the civil war, he was in 1885 appointed minister to Peking by President Cleveland. For thirteen years he represented his country during three administrations and part of a fourth, holding also the unbroken confidence of the Chinese authorities. As the story of Verbeck, in Japan, and Williams, in China, has demonstrated, the foreigner who asks no personal favors and has nothing to do with that marketable commodity called in America "pull," but who attends to the business on which he was sent and serves all unselfishly, can win and hold the permanent respect of men who, besides understanding the lower motives common to most mortals, have quick discernment of the proofs of moral superiority in an alien.

The present publication, edited from the deceased author's manuscripts by his son, who adds two or three additional chapters, has its special value in the fact that it is not a mere description of things seen or read about, nor is it a mere traveller's tale. It is rather the leisurely reflections, with delightful comment, spiced by wit and wisdom, of a man who saw into causes, and read human nature searchingly, but with sympathy. Apparently he laid aside those prejudices which usually mar an alien's judgment. His pen pictures of the great men of China and Japan who were his contemporaries are incisive and interpretative. His own very important part in the mediatory negotiations which brought the Chino-Japanese war of 1894-5 to an end are frankly and modestly stated. The Boxer uprising is treated with insight and sympathy. Yet we cannot find that he does justice to the behavior of the American Admiral (whose name is spelled wrongly) who upheld the American policy of non-intervention and refused to bombard the Chinese forts in time of peace. Indeed, the two statements in the author's text, on pages 191 and 200, do not correspond as to the important points of the day, the hour, and the reasons for the attack, while it is intimated that the *Monocacy* was "present" in the actual fighting, without taking part, instead of being, as she was, some distance away in shelter, the shell striking her being a spent missile. Foreign life in Peking is pleasantly described, and the criticisms of Great Britain's policy and of Russian methods are those of a man with a well-balanced mind, keen vision, and practised pen. Mr. Denby perceived clearly the underlying causes of the Russo-Japanese war. From the beginning of his work in China, he stood boldly and bravely for the policy of the open door, while with all his ability and persuasive power he protested against the partition of China. His sympathy with the missionaries and his correct and judicial attitude toward them arose from the fact that, by personal investigation and journeys in various parts of the empire, he knew exactly what they were doing, both in spirit and in method. He could thus judge them at first hand and forecast their ultimate influence.

The concluding chapter, by the editor, on the Russo-Japanese war, is bright and readable, though the Admiral Togo pictured is the junior officer, born in Echizen, and not the mighty Togo of Satsuma. It is discreditable to a respectable writer to talk about "Japs" instead of Japanese. The middle name of Commodore Matthew Perry was Calbraith, not Galbraith. These, and a few similar inaccuracies, however, are but minor blemishes in a very delightful and informing book, in two daintily clothed and easily held volumes, beautifully illustrated. While Dr. S. Wells Williams's 'The Middle Kingdom,' after a half-century of original writing and a quarter of a century of revision, still continues to be standard and in the van, 'China and her People' is perhaps the most readable work upon a country and people of whom it behooves Americans to know more.

Lirica Italiana Antica: Novissima Scelta di Rime dei Secoli xiii., xiiii., xv., illustrate con sessanta riproduzioni di pitture, miniature, sculture, incisioni e melodie del tempo e con note dichiarative. Da Eugenia Levi. Florence: Leo S. Olschki. 1905.

Signorina Levi has already made herself known by an anthology of contemporary Italian poets under the title of 'Dai Nostri Poeti Viventi' (third edition, Florence, F. Lumachi, 1904). That book labors under the disadvantage common to its kind, in that, in attempting to pass a more or less decisive judgment on living authors and their works, it assumes a task that can be accomplished only by time. Palgrave, in the preface to the second volume of his 'Golden Treasury of Songs and Lyrics,' testifies that his second series cost him thrice the labor of the first, for the reason that "nothing is harder than to form an estimate even remotely accurate of our own contemporary artists, whatever the sphere of their art." In like manner the book now under review is better than the other, not only because it deals with the greatest period of Italian literature, but also because many authors and many poems have already been chosen from out the mass by the infallible verdict of centuries.

Mr. Gilbert Murray, in his 'History of Greek Literature,' remarks that, although by separating instrumental music from its originally chief function of accompanying the human voice, the modern world has developed music as an independent art to a perfection and power of expression unknown to the ancients, modern lyric poetry suffers by the inevitable law of compensations from a disunion with its natural partner of vocal and instrumental music. Aristotle's assertion in the 'Poetics' (I., 4) that performers on the flute and lyre employed only the elements of ἁρμονία and ῥυθμός ("music" and "rhythm"), is enough to show that independent instrumental music was known to the Greeks. But we have no evidence that the idea of polyphonic instrumentation ever occurred to them. It is indeed true that no form of Greek art, not even their painting, is so hopelessly lost to us as the art of Greek lyric poetry; and it is much to be feared that the glory and freshness of that age when the lyric poet wrote his notes along with his verses, never thinking of one without the other, when the two were in performance equally inseparable, are gone forever. But Mr. Murray might have observed that the Italians of the Middle Age possessed a lyric poetry which was almost as closely allied to music as that of ancient Greece. The poets of the thirteenth century and their successors did not, to be sure, compose music for their own songs; but these always, or nearly always, received their setting from a musician like Dante's friend Casella. Even in Elizabethan England, the same condition prevailed, though perhaps not to the same extent. Milton's thirteenth sonnet, addressed to Mr. H. Lawes, shows how much importance he attached to the skilful musical setting and performance of lyric poetry.

Therefore it was an excellent plan of Signorina Levi's to print along with her text some examples of the music to which popular poetry was sung during the three centuries from which the poems are drawn. To be sure, the melodies to which the songs of the great poets were sung have not come down to us in many instances. Signorina Levi gives us the notes of only one song by a known author who flourished earlier than the beginning of the fifteenth century, namely, the hymn of Beato Giovanni Colombini of Siena which begins, *In su quell' alto monte* (p. 130). We believe that there is no similar example from an earlier period. However, it is a well-known fact that it was the custom in Italy from very early times to sing religious hymns to popular airs. The editor tells us in her introduction (p. xxv), that in almost all the hymn-books, printed or manuscript, which she had occasion to consult, belonging to the fifteenth and early part of the

sixteenth centuries, she found above or below the text of the hymns the words *Cantasi come*, followed by the first line of a profane song. Accordingly, most of the melodies reproduced in her book go with religious lauds of unknown authorship if they are early, sometimes by known authors if they are of more recent date. For example, we find the music for hymns composed by Savonarola, Lucrezia de' Medici, and Lorenzo de' Medici. And thus, although we have unhappily lost the airs to which the lyrics of the great poets of the earlier period were sung, we can at least form some notion of their character.

But it is not only with melodies that Signorina Levi has illustrated her text. Since all the art of the great period was produced under the same conditions and informed with the same spirit, she has also introduced sixty reproductions of pictures, miniatures, sculptures, and engravings; and, in order to avoid printing the whole book on heavy paper, she has caused the photographic reproductions to be pasted on separate sheets. Under each illustration she gives the name and date of the artist when known, the material, subject, and present locality of the original, and a brief decriptive note, sometimes culled from Vasari and other early writers; and we can assure our readers that it is most delightful to read Guido delle Colonne's *Amor che lusingamente m' ai menato*, with a facsimile on the opposite page of the song in a manuscript, adorned with beautiful miniatures; Dante's *Donne ch' avete intelletto d'amore*, seeing at the same time Giotto's figure of Hope from the Capella degli Scrovegni at Padua; or Politian's *La non vuol esser più mia*, illustrated with a detail from Benozzo Gozzoli's fresco in the Camposanto at Pisa.

The editor has shown excellent sense and spirit in furnishing her readers with very full tables and indices. After a chronological list of writers and artists, comes an index of first lines arranged under the names of the poets, then indices (1) of poems arranged according to their various forms, with definitions of these forms, often quoted from famous writers, (2) of the illustrations, and (3) of the melodies, followed by a brief account of early Italian music, and notes explaining the music printed in the book. After the text come brief explanatory notes, and finally a bibliographical index of texts and editions cited.

We are sorry, in reviewing a book so praiseworthy in conception, to be compelled to call attention to serious lapses in its execution. Explanatory notes in such an edition must of necessity be brief; but brevity does not necessarily imply meagreness, and Signorina Levi's commentary is of that meagreness which seems to come of insufficient knowledge. Although English readers will always think of Shelley's translation in connection with Dante's *Guido, vorrei che tu e Lapo ed io*, it is perhaps too much to expect an Italian editor to notice it, but in any commentary worthy of the name no such obvious imitation ought to pass unmentioned as that of Horace's ode, *O Venus, regia Cnidi Paphique* (Carm. I, 30) in Lorenzo de' Medici's sonnet, *Lascia Pisola tua tanto diletta*. Again, every lover of Italian poetry will remember Guido Cavalcanti's fine sonnet to Guido Orlandi, of which the first quatrain runs:

> "Una figura della donna mia
> s'adora, Guido, a San Michele in Orto,
> che di belle sembianze, onesta e pia,
> de' peccatori è gran rifugio e porto."

The note on this sonnet does not tell the reader that the Guido addressed was Guido Orlandi, or that he wrote in reply a beautiful *sonetto doppio:*

> "S'avessi detto, amico, di Maria
> gratia piena e pia
> rosa vermiglia se' piantata in orto,"

in which he reproaches his friend for his light comparison of his mistress to the Virgin, and for his irreligious contempt of the Frati Minori. In fact, in such an anthology, the sonnet should never have been included without its reply. In the fourth line of Cavalcanti's sonnet, Signorina Levi reads, instead of *gran rifugio e porto, "rifugio e conforto,"* a version which we have never seen before, and which is not recognized as a variant in Arnone's complete critical edition of Cavalcanti's poems (Florence: Sansoni, 1881).

The reading of the proofs must have been very carelessly done. We have discovered, quite incidentally, the following printer's errors not corrected in the errata. In heading No. 6, p. xxvi, *Gentil* should read *Umil*, and the page number 289 instead of 295. On page ix, line 12, read *della* instead of *lalla*, and on page 213, line 14, *una* instead of *uta*. We were surprised not to see the name of Cina da Pistoia in the combined index of authors and first lines. But, having accidentally discovered one of his sonnets in the text, we looked through the whole book and found that four of his poems are given, on pages 121, 131, 174, and 180.

Florentine Palaces and their Stories. By Janet Ross. With many illustrations by Adelaide Marchi. London: J. M. Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

The history of the principal Florentine palaces, with that of the great families to whom they owe their origin, is full of romantic incident and adventure. Hence Miss Ross's book cannot fail to attract the reader, for she has a special talent for choosing from severe history what is most characteristic and picturesque, and her knowledge of Italian sources of information, ancient and modern, is very extensive. She describes no less than seventy-six palaces, beginning with their architects and ending with their present owners. Of these many are comparatively unimportant, some having been much altered in reconstruction, while preserving still some notable architectural feature of their past likely to attract the careful observer of ancient buildings. These would naturally have no mention in the ordinary guidebook, so that this work will be found useful for reference, besides affording good reading. It is to be regretted that the illustrations are neither effective nor useful; for the most part they represent well-known themes in pen-and-ink outline with little shading, while the text seems to demand innumerable cuts of architectural detail.

In telling of the principal palaces, such as the Palazzo Vecchio, the Bargello, the Riccardi, the Strozzi, the Pazzi, the Pitti, etc., all the important and tragic scenes in Florentine history are very fully given from documents of the time, and Miss Ross always when it is possible translates from these original sources directly, besides quoting from old letters and other data which have more recently come to light. The book describes the manner of life and individual history of all the principal Florentine citizens who built palaces known to fame, beginning with the Acciaiuoli, in 1109, down to quite recent times. The reader will get an accurate idea of Florentine ceremonies, customs, business relations, marriage contracts, vendettas, and all the incidents which go to the making of life, but the volume will be found more interesting for reference than for consecutive perusal.

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The Week.

The unparalleled catastrophe last week at San Francisco, happily little remarkable for loss of life (though this must remain indeterminable) under the combined action of earthquake and flame, effaced in an instant the sensation caused by the destructiveness of Vesuvius. In an instant, too, it evoked the best qualities of the inhabitants for self-help, and the human sympathies of the whole American people. The worst is not so bad as appeared at the height of the excitement; the compensations, in the certain superior reconstruction and reordering of the city, are very great. Perhaps the most irreparable losses are in the collections of books and works of art—that of Alfred Sutro, in particular; we hear nothing of the Hubert Bancroft historical collection. The gravest physical and social problem is the disposition of the Chinese, whose quarter was the city's dishonor as a modern municipality, and the very foundation of local persecution and national bad faith toward that unfortunate people. Valuable lessons have been learned in respect of stable building, though not to the extent of assurance that a similar visitation could not reproduce the conflagration which lent equal horror and ruin to the scene.

The earthquake will excite a certain prejudice against San Francisco, and indeed against the northern part of California, as a place for either residence or investment. Moreover, while San Francisco is prostrated, rival ports, north and south, will secure at least a temporary advantage. These obstacles are not insuperable. The climate of California, the abundance of its fruits and vegetables, the excellence of its public schools, from the kindergarten to the State University, are irresistible attractions both to native Americans and to immigrants. Plenty of sane people will continue to regard California, with earthquakes, as better than any other place *without*. The schools and colleges may pass through a brief period of depression. The State University at Berkeley, supported in part by a tax, will feel for a few years the effect of such a vast blotting out of taxable property; but the check cannot be permanent. The development of the University must keep pace with the development of California. Leland Stanford has lost some of its buildings; but Stanford, with an income from $30,000,000, can soon restore its library, laboratories, museums, and dormitories. In fine, when the public institutions and all the other facilities for a civilized and happy life are reëstablished, and when the memory of this catastrophe has grown a little dim, San Francisco and the region about will not lack for inhabitants. Nor will San Francisco be hard put to it for capital. She has never leaned on the East as hard as Seattle, Los Angeles, and some of the cities of the Mississippi Valley. She has made her own money, and has been uncommonly independent. San Franciscans will unlock their own heaped-up treasure vaults when they want means for their enterprises.

Suspension of the tariff on structural steel and other materials needed for rebuilding the California cities is the latest measure of relief proposed in Congress. This plan, we are assured, should not disturb the most fanatical of the standpatters. But we are unable to follow that line of reasoning. If steel and lumber are to come in duty free for suffering San Franciscans, why not for Philadelphians or Bostonians who have been burned out? Are we not all equally good Americans? Do Senator Cullom and Representative Madden want to see the lumber market of San Francisco glutted with the pauper products of the British Columbia forests? Do the hearts of these statesmen no longer beat for the redwood of California and the fir and the cedar of Oregon and Washington? Ballard, close to Seattle, boasts that it makes more shingles than any other place in the world. Yet this feeble infant industry is to be strangled merely because California is in hard luck. Senators Lodge and Aldrich must see that the huge sawmills of Puget Sound are as sacred a vested interest as the Massachusetts and Rhode Island factories for cheap jewelry. Pennsylvania must rise to the defence of the steel works of Pittsburgh. The Colorado Fuel and Iron Company must cry aloud for the aid of its friends in the United States Senate.

Mr. Cullom has forgotten that a cheap coat makes a cheap man, and that a cheap house is therefore a curse to the country. It is equally obvious that expensive building material means high rents, and high rents are the prime cause of our physical and moral well-being. San Francisco and the cities of the Pacific Coast have always enjoyed an automatic protective tariff. The mere cost of transporting heavy manufactured goods across the continental divide has tended to raise prices. Speaker Cannon will explain that the resultant additional cost of living—not fertility of soil and productiveness of mines—is the real basis of California's prosperity. Clearly, then, the logical thing for the standpatters in this emergency is to apply their principles relentlessly. The Dingley tariff is a good thing, and there cannot be too much of it. Then let us show our sympathy for California, not by abolishing the Dingley duties, but by doubling them on all building material intended for the stricken city. The proposition can be supported by every argument now urged in favor of a protective tariff.

The President's special message to Congress, urging insurance legislation for the District of Columbia, marks Mr. Roosevelt's retreat from his position of last December. He then contended that "Congress has already recognized that interstate insurance may be a proper subject for Federal legislation," and he accordingly, though with much vagueness, urged that Federal control be established. A month ago this position was rendered quite untenable by the report of the House Judiciary Committee, which unanimously pronounced the argument for Federal interference with State police powers, on such a basis, "a monstrous doctrine, subversive of our dual system of government," and proved its point conclusively. What the President now recommends is merely the establishment of an insurance bureau in the Department of Labor, such bureau to supervise, on lines laid down by Congress, insurance companies hereafter doing business in the District of Columbia. The particular bill approved by Mr. Roosevelt is one drawn up by the committee named by the National Life Underwriters' Association last February; it provides, among other things, for larger facility in the use of proxies, and for the liability of directors for illegal investments. We certainly see no reason why Congress, which legislates for the District, should not make the same endeavor to improve its insurance laws as our Legislature is making for New York. As for the idea, however, that Congress should instantly set out with the idea of framing a "model insurance law" for all the States to copy, it strikes us that Congressmen, like other people, will know better what such a law should be when the new Armstrong laws have been tested in operation. This, we imagine, is the view which Congress itself will take of the proposed new legislation.

The latest argument for free alcohol, that it will render the automobile odorless, so strengthens the already strong case for the act that a Senate owing its existence to popular election could hard-

ly kill the bill passed by the House a fortnight ago. We will not ignore, however, the elaborate and careful but unavailing argument made by Mr. Young of Michigan on the day of the bill's passage. "I should be false to my duty," he said, "did I not at least protest against the passage of a measure which I believe will not only disappoint the hopes of those who favor it, but will seriously cripple, if not destroy, the wood-alcohol business and its allied industries, which, in my district alone, support not less than 15,000 people and employ nearly $20,000,000 of capital." Inferior forest lands are made valuable, he explained, because, in addition to the scattered clear timber, all the unfit and waste material can be made into charcoal, acetate of lime, and wood alcohol. "Each branch of this industry," Mr. Young explained, "is necessary to the success of the whole." He declares "chimerical" the notion that it is possible to "curb the Standard Oil Company" by distilling "potato peelings and corn-stalks," and contends that the Government should not "abolish taxes already in existence and which are needed for the support of the Government and the building of needed public improvements, for the sole and only purpose of destroying an existing industry in order that another . . . may be built upon its ruins."

This, of course, is merely the "vested interests" argument of the tariff beneficiaries applied to the internal-revenue schedules. The facts are hardly disputed. It costs very much less to make grain alcohol than wood alcohol. It is also better for most purposes than wood alcohol. Wood alcohol is used as an inferior substitute for the grain alcohol, which a tax of some $2 a gallon has made prohibitively expensive. It is, at least in its present proportions, the most artificially created of industries. And what has the compulsory substitution of wood for grain alcohol cost the consumers? According to Mr. Young's own figures, untaxed grain alcohol would sell at 38 to 40 cents a gallon, as against 50 cents for wood alcohol. As 8,000,000 gallons of the latter are used annually, this makes nearly or quite $960,000 a year taken from users of alcohol. According to the Ways and Means Committee's figures, which give 9.4 cents as the minimum cost of producing grain alcohol per gallon and 40 cents for wood, the corresponding saving would be $2,448,000 per year. That, be it remembered, is for the quantity now used. With the predicted enormous increase in the use of alcohol, the saving will be correspondingly greater. Is Michigan's wood-alcohol industry so deserving as to warrant this tribute? Answer may be deferred, as the Senate Finance Committee—Aldrich, chairman—is preparing to "investigate" the free-alcohol question so thoroughly that the House bill will certainly not be enacted until next year's session.

Politics in Mississippi seems to be a kind of family affair, as John Sharp Williams and Gov. Vardaman are discovering with regret. No cries of nepotism were raised when seven members of the family of Senator McLaurin were holding office at one time, but now that Senator Money stubbornly refuses to say whether or not he will be a candidate for reëlection, the two aspirants for his place find themselves in an annoying situation. Hernando De Soto Money is sixty-seven years old, and in bad health; and though his term does not expire until 1911, under the system of quadrennial Legislatures in Mississippi (as in Alabama), United States Senators are sometimes elected four years before they take their seats. Open competition this year between Williams and Vardaman would naturally seem reasonable, but just here is where the "family problem" confronts them. Gov. Vardaman is a first cousin of Senator Money, and Representative Williams is a first cousin of Mrs. Money. Kinship means much in the South, and an attempt to force this peculiar issue would bring the house of Money crashing down about the ears of the younger men. Dread of such a calamity may even induce Senator Money to sacrifice his health to his cousins, and go back to Washington himself.

"Lynching is a pastime, not an industry, of the Southwest," explained B. B. Paddock of Fort Worth, Texas, at the first annual convention in St. Louis of the commercial clubs and newspaper editors of that region, which has just closed. But as a pastime it is taken too seriously. On Monday, at the first session of the convention, a resolution was introduced endorsing Gov. Folk's denunciation of the Springfield lynchers. After it was read, Mr. Paddock, who has been mayor of Fort Worth and was a Texas Commissioner to the Louisiana Purchase Exposition two years ago, rose to say: "Mr. Chairman, I move to table that resolution. The people of Springfield did exactly right. They ought to do more of it." This motion was carried with hardly a dissenting voice, and the best excuse that any delegate could give for supporting it was that the introduction of the resolution was "a political move," or that the Springfield lynching was "a purely local question." Such earnestness on Mr. Paddock's part in preserving his favorite pastime from criticism would almost indicate that it was really a great industry like cattle-raising or rice-growing. The Governors of Missouri, Arkansas, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona were guests of the St. Louis convention. It would be interesting to know to what extent they endorse the humane Texan's view of the significance of lynching.

Though an Ohio judge has decided that the legislative committee which has been looking into affairs under Boss Cox's rule in Cincinnati is without proper authority, the damage has already been done. The crude "graft" machine that was built up under Cox has been exposed in enough of its parts to show clearly the need for destroying it utterly. Since February 23, the day of the committee's first session, it has been shown that the treasurers of Hamilton County have deposited money collected as taxes in Cox's banks, and drawn interest in the form of gratuities." These the treasurers pocketed or divided. Already over $200,000 has been returned to the county treasury by three men who have held the office: "Rud." Hynicka has refunded over $58,000, John H. Gibson over $97,000, and Tilden R. French more than $50,000. A Cox grand jury has refused to indict these men, on the ground that they have been willing to return the money, and on the further ground that they "may not have been exclusive beneficiaries." As a matter of fact, they were not "exclusive beneficiaries." Hynicka swore that he received only $25,000 of the $58,000 which he turned back; and the same thing was true of Gibson and French. It has been brought out that the local courts have been ruled by Cox, and that both city and county governments have been shaped by him with the one object of yielding every possible bit of "graft." For an "illegal" body, working in the face of opposition from such high sources as Senators Foraker and Dick, the Drake committee has secured surprisingly valuable data.

Gov. Higgins did a day's mixed work on Thursday last. He spoke out promptly and sharply on the bedevilment of the insurance bill, and his attitude, combined with the volleyed protests from the press and public all over the State, led the Senate to agree to retrace its steps and strike out the vicious White amendment adopted the day before. This makes it certain that the insurance bills will all become law substantially as urged by the Armstrong Committee. Policyholders throughout the State will praise the Governor for his intervention to frustrate the malicious and futile schemers of the Senate. As to Mr. Higgins's action in vetoing the recording-tax on mortgages, opinions will differ. Republicans in this city will say that it enormously increases their difficulty in electing members of the Legislature. Up in the country, where the old superstitions about mortgage taxation die hard,

many will think that Gov. Higgins did just right. The injustice of taxing mortgages, with the privilege of using money corruptly in elections, must and shall be preserved for the blameless rural voter. Undoubtedly, the Governor succeeded in pointing out some technical flaws in the vetoed bill. Whether he would sign it with these removed, he does not make clear, but we are inclined to think he would. At all events, the Legislature should make the trial. There is time enough, and there are votes enough, to pass the bill with amendments to meet the Governor's objections. It should be done without fail.

Mr. Jerome must now see how well-advised he was in abandoning his famous brief, contending that the secret taking of insurance funds for politicians could not be larceny. He threw that away when he argued the Perkins case before Jurge Greenbaum, and maintained that larceny had, in fact, been committed by Mr. Perkins. The judge's decision on April 18 sustains this view. That is to say, Judge Greenbaum agrees with Judge O'Sullivan that the facts as described come under the definition of larceny in the Penal Code, and that the question of "intent" is to be left for the jury to decide, after hearing all the evidence. We do not know whether Mr. Jerome's friends will hail this decision as a great triumph for him. It is, at any rate, a vindication of his later opinion as against his earlier, and should lead to prompt action. Now that the District Attorney has got the decision of two judges, he can have no objection to allowing the grand jury to indict Perkins and the other "conveyors" of insurance money.

Anything to oblige, is apparently Campbell-Bannerman's standing order with regard to the Laborites. Mr. Keir Hardie announced on April 17 that the Premier had not only accepted an amendment to the Labor Disputes bill exempting the treasuries of trade unions from damage suits, but also had taken the bill from the Attorney-General and committed it to the Solicitor-General. In self-respect the Attorney-General could not continue to advocate the measure, having expressed himself unequivocally against statutory immunity for union funds. As a matter of fact, Campbell-Bannerman's surrender shows a turn-over from the old, common-sense Liberal ideal to sheer sentimentalism. The only reason for giving to trade-union funds an immunity enjoyed by the treasuries of no other association whatsoever is that the trade-unionists are poor and unequal to any financial contest with employers. The same reasoning would justify a police magistrate in declining to impose the drunk-and-disorderly fine upon any person not in comfortable circumstances. Campbell-Bannerman, in his first Parliamentary comment on the Labor Disputes bill, practically took this genial view of the situation. He desired to give the unions a lift because it hurt them more to pay than it hurt the employer to lose his property. Mr. Bernard Partridge shows in *Punch* the laboring-man offering to blind justice, instead of the scales which hang even for labor and capital, a balance in which "Trades Unions" dips appreciably. "This pair works better—for me," is the argument for substitution.

The approaching general election in France will turn very largely on religious and social questions. All competent publicists agree that tax and budgetary reform are really more pressing, but these matters were ever dull to the voters whom they most concern. The attitude of the State towards the Church, the right of Government officials to organize and strike, the practicability of old-age pensions—these are the issues that will be argued up and down the arrondissements. Unquestionably, the Socialists will stand for the right of officials to strike; the case is urgent, for many of the post-office employees have actually struck work. Similarly, the Socialists will demand a drastic enforcement of the Separation act. They will ask that Government supervision of the parishes be minute and rigid; they will, presumably, protest if the Pope freely exercises the right of appointing bishops without consulting the Government—a right which, for the first time in a century, he regains through the abrogation of the Concordat. The elections, then, will show whether the old anti-clerical sentiment remains in full force, or whether calm reflection on the implications of the Separation act and the spectacle of army officers refusing to batter down church doors, of communities in arms against the taking of church inventories, have brought about a more humane and less doctrinaire feeling.

M. Ribot, the veteran Republican, whose defection had much to do with the fall of the Rouvier Cabinet, has reviewed the entire political situation in a notable address at Roubaix. He combated the Separation bill, not as wrong in principle, but as untimely and oppressive. France is not ready, he held, to give a free rein to a Church whose feelings have been sorely outraged. He pointed out the absurdity of breaking off diplomatic relations with the Vatican when Protestant Powers find it necessary to maintain representatives at the Holy See. In pushing devout Catholics to the verge of insurrection, he insisted, a wrong had been done both to the State and to the Church. To the project for old-age pensions he objected vigorously, because no general law could be sufficiently flexible to meet the varying needs of the different occupations. Moreover, this great extra expense is to be incurred at a time when economy and tax adjustment are the crying needs. Instead of old-age pensions, he advocated encouragement of voluntary insurance, and land companies which should put the young laborer in possession either of his home or of a small farm. Finally, he condemned the use of the public service for party ends, and pleaded for a reduction of Government interference in private affairs. The address was a fine argument for genuine Republicanism, and one may well hope that such teaching will not fall unheeded. The elections will show whether the mind of France is still set principally on harrying the Church and paying Socialist doles without counting the cost, or whether leaders of Ribot's type have taught the electorate to do a certain amount of sound and comprehensive thinking concerning the republic.

Announcement that the Russian Government has now formally arranged for a $440,000,000 public loan is interesting for many reasons. This is the first "long-term loan," in the sense usually applied to public borrowings, which Russia has been able to place since the Eastern war broke out. During the first year of war she secured several loans at Paris and Berlin, running six to a dozen years; but the revolutionary outbreak of January, 1905, ended even these. Since then, Russia has been able only to borrow on Treasury notes with a year or less to run. Last October a 4 per cent. loan of $250,000,000, on the older long-term basis, had almost been arranged for when revolution broke out again. The Government now reappears in the money market with a request for nearly double that amount, and European critics seem to agree that the need for this money is imperative. Naturally, after what happened last winter, and with so largely increased a demand, terms imposed by the lenders are harsh. In October they fixed a rate of interest and a price which would have made the investment yield of the new bonds something like 4½ per cent. The loan now proposed will net the bankers more than 5½—this being the lowest rating of credit applied to any first-rate government, outside of war-time, in a generation. Paris once more bears the burden, taking half the loan. A more interesting fact is that, while Berlin takes none directly, London is expected to subscribe for $68,000,000—this in spite of the reported provision of the contract that no market shall "unload" on the Stock Exchange of another market until two years shall have elapsed. This is the "protective clause" insisted on for the benefit of Paris last October.

ATTACKING THE JUDICIARY.

Has not the President somewhat abused the immemorial privilege of a defeated litigant to "go down to the tavern and curse the court"? A private explosion of pettishness is one thing; but for the President to unbosom himself as he did on April 18 in a formal message to Congress betrays a growing and unhappy irritability on his part, along with a disregard of the proprieties. It is true that the decision of Judge Humphrey brought Mr. Roosevelt's pet plan of controlling the Trusts by means of the Bureau of Corporations tumbling about his ears in a heap of illegality; but that furnishes no excuse for his extravagant language about a "gross miscarriage of justice," and his assertion that the decision of the court had made a "farce" of an act of Congress. If the Administration's whole scheme of prosecuting the packers was blunderingly conceived, as the court held, the thing to do is to learn wisdom of the sorrowful experience and go about the job in the right way next time.

The President's hard words about Judge Humphrey will break no bones, but they do break precedent and official decency. Such railing by the Executive at a coördinate and independent branch of the Government is not only unbecoming, but mischievous. It tends to destroy that confidence in the judiciary which is of the essence of our law-abiding spirit and our civil stability. Who is this judge whom Mr. Roosevelt berates? A man of fifty-six, twenty-six years a lawyer, for four years a United States District Attorney, and since 1901 a Federal district judge. The presumption is that he knows the law at least as well as the layman in the White House who undertakes to set him right. His opinion, moreover, which has inspired such celestial rage, not only was based on precedent and authority, but pointed out precisely the blunders the Administration had made in the prosecution, and showed how it might have proceeded successfully under other statutes. It is unpleasant, of course, for the President to see his cherished handiwork knocked into a ruin, but his tilting at the courts is a very ill-considered way of revealing his pique.

With Mr. Roosevelt, we have long since passed the point of asking, "Suppose Bryan had done such a thing!" Still, people have not wholly forgotten the campaign of 1896, and the use that was then made of Mr. Bryan's language derogatory to the judiciary. "Preserve the courts from meddling by the Executive," was then the Republican cry. So in 1898 the independence and immunity of an upright judge was the frequent theme of Mr. Roosevelt's campaign speeches; and it was the issue over Judge Daly which Croker stupidly raised that did more than any other one thing to elect Roosevelt Governor of New York. Hence it is a complete and unwelcome change to find him assuming the angry and hectoring attitude of his late message. "I can hardly believe that the ruling of Judge Humphrey will be followed by other judges." Why did the President say that? Was it to give his valuable opinion on a point of law? Or is there a threat lurking in the words? One has merely to recall the fact that Federal judges are dependent upon the President for promotion, in case of vacancies occurring, to see how broad is the hint given them that they had better agree with the President if they wish to find favor. We do not assert that such was the intended meaning of Mr. Roosevelt's language; but it is at least a possible inference. It would certainly have been drawn from a similar loose utterance by Mr. Bryan.

This question of the proper attitude towards the courts enters deeply into the pending railway-rate legislation. It is not merely a dispute whether the provision for judicial review should be broad or restricted. Behind all that, lies the ill-concealed feeling of some that a judge—though he has given his days and nights to the study of jurisprudence, is removed by his position from political ambitions, and is called upon constantly to give his deliberate and conscientious opinion about the interpretation and application of the law—is no more likely to be right than the man in the street. "They are but nine," said Senator Bailey, referring to the Supreme Court; "we are ninety," meaning the Senate. Mr. Bailey is a lawyer and a respecter of courts, so that he was presently led to explain that he did not intend, by the words which he used in the heat of debate, to cast any aspersion upon the judiciary. But others are not so careful. There is a notion abroad that it would be just as well to put things to a vote hastily, and make the pottering judges keep their hands off. To such a deplorable tendency the President's unguarded language will give encouragement. If he gets his Rate bill through as he wants it, and if then the courts were to reverse a decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission, on the ground that it took property without just compensation, he would be quite capable of another outburst like that he indulged in against Judge Humphrey. "Why, this," he would exclaim, "is not at all what I intended, and the courts have made a farce of the intention of Congress." It is obvious that, on such terms, the independence and inviolability of the judiciary would soon be broken down, and that the framework of our Government would be altered out of all recognition. The authors of the Constitution surely never contemplated such a lecturing of the judges by the President; but then, it is probable that Hamilton and Madison would say that they never foresaw Roosevelt at all.

REACHING FOR INDIAN LANDS.

For a charming illustration of specious pleading, we commend the resolutions just adopted by the St. Louis convention of Southwestern editors and merchants regarding the Curtis bill, which provides for the final disposition of the affairs of Indian Territory. They recite the fact that Congress means to deny to the Indians the right to alienate their allotments of land for twenty-five years, and then assert that such a restriction will fall in with "the desires of the so-called grafters." These sharpers are pictured as speculators, who design to buy up the lands of the Indians piecemeal, by private agreements. They are, by their schemes, to retard "the industrial development of that section of the Union and the entire Southwest." What the St. Louis convention preferred would be to have the restrictions removed entirely as regards all "surplus" land—that is, all land beyond a homestead of forty acres. Just why they conclude that, in case the restrictions on the sale of land were removed, the speculator would be barred from the Territory, they do not explain. To one on the outside it would seem that the ability to secure a clear title might very materially assist the speculator; certainly, the Indians have less actual knowledge of the value of their holdings than they will have in twenty-five years.

As for the Territory's opportunity to develop industrially under the restrictions imposed by the Curtis bill, the optimistic have no reason to lose hope. We are unable to picture the Indian Territory as a wilderness, where, in the words of a vigorous opponent of restriction, "the coyote and the lobo wolf may range at will," but where "the man with the hoe may not raise a stalk of corn or cotton." The law goes quite as far as it should in liberalizing the provisions for leasing, and in ten years, if there is an unused acre of fertile land in Indian Territory, it will not remain idle because "the dead hand of Congress" has descended upon the land. The rabid objectors to the conservatism of Congress are in despair because all coal and asphalt lands in the Territory have been reserved from sale until the existing leases, some of which have twenty-five years yet to run, have expired. Here again the aggressive "friends of the Indian" argue that it is better to buy outright than to lease and wait for development operations. But the Senate was of different mind. It wisely insisted that the matter be delayed until the present craze for speculation in Indian property has passed.

Pressure at Washington to have the Indian taken into the new State on an

equal footing, so far as his tenure of land is concerned, has come mainly from Oklahoma, of course. Both Gov. Frantz and Bird S. McGuire, Delegate in Congress from that Territory, have spoken vigorously for the removal of restrictions. The Governor, who is a favorite at the White House, largely because of his enthusiasm, recently pictured the thriving new State that would shed glory on the flag—if only the people of Indian Territory insisted upon getting the restrictions removed. "The citizen of this new State shall feel no longer the humiliation of swaddling bands." Delegate McGuire, also, has expressed the prevailing Oklahoma opinion. In a speech in the House in February, he referred to the theory that the only way to civilize an Indian is to set him down between two white neighbors. But even Congress was able to see the humor of that statement as applied to Indian Territory, where only by stretching the meaning of the term can one Indian in eight be called a full-blood. The problem, therefore, is not to "civilize" the natives of Indian Territory; it is simply to insure that the tribal lands shall be held for the use and occupation of the members of the tribes. Whoever seeks to set up the plea of industrial stagnation to secure the removal of restrictions, not only is using a specious argument, but is branding himself as an ally of the exploiters of the Indians.

It was fortunate for the tribes that Senator La Follette decided to go to Washington. In the bill as originally introduced, the promoters of the country's industrial future had provided that the valuable coal and asphalt deposits in the Indian Territory should be sold to the highest bidder, and the proceeds divided among the tribes that owned the land. This was the situation: More than 300,000 acres of such land was reserved, but less than 100,000 acres had been developed, and only a small fraction of that 100,000 had been thoroughly investigated. Until Senator La Follette arose to point out the trail of the railroad serpent from St. Louis to South McAlester, it might have been supposed that the Indians were about to drive a shrewd bargain. La Follette may not have known that the railroad interests were combining to acquire, through subsidiary companies, the rich Choctaw and Chickasaw coal fields, but he soon put Senator Clapp and the sponsors of the bill on the defensive, and the provision for sale was stricken out. But even in the amended bill as passed, after specifying that sales shall not take place until existing leases expire, occurs the clause, "or until such time as may be otherwise provided by law." Though the law now stands as a triumph of those who have the future of Indian Territory at heart, the prophets of the great commercial future have not been silenced. The above clause holds out a hope to them that another Congress may heed their land hunger and their desire to open up coal mines and asphalt deposits. The hand of the land speculator is always reaching out toward the Indian holdings. Now, as always, the sympathy of the country is invoked because for the time the invaders cannot acquire title to the land and enjoy the inestimable privilege of robbing the natives under cover of the law. "American citizens deprived of the blessed right of equality" is the way the plunderers describe themselves. But Congress should remember that there is a briefer and more accurate title for them. In Alaska, they would be called "the spoilers."

AN ADEQUATE ARMY MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

It is an old contention that the Government is morally bound to see that the soldier, who yields to it so much of his personal liberty, does not suffer unnecessarily by reason thereof. In every great war carried on by the United States this ideal has not been attained, but the very opposite has happened. Civilians, once enlisted, when clad in uniform and entrusted with firearms, have been called soldiers. As such they become subjected to unaccustomed conditions of food, shelter, and exposure, with the inevitable physical results. Similar consequences follow when the National Guard, already trained in the manual of arms and the simpler drill, goes into the field. In the very nature of the case, the newly commissioned officers of the line are not qualified to protect the rank and file from the dangers to health, because the conditions of the field, of cantonments and camps are essentially different from those of the home and the armory. The company officers have immediate oversight of the men; the regimental and general officers regulate in a wider way their vital conditions. In practice there has been no corps actually set apart to ward off disease. For a very long time the medical officers (formerly not officers, but attached civilians), who are popularly held guardians of the health of the men, were charged simply with treating those who suffered from disease, not with pointing out or neutralizing the conditions that create it.

The duty of the medical staff was supposed to begin after the man was taken on the sick list. It was a formal application to military life of the unconscious fatalism of civil life. One becomes ill, he "catches" a complaint. It is a visitation of Providence, for which the victim is no more responsible than were those upon whom fell the tower of Siloam for that catastrophe. After the illness begins, the family physician is called, or the patient goes to hospital. Formerly never, now occasionally, there is intelligent effort to prevent the spread, still more rarely to inhibit the cause of the disability. Until recently these phases of military and civil life were identical, and the misnomer "surgeon," which clings as a term of limitation, has descended from the era when the care of wounds was the only occasion for any medical attention. By very slow degrees, for military conservatism and the natural jealousy of command blocked the way, the medical officer's functions have enlarged, until suddenly in these latter days the public turns fiercely upon the Medical Department when it sees the sick-rate rising and the death-roll growing among those who offered their lives to overcome the enemy, but who are themselves overcome before they are in touch with the foe.

When Gen. Scott in Mexico lost one-third of his effectives in camp, it was accepted as inevitable. When Gen. Shafter's army staggered in the lines after the fighting at Santiago had ceased, and Camps Alger and Thomas became synonyms for fever beds, the country was outraged. Japan in a prolonged foreign campaign lowered morbidity and its consecutive mortality far below that from wounds, and thus set a standard to fall below which would be disgraceful. But such success depends upon technical qualifications and upon administrative ability and authority. There are no more inspired sanitarians than there are inspired gunners. A fleet manned by shipwrights alone will be lost no more surely than the health of an army trusted to clinicians will fast fall to pieces. Both are competent to repair damages, but neither can avoid peril. The "surgeon" does not prevent wounds; he treats them. What is wanted, besides the accomplished medical staff which the standing army possesses, is also a body of highly trained men, capable of generalizing from effects to causes, so placed in relation to control that their opinions will be both respected and acted upon.

Any one familiar with military affairs knows that official special opinion carries weight in proportion to the spokesman's rank. For as rank is taken to be an exponent of ability, opinion, unless disproved by the result, is respected in the same ratio. As a professor to a tutor, a bishop to a curate, a leader at the bar to the struggling counsel, so is a field officer, and especially one of high position, to an officer of lower grade. This question of rank is one of the most difficult for the civilian mind to appreciate, yet upon it rests the efficient workings of the whole military system. For while rank has privileges, it also has responsibilities; and, speaking generally, the bearers of high rank feel the responsibility and discharge the duty. Precisely what the Medical Department of the army now lacks is an adequate number of officers of the higher field

rank, who may be depended upon to discharge their administrative duties with credit to themselves and advantage to the service. A bill with a clause to this effect has passed the Senate and has been reported by the Military Committee of the House, but it depends upon the will of the Speaker whether it can come to a vote. After the careful and generally hostile scrutiny that such bills meet with, it would be both autocratic and damaging for the Speaker to substitute his own views and to exercise a virtual veto upon legislation which has been commended by legislators and executive alike. Public opinion should insist that the Medical Department be given the opportunity it begs, which Congress seems willing to concede if Speaker Cannon would but let it.

A CYCLE OF ART IN NEW YORK.

The death of Daniel Huntington, former president of the National Academy of Design, happened, by a curious coincidence, within twenty-four hours of the Astor House ball which revived the older New York in which he had won his fame. His death removes, we believe, the last of those painters who had made their name before the fifties. Within a few years Asher B. Durand, F. E. Church, Eastman Johnson, Albert Bierstadt, and their younger contemporary, Edward Moran, have gone. A few more years must see the last of painters to whom the founding of the National Academy and the presidency of the artist-inventor, Morse, 1826-1842, are even schoolboy memories. Already the pioneers begin to assume a legendary penumbra; they one and all give the impression of stalwart and somewhat salient personalities that never quite painted themselves out. In the case of the late Daniel Huntington, a long career of public usefulness in various artistic interests of solid esteem among the makers of modern New York outlasted the early vogue of his ideal and genre painting, and the period during the sixties when he was almost the official portrait painter of America. To him and a number of his contemporaries applies the ejaculation of a French critic upon the men of the thirties: "They were tremendous fellows."

The worthy Tuckerman, who fifty years ago was the accredited oracle of taste in America, was certainly of this opinion. He naturally overpraised the paintings of his associates; probably he did not overpraise their personalities. In any case, it is evident that men like Huntington and Eastman Johnson came up in an atmosphere of appreciation such as later painters of greater abilities have seldom enjoyed. Compare, for example, the relative obscurity of Wyant, the tardy acclaim of Inness, the bitter struggle of Homer Martin, with the popularity that so readily fell to the earliest academicians. It is certain that New York, in the thirties and forties, was in a definitely expectant and, one may say, patriotic attitude towards its artists, whereas to-day its attitude is become highly skeptical, or, worse, merely indifferent. New York, in its mellower fashion, was then experiencing a phase of that transcendental movement which quite intoxicated New England. The litterature of the times, or at least the illustrated annuals, abounded in unfavorable comparison of European with American scenery. Our landscape became a cult; Washington Irving and James Fenimore Cooper even provided it with local legends. There was a more or less conscious and resolute desire to live up to Emerson's formula and make our land "classic to ourselves." To this sentiment the romantic landscapes of Cole and the grandiose panoramas of Church contributed notably.

Huntington represented historical or religious painting—the veritable tradition of Allston and Morse—the kind that Sir Joshua Reynolds had declared to be the highest and the unfortunate Haydon had exalted into a religion. Huntington was admirably fitted by temperament for this lofty vocation. There is in his religious paintings, particularly in his several subjects from 'Pilgrim's Progress,' a purity of sentiment, a certain mystical distinction, that places them fairly on a par with the works of William Dyce or Ary Scheffer. But the time was unpropitious for the sublime in painting. For New York of the antebellum time the sublime was too often bounded by "Childe Harold" on the north and the Oriental romances of Tom Moore on the south; with perhaps the Rocky Mountains and Düsseldorf as longitudinal limits. There was in America no established repertory of noble forms upon which a painter might draw; the training received at home or at Düsseldorf or Rome was defective and even positively bad. The product, however, with all its limitations, was precisely that which New York required. There is a most interesting chapter to write some day on the position of the artist in old New York. Much may be inferred on the subject from Tuckerman's enthusiastic pages; Mr. Samuel Isham gives an excellent hint of the matter in his recent 'History of American Painting.'

The relations existing at that time between painters and society bespeak a greater leisure and capacity for comradeship on the part of the wealthy than is common to-day. The artist was much sought out as such. His pictures were bought, uncritically to be sure, but because the buyer honestly liked them. To-day one sees occasionally an old house garnished with Kensetts, Cropseys, and the like, and feels that here is something authentic. Some past proprietor has desired just this record of vacations by mountain or shore—has loved to live with these pictures, just as he enjoyed alluring their painters to his hospitable mahogany. Moreover, there appears to have been a constant association between artist and man of affairs that made it very easy to carry through any project for exhibition or building. There was, in short, a more dispersed and less specialized interest in matters artistic. Apparently, the sheer vanity, the crass desire of possession, that lies at the bottom of so many modern collections, and incidentally makes the fortune of so many unscrupulous dealers, was entirely absent.

These genial conditions could not last. When the tide set from Paris and Barbizon, it was inevitable that collectors should perceive the inferiority of their American pictures. Robust and uncritical enthusiasm gave way to a rather timid cosmopolitanism. Then came the flood of new wealth, which made picture-buying merely an expensive appanage of great place. The day of the genuine amateur was passing, and that of the dealer had come. The joint tyranny of Barbizon and of commercial collecting simply shattered the market for the American painter. Even portraiture went over to the cleverer and frequently the shallowest commercial travellers of the Paris studios. The success of any American artist for a generation past has depended upon the enlistment of a small and faithful cult of admirers. It is doubtful if this is a more salutary atmosphere than the indiscriminate admiration of sixty years ago. The present condition of art patronage is far from normal. Those who are the natural buyers of pictures are the objects of a perfect conspiracy against personal taste of any kind.

Whenever the desirable adjustment of society to the arts is reached, the condition of New York will be much more like that of the forties than it is like that of to-day. It is interesting to note that the few collectors with whom acquisition is a personal and passionate recreation, are generally the sons of those earlier art patrons who made modest savings in order to get a good landscape of the Hudson River stamp, or a fine religious piece by Huntington. Our emancipation from the dicta of the dealers and the quotations of the auction-rooms will come only from a more intimate relation between the artist and the picture buyer. The old, naïve enthusiasm at least laid the basis of courageous personal standards of taste; this as yet the prevailing cosmopolitanism has signally failed to do.

THE FATHER OF CHEAP NEWSPAPERS.

The French have the centenary habit, too, and some of them are just now

turning their thoughts to Émile de Girardin, editor of the *Voleur*, the *Presse*, the *France*, the *Petit Journal*, and heaven knows how many other newspapers. The year of his birth (upon which a stain rested) has been variously given, but his own statement is now generally accepted, though it made him out not so old as his enemies were wont to allege. The older biographical dictionaries would have him born in 1802, but Meyer sets down the birthday as June 22, 1806.

It well deserves record as an historic date for modern journalism, since Girardin may be said to have been almost the first to perceive the newspaper opportunity of cheapness multiplied by number. His earliest venture was frankly called the *Robber*, to show that it was made up of bits taken here and there from the existing daily press. To such a defiant origin do our latter-day epitomes of epitomes and digesters of the digested go back! Girardin next flung himself upon the issuing of cheap periodicals containing useful information for the masses. Here belong his *Journal des Connaissances Utiles* (1831), the *Musée des Familles* (1832), and the rest of the progeny. This suggests the corresponding work of the Chamberses and of William Knight in England. Spurred on by the success of these publications, sold at the then unheard-of price of about two cents a week, Girardin went on to his great experiments in cheap daily journalism. The *Presse* was born. Selling for half the price of other papers, it gave double the amount of printed matter. Cutting loose from the political subserviency and the cliquish support which marked the rival newspapers of the day, the *Presse* made politics play second fiddle, exalted the news features —above all, introduced the *feuilleton*. It also exceeded all others in the amount of advertisements. Furiously denounced by his competitors, one of whom, Armand Carrel of the *National*, he killed in a duel, Girardin yet pressed on to power and fortune. After the fall of Napoleon III. struck off the chains of the French press, his greatest opportunity came, and with the *Soleil* and the *Petit Journal* he achieved enormous circulations. Till the Dreyfus affair, the *Petit Journal* maintained its issue of 1,000,000 copies. Latterly, we are informed, it has somewhat declined, and the *Petit Parisien* has taken its place as the most widely read newspaper in France.

Girardin, however, was more than a journalistic sensation-monger. He had education. He had ideas. With the best intellectual life of France he was in close touch. His political convictions do not seem to have been constant. He was always ardent, always in the thick of the fighting, but it was sometimes doubtful on which side his blows would fall. Castelar reproached him for a certain vacillation, declaring that he was not "true to an ideal." He appears to have had that opportunism which is the temptation, while it is also in the very atmosphere, of the press, in an exaggerated form. He was both for and against Louis Napoleon. He was for monarchy and republic with equal zeal. This inconstancy lends an added grain of bitterness to his own melancholy reflection, at the end of his days: "The true name of the press is oblivion."

Still, if his light burned uncertainly, it was brilliant. The salons of his even more famous wife attracted the cleverest men and women in Paris. Sainte-Beuve has described the beautiful creature, Madame de Girardin, "thrown into that artist world with the literary stamp upon it, and with a certain sort of artificial air of journalism about it." Writing in the Figaro, Henry Roujon recalls a scene in the most troubled days of 1848. The witty, glancing Delphine was entertaining a roomful of poets, politicians, and ladies. Girardin had excused himself to go write one more savage article against Gen. Cavaignac. All the talk was of the perilous situation. "Who will get us out of it?" Madame Girardin lifted her hand towards heaven. "He who is above." "You mean God?" "Surely not; Émile." The latter was certainly a dashing figure. In that same 1848, his office was besieged by a furious mob, sworn to have his life. His friends were in terror. One of them went to beg him to slip out unobserved. "That is beyond my power. I said I would go at eight, and at eight I will go. You may stay and do me the honor of offering me your arm, if you like." Precisely at eight the two left the building. Passing through the first ranks of the crowd, his friend whispered in his ear: "They have not recognized you." "In that case," said Girardin aloud, "present me to these gentlemen." It was done. The mob applauded.

Girardin's appeal was frankly to the masses, but it was an intellectual appeal that he made. He believed in cheap newspapers, but not in cheap and nasty. Immense publicity was the breath of his nostrils; he boldly said that everything must be got before the people, and they left to judge of all; yet he was convinced that the energy of ideas would always overcome, in the end, both the wails of privilege and the clamors of ignorance. Hence, as Roujon asserts, we cannot afford to neglect a man who played with such sovereign power upon public opinion. "The manuals of literature may pass him by, but the history of the past century cannot be silent about him."

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY AT NEW HAVEN.

NEW HAVEN, April 20, 1906.

The American Oriental Society's meeting here this year was in Easter week, but somewhat earlier in the week than usual, in order to allow those of its members who wished to attend the Franklin celebration to go to Philadelphia in time for the closing exercises there. The President of the Society, Dr. Gilman, was also the Society's delegate to this Bicentenary; and as his address formed the opening feature of the Oriental Meeting, the customary Thursday commencement was set back to Tuesday. Considering this set-back and the concurrence of the attractive celebration in Philadelphia, there was a generous supply of papers and a larger number of members present—forty-five in all—than was to have been expected. The proverbial bad weather of Quaker Meeting Week seemed to have been obviated by the change of time, and the Society had a very successful meeting in every way.

Dr. Gilman's able address was on Recent American Contributions to our Knowledge of the Orient, in which he reviewed briefly the literary and geographical work done in the last few years; the latest output of the press and of the out-of-doors explorer being impartially considered. At a later session the members passed by a rising vote a motion to express to Dr. Gilman their grateful appreciation of the zeal and devotion he has shown the Society as its president for thirteen years. Of the fifty-two papers presented, some were read by title only; the rest were read either in abstract or in full. Only the latter class can here be considered.

To begin with the Farther East, Dr. John C. Ferguson of Shanghai sent a communication likely to be of interest to a wider circle than that of professed Orientalists. The examination-system in China, by which officials used to be selected, was the subject of a paper read before the Society many years ago. Dr. Ferguson gave in his present paper the last judgment pronounced upon this system by the leading men of China. It was in the form of a Memorial presented to the Throne during the summer of 1905, together with the Imperial Edict of Sept. 2, by which this much lauded system was abolished. Both Memorial and Edict were translated in full by Dr. Ferguson, and will appear in the next volume of the Society's *Journal*. The Memorial was prepared by the Tartar General of Mukden, several viceroys, and the Governor of Hunan. It sets forth the necessity, "due to the need of national preservation," of abolishing at once the "eight-legged examination" and substituting therefor schools of lower and higher grades, after the model of Western countries. Gradual abolition as a basis of reform, the memorialists aver, would not be sufficiently effective, as it would take more than twenty years before "men of talent" could be made available. To summarize the chief points of this important document: China (it says) is ridiculed abroad on the ground that it is non-progressive; peace will soon be declared between Russia and Japan, when the affairs of China will be in a still more dangerous condition. Schools will put an end to superstition and belief in idle rumors. The people will become more intelligent and more patriotic. China will become wealthy and strong. The old examinations promoted men of no moral character and no general intelligence, while the people at large have remained unedu-

cated. Schools will result in better literature, higher civilization, greater respect abroad, and more peace at home. The new system will, however, not injure but further classical education, as well as encourage work in fresh fields left untouched by the old examination. Students should be sent to foreign normal schools to learn how to become teachers and found normal schools at home.

Other points touched upon by the memorialists are the relation of State service to the schools, the length of the course, preferment, etc. The Edict resulting from this Memorial recognizes the crisis which China is now passing through and the country's need of men of "talents and abilities," admits that a gradual change, such as that proposed in 1898, is not what is needed, and continues:

"We therefore command that, beginning from the Ping Wu (1906) Cycle, all competitive examination for literary degrees after the old style shall be henceforth abolished. . . . We also approve of the other suggestions. . . . We are certain that the official classes and gentry throughout the Empire, on learning of this, will enthusiastically set about to start as many schools as possible and thus give the blessings of modern education to every subject of the Throne."

In conclusion, directions for distributing text-books are given, and officials are urged to "make haste to establish primary schools in all towns, hamlets, and villages." This is probably the most thorough and radical change ever introduced into the educational system of any land. It completely reverses China's position, and, if carried out, will be of inestimable benefit to the country.

Papers of universal application were few in number, most of the scholars attending the meeting being specialists who were content to abide in the field of their peculiar labors. These fell in general into the two groups of Aryan, or Indo-Iranian, and Semitic studies. A few were sent by scholars physically unable to be present; among them the aged but ever-active Professor Mills, an American scholar long domiciled at Oxford, who frequently publishes a fresh text of the Yasnas, the sacred writings of the Zoroastrians, and contributed one of these on this occasion. Of the few papers presented of wider scope, Prof. Toy's "Decay of Totemism" was one to attract especial attention. It treated of the different causes, internal and external, leading to a decline in the stringency of totemic observances. Especially emphasized were the effects produced by the individual, as opposed to the clan, the establishment of *manitou* totems, the "honorific" totem, the widening of tribal relations and state organizations. Professor Toy spoke deprecatingly of the effort to prove that domestication of plants and animals arose from totemism, rightly claiming that the process represented by this theory, advocated by Jevons, inverts the order of events. Another paper of general ethnological interest was presented by Miss Margaretta Morris, who, in continuation of her studies of Borneo, recently published in the Society's *Journal*, offered an interesting description of Malay customs in an essay on "Race and Custom in the Malay Archipelago"; the inter-relation of custom and racial peculiarities being well brought out, to show that identical customs are not indicative of racial integrity. The special essays included Sanskrit, Persian, Semitic, Egyptian, and Chinese studies, mainly technical, though some might well be grouped as historical.

India was represented by several papers. A linguistic phenomenon found in all languages was shown by Prof. Lanman to have affected the reading of Vedic texts. As the surd at the end of the first word in the phrase "hoped (hōpt) to" may lead in English to an actual change of tense, when such a phrase is orally passed to a stenographer who hears it (owing to very careless enunciation) as "hope to," so in a Vedic text *tád dyám eti* is corrupted to *tád yám eti*, the missing verbal accent still indicating the loss of the consonant. The subject of Vedic corruption was also treated by Professor Bloomfield, who remarked on the Hindu notion that the holy Vedas were not to be tampered with, and contrasted with this view the opinion usually held by Western scholars, namely, that a senseless complex may legitimately be made to have a meaning if an emendation can effect this result. The Rig Veda has, of course, many passages which require émendation, and some Vedic examples were given to show how a little ingenuity may play the same part in this field of tradition as has been played by it in classic literature. Only a Brahman could object to this thesis, though doubtless it will be as impossible here as elsewhere to restrict the fanciful outflow of "emended" texts when Sanskrit scholars once begin to get busy with conjectures. As a general rule, ninety-nine emendations in a hundred convince only the ingenious emendator; but if a peck of eyes may be sacrificed to establish the correctness of one surgical operation, ninety-nine emendations may be cheerfully examined and rejected if only one passage stand out clarified.

Studies of various Sanskrit words were offered by Prof. Fay, and a special class, onomatopoetic words, was treated by Mr. J. H. Moore. Here, also, much is debatable ground, and a certain degree of probability is as much as one is likely to attain even with the greatest exercise of caution. Of historical value were the studies on the Jaiminīya Brāhmana by Prof. Oertel, the translation of the Dūtāngada, one of the Rāma cycle of plays of the thirteenth century, for the first time translated into English by Dr. Gray, and Mr. Haas's paper on the ten kinds of Sanskrit drama. Only one paper on Buddhism was presented. In this, Prof. Hopkins examined various texts to see how far the Buddhists originally went in objecting to meat as an article of food. Numerous passages from the Vinaya, Suttas, and Jātakas were cited to show that there was no rule against eating meat; the sin of injury and slaughter of animals not including the later sin of eating the flesh of an animal already killed, unless the killing took place especially to provide the eater with meat and with the latter's knowledge and consent. Present-day conditions in India were interestingly exhibited on a small scale by Miss Lucia Grieve, who brought with her the paraphernalia of a Brahman woman's domestic worship and showed the Society how the service was actually performed.

From Persia (or Russia) came a Baku temple-inscription, for the first time interpreted by Dr. Abbott of Bombay. Prof. Jackson, in his Indo-Iranian Notes, made a bridge connecting India and Persia, and presented as well a special paper on the Zoroastrians of Yezd, which was well illustrated by photographic views. Some Indo-European etymologies were suggested by Prof. Haupt, who thus again bridged the narrowing chasm between Aryan and Semite. It might, indeed, be said that in our Eastern possessions there was no longer a linguistic break of this sort, as Aryan and Semite mingle confusedly in the Philippine Islands. From this part of the world came the materials Dr. Blake has taken in charge in his Tagalog papers, "Contributions to Comparative Tagalog Grammar," and "Expression of Case by the Verb in Tagalog." Another paper by the same writer treated of the syntax of the noun in Semitic.

On the Semitic side the paper of most general interest was that of Professor Jastrow, on the question, Did the Babylonian temples have libraries? The result attained by an examination of the material at hand fails to support the view that general libraries were preserved in the temples. Another paper by Professor Jastrow, on Tabi-Utul-Bel, gave an extremely interesting parallel to the problem of human suffering as treated in Job. The writer was a King cured by prayer to the gods. In his sickness the priests of the four classes availed not. Only the gods themselves, he was at last convinced, could help him, and he sings their praises after the cure was effectual. Presumption, he seems to imply, was his sin—perhaps his own deification and exaltation of himself as a divinity. If this interpretation be correct, it would, in Professor Jastrow's opinion, point, as do other circumstances, to a great antiquity, for the deification of the King is found only in the earliest literature. Other interesting Semitic papers were those of Professor Lyon on female votaries in the days of Hammurabi, seal impressions on contracts, illustrated by slides, and abbreviated legal expressions. In regard to the first, Professor Lyon held that these "sisters of the gods" were not disreputable women, but vestal virgins. Professor Gottheil took up a more modern period, and gave an extremely attractive account of Muhammad Abdu, late Mufti of Egypt, who died last year at the age of fifty-five. Another paper of Dr. Gottheil discussed a distinguished family of Fatemide Cadis in the tenth century.

A description, by Professor Moore, of a so-called Egyptian ephod, previously supposed to be the prototype of the high priest's garment in the Old Testament, brought out the fact that the leather garment in question was not an ephod, was probably not Egyptian, and possibly was only a sham cuirass, worn by an officer of the court, somewhat as a court sword is worn. Professor Torrey illustrated the Semitic objection to disagreeable implications after the second personal pronoun. If one says, "He said you are (*i. e.*, I was) evil," the "you" must be avoided by a paraphrase, otherwise the hearer of the tale is injured. A paper by Prof. W. Max Mueller discussed the goddess of the Carthaginians. Other papers in this field were read by title or in brief abstract.

Several distinguished members of the Society, whose death during the last year was

announced by the Secretary, were commemorated in short addresses by those present at the meeting. Among those who had passed away were the venerable Jules Oppert, Friedrich von Spiegel, and President Harper. Over thirty new members were elected, an unusually large number. Professor Toy was elected president to succeed Dr. Gilman. On Wednesday the Society adjourned to meet again on April 4, 1907, in Philadelphia.

MEETING OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

WASHINGTON, April 21, 1906.

Owing to the Franklin celebration at Philadelphia, the National Academy of Sciences held a session on Monday, April 16, the day before its annual statute meeting, and adjourned at the end of the following Wednesday. The papers may have been fewer than they would have been but for the exceptional circumstances of this year, yet they included four or five of capital importance. Of the sixteen communications, four related to Geology, Geognosy, and Palæontology, three to Zoölogy, one to Botany, two to General Physics, two to Heliography, one to Statistical Psychology, and one to Logic; while two were memoirs of deceased members, George P. Marsh and Admiral John Rodgers.

In respect to pertinence to the history of these days, the palm must be awarded to Major Dutton's proposed explanation of volcanic eruptions. It was more than thirty years ago that this savant submitted to the Academy evidences that the centres of volcanic actions have nothing to do with the supposed molten interior of the earth, but are, on the contrary, never more than five miles below the surface; and by the majority of students of the subject his argument has been accepted as substantial proof of this. There are some difficulties, it is true, of which the greatest has been that neither Major Dutton nor anybody else could specify any adequate cause for so enormous an evolution of heat in the upper crust of the earth. Stromboli, for example, certainly reminds one strongly of a geyser; and for many reasons it is generally believed that the more immediate cause of any volcanic eruption is the penetration of sea-water into some space where it is subjected to considerable heat and to tremendous pressure, and sets up some chemical action which suddenly liberates a titanic energy. It is very difficult to believe that sea water ever can penetrate to any considerable fraction of the radius of the spheroid of the earth, and yet it has hitherto seemed impossible to specify any probable cause for the heat requisite to kindle any great chemical action only a few miles underground. The discovery of radio-activity at once suggested the interrogation whether this might not be the cause sought. Major Dutton, in his new paper, shows that it might supply sufficient energy, not only for kindling a chemical action, but even for producing the eruption directly. It still remains to find evidence that it actually, or even that it probably, furnishes either the whole heat or the kindling heat that is required. Thus far, no known source of radium and no known product of radio-activity has been signalized in lavas or in the beds where volcanic action has its probable centre; nevertheless, there is no reason to deny the presence of radium there.

Our leading palæontologist, Prof. H. F. Osborn, read a paper by Mr. W. J. Sinclair upon the Bridger beds of Wyoming. We may mention that there is in Wyoming a basin, some two hundred and fifty miles in diameter, called the Green River Basin. Upon the floor of this there are various deposits, some of the lowest of which are known as the Bridger beds. One of the earliest operations of Clarence King's survey of the fortieth parallel was the examination of the Green River Basin. In those days microscopic petrography was not yet practised, and the parties were unsupplied with microscopes. Nevertheless, it was distinctly made out that some of the deposits in the basin were formed of débris from the erosion of the Uinta Mountains, while some other deposits were as clearly volcanic; but the provenance of the material of the Bridger beds was not ascertained. That they are largely lacustrine appeared clearly from the great numbers of fossil turtles and crocodiles found in them, and it was commonly assumed that they were composed of erosional matter. But Mr. Sinclair, in a most thorough search, could not discover the least bit of any. These beds, therefore, must be wholly volcanic, and Mr. Sinclair thinks it probable that the same conclusion may be extended to all the other Eocene basins of the Rocky Mountain region.

Professor Osborn also read a paper of his own upon the faunal and geological succession in Eocene and Oligocene basins of the Rocky Mountain region. He began by mentioning the prodigious multitude of fossils that had been collected, and the enormous amount of isolated study that had been made of the separate specimens. The time has now, he said, only just begun for putting the results together, and the present paper was understood to be merely preliminary to this further work. At the beginning of the geological age to which the paper refers, no ancestor of our present mammals was to be found on this continent, and some great change must have taken place by which these mammals were introduced. Last year, however, an armadillo was found at the bottom of the Bridger beds, and the White River basin affords a large number of new types derived from Europe.

The director of the Geological Survey, Dr. Charles D. Walcott, gave a résumé of the results obtained from the study of the collections of the Carnegie Institution expedition to China, under Messrs. Bailey Willis and Eliot Blackwelder. They brought home collections of fossils showing the faunas of the Middle Cambrian especially, but also of the Lower and of the lower part of the Upper Cambrian; the latter agreeing substantially with that of the upper Mississippi basin. The fauna of the Lower Cambrian was found to be of the same type as that of the Cambrian of the Salt Range of India, which is thus at last definitely placed. Furthermore, the fauna of the Middle Cambrian in China turns out to be altogether comparable to that of the Middle Cambrian of Mt. Stephen in British Columbia and of Utah and Nevada. And again, for the first time a species of cephalopod has been found in the Cambrian, four or five hundred feet below the top of the Cambrian limestones, and it agrees with the predictions of Hyatt, although the very simplest form which he expected has not yet been unearthed. Lantern illustrations were shown of 217 species, trilobites, brachiopods, gasteropods, and half a dozen other orders. The memoir was evidently regarded by the geologists as of unusual importance even among the works of Dr. Walcott.

The chief zoölogical paper was read by Dr. Agassiz with his inimitable hereditary charm of manner, in his own name and that of Dr. H. L. Clark. It related to the classification of certain sea-urchins called the *Cidaridæ*, of which the very same genera have subsisted from the Jurassic era down through all the ages of geological life even to this day. The spatial range of single forms is as remarkable as their duration. One form may extend from the shore to a depth of eleven or twelve hundred fathoms. The shore species are naturally more widely distributed than the deep species, because they are transported by tides and other currents. The material studied for this work of classification embraced select specimens and series of thirty-four of the sixty-four species found. The classifications hitherto proposed have rested too much upon single features, especially upon the shapes of the spines with which these creatures are covered or upon the tubercles which are only the beginnings of spines. They have, moreover, often resulted from the examination of single specimens of the different species. The consequence has been that Messrs. Agassiz and Clark would now and then find a single individual which, according to the definitions, belonged at once to two or three different genera. The new study, conducted with far fuller collections and (we may venture to say) with equally greater diligence, has brought out a classification that has none of the inconveniences of former attempts. In commenting upon this paper, the eminent naturalist and ethnologist, Dr. Edward S. Morse, in trenchant terms added the weight of his disapproval of the too common practice of basing not merely definitions of species, but even classifications, upon single characters.

A memoir on the life history of Pterophryne, by Dr. Theodore Gill, was read only by title, but perhaps we may hope to enjoy the perusal of it in the quarterly issue of the Smithsonian Collections. We were not entirely deprived of the pleasure of listening to Dr. Gill's refined and clear elocution, for he gave us a very curious account of a phenomenon found in the Sargasso Sea. It seems that this sea is full of small globular snarls of seaweed which are hollow and which contain fish-eggs. Now because these nests are so ubiquitous in that sea; and because by far the commonest of the fishes there is the so-called Sargasso fish, which is a sort of pediculate, the *Pterophryne histrio*; and further, because the eggs of these nests were believed to resemble eggs known to belong to fish allied to the Sargasso fish; and, still further, because the peculiar fins of this fish seemed adapted to building the nests, it has been unhesitatingly taken for granted by all naturalists, beginning with Louis Agassiz, who first described the balls of seaweed, and including Alexander Agassiz, who has collected and still pos-

sesses a number of them, that the eggs are those of the Sargasso fish. But Dr. Gill thinks this cannot be. Setting out from the assumption that the eggs are not fertilized before being deposited—such a phenomenon being quite unprecedented, except among ganoid fishes and their allies—he remarks that it seems quite impossible that they should be fertilized after they are thickly wrapped in the globe of seaweed. Therefore, we must suppose they were fertilized before being wrapped up. Then, because a hollow ball would be far more easily shaped by a creature inside it than by one which should be compelled to swim all over its convex surface in correcting its form, and also because the hypothesis comports better with what we know of the habits of fishes, he assumes that the ball is formed around the fertilized eggs by these eggs themselves, which are provided with long filaments that seem peculiarly fit for such work. Next, among all the fish that naturalists have remarked in the Sargasso Sea, the only one which is at all likely to have eggs like those of the nests are the *Exocetidæ*, or flying fishes, which abound round the borders of the rafts of seaweed; and Dr. Gill propounds the hypothesis that these, being surface-fishes, deposit the eggs just under the surface of the water, where they are incontinently fertilized, after which the eggs, by automatic motions of their filaments, wind themselves up in balls of seaweed. Mr. Agassiz, as was quite proper (for there is a system of advocacy even in science; only it is held in check by a genuine desire to learn the very truth), raised such objections as he could to Dr. Gill's hypothesis, urging that there were no flying-fish in the Sargasso Sea. But Dr. Gill, though he had never himself been in this unfrequented wilderness of the ocean, cited sundry authorities who named the flying-fish among the chief denizens of this region, next after the Sargasso fish itself; and among these authorities Alexander Agassiz was preëminent.

The truth perhaps is, that even exploring steamers avoid penetrating the great rafts of seaweed, that all about their borders flying fish abound, and whether there are or are not many of the nests in the middle parts of the great rafts is not known. The Sargasso Sea is a great whirlpool, as large as the United States, its centre is eleven feet lower than the surrounding sea-level, and it is in a region of calms. Consequently, it is a bad place for either a sailing vessel or for a steamer, whose screw might get all snarled up in seaweed, so as to be retarded, or stopped, or even broken.

Of the two papers on General Physics, one was by the world-renowned chemist, J. M. Crafts. It related to determinations of temperature between 100° and 350° C. After sketching the history of thermometry, beginning with an account of the Florence collection of thermometers supposed to have been made by Galileo, and coming down to the unrivalled thermometers of Baudin, *père et fils*, and to the new kinds of glass made by Schott of Jena, of which he mentioned one particular borosilicate of calcium and sodium as the most suitable for thermometers (noting by the way that glasses containing both sodium and potassium acted badly, showing not only a lag in their expansion, but, still more strangely, a lag in their expansibility), he mentioned that chemical thermometers always suffer a rise of their zero points, which sometimes amounts to twenty or more degrees of the Centigrade scale. Nevertheless, some physicists express their determinations of temperatures to thousandths of a degree, and Dr. Craft thinks that the errors can be brought within a hundredth of a degree. For that purpose, it is desirable to have as many liquids as possible, each capable of entire purification, freezing at a definite temperature, boiling at a constant temperature, and not undergoing spontaneous decomposition. Mercury and water are held to be two such substances. The only others that Dr. Crafts has been able to find are naphthalene and benzophenone. In order to use these, it is necessary to know their boiling-points under all pressures, or, what is the same thing, their vapor densities or tensions at all temperatures, or say at five-degree intervals from their freezing-points to the point of softening of glass. In the course of his own well-known researches, Dr. Crafts did this for himself. But methods have since been improved, and glass has been greatly improved, and it is more than desirable that the work should now be done by some bureau of standards. The other physical paper was by Professor Pupin, who, in a narrative of entrancing interest, carried us through the whole course of mathematical reasonings, of experiments, trials, and exercises, by which he finally attained success in getting his coils for cables made and adjusted without highly expert workmen.

The two papers on heliography were by the two chief masters of that subject, Hale the former, and Campbell the present, director of the Yerkes Observatory. Dr. Hale's spectro-heliograph has already been briefly explained in this journal, showing how he photographs the sun at different levels of its atmosphere. He has now mounted on Mt. Wilson, California, a five-foot spectro-heliograph, such as could of course never be carried on any equatorial telescope, and has obtained new and most surprising photographs, which were thrown upon the screen; but you could not afford the space for any description of them or of this most ingenious and superb instrument. The paper of Dr. Campbell, who availed himself of the collaboration of Dr. C. D. Perrine, related to observations of the solar corona by an exceedingly interesting and ingenious method, the description of which must likewise be postponed. One very interesting result is, that the matter of the fibres of the solar corona are at rest relatively to the sun, or at any rate have no motion greater than one kilometre per second.

Of the two remaining papers, one, by Professor Cattell, on the distribution of the thousand American Men of Science given in his just published volume bearing that title can hardly be said to have been read, so very brief was the time allotted for it. The other was a long paper by Mr. C. S. Peirce, on the Method of Existential Graphs, by means of which he showed that this system gives a sort of diagram of the mind in reasoning, and also that there is, strictly speaking, but one way in which the different logical elements of any concept or judgment are combined; namely, by each being indefinite or indeterminate in some respect in which another element renders it determinate.

Correspondence.

INTELLECTUAL ALLIANCE BETWEEN ITALY AND THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I desire to inform the American public through your columns of a plan which, if put into effect, as we who are engaged in it are now encouraged confidently to hope, ought to have far-reaching consequences for good in the development of American culture. This plan contemplates nothing less than a formal intellectual alliance between Italy and the United States, the object of which shall be to bring the citizens of these countries into as close a relation as possible, more especially on the side of their higher intellectual life. It will be observed that the scheme is somewhat similar, though wider in scope, to that of the Alliance Française. It embraces five principal objects, to wit:

(1.) The exchange of popular lectures between Italy and the United States. Since the intention is to reach as wide a public as possible, some of the lectures in the United States would be in English, and some of those in Italy in Italian.

(2.) The establishment of Italian professorships in American universities and of American professorships in Italian universities. This would mean both permanent chairs in the higher institutions of each country and the temporary residence of Italian professors in America and of American professors in Italy. Since, of course, Italian studies are already recognized in America, and English studies in Italy, one of the chief ends to be secured by this arrangement would be instruction, for America in Italian literature in the Italian language, and for Italy in English literature in the English language. The interchange of professors would also enable the teachers of each country to study and profit by the educational methods of the other.

(3.) The establishment in every part of the United States of clubs for the cultivation of Italian literature and art. Besides literary and musical gatherings of a more popular nature, vacation studies of the sort already familiar to Americans from "Chautauqua" and similar organizations, and free Italian circulating libraries, this part of the enterprise would include the systematic study of the Italian language and literature by those who have leisure and inclination to take them up, thus giving paid employment to native Italian teachers.

(4.) The exchange of students between Italian and American universities in such wise as would enable a student of either country to pursue courses in the institutions of the other, which, when properly certificated, should be recognized by the faculties at home. It is also desired that younger students be sent from one country to the other, and find homes in private families. This plan has already been tried with success between various countries of

the Continent of Europe. Such exchange of younger students would be under the control of an international committee of ladies. Competitive scholarships would also be established for indigent and deserving students.

(5.) The establishment of an Italo-American literary review, to be printed chiefly in English, but also partly in Italian. This periodical would endeavor to promote the interests of the Alleanza Italo-Americana, and to keep all its members informed of the progress of the work. It would also aim to inform all English-speaking peoples in regard to the intellectual and material progress of modern Italy, and to increase among them the knowledge of Italian literature and art, both ancient and modern, by means of original articles and book reviews.

The prime mover in this enterprise is our countryman, Prof. Joseph Spencer Kennard, D.C.L., Litt.D., well known as a writer in both the English and Italian languages on subjects connected with Italian literary history. During a visit to Rome last December, he was received in audience by the King, who expressed warm interest in a project whose object is to bring his people into close social and intellectual relations with the United States. Nothing else, indeed, was to be expected from so enlightened a monarch as Victor Emanuel III. Dr. Kennard also had interviews with other gentlemen distinguished in literary, official, and educational circles, all of whom expressed their keen interest and promised their active assistance, which they have already begun to lend; while reports and articles in the daily press have elicited warm approval from the Italian public generally. Active negotiations are now in progress in both countries, and it is hoped that their successful conclusion can soon be announced.

H. Edmiston.

Rome, April 7, 1906.

LITERATURE VERSUS PHILOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I sincerely wish that our college authorities could be induced to take to heart the excellent suggestions contained in your editorial on the "Teaching of Literature in Colleges." The scientific method, when applied to literature, is a miserable perversion of a principle that is excellent when employed in its place. Some years ago I was discussing with a university president the qualifications of a certain candidate for an instructorship in the French language and literature. One of his first questions was: "Has he made his Ph.D.?" My reply was: "No; but he has lived some years in France; has read French literature under several noted professors whose certificate of proficiency he holds, and speaks and writes the language with a correctness that is unusual with a foreigner. I consider him ten times better fitted for the work he would have to do than if he had made his Ph.D. by a dissertation on the vocabulary of Rabelais, or something similar, without having read anything else, without having set foot on French soil, and without being able to pronounce correctly three French words in succession." Recently I was called upon to look over some recommendations of a candidate for a professorship of English literature. They laid stress upon the fact that said candidate had spent some years in Berlin in the study of Anglo-Saxon, Middle English, etc. I said I would not give a bawbee for all this. Besides, I did not consider a German university the place in which to make preparation for teaching English literature.

I believe if we were to select the score of persons who are now doing most for the cause of English letters, either by way of production or elucidation, not one of them would be found qualified for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. A taste for literature and the capacity to appreciate its beauties cannot be acquired by the minute study of a single author, especially if it be one of little merit, to the exclusion of all others. A distaste can. The Greeks knew better, as is evinced, among other things, by the custom of requiring boys to learn the Homeric Poems by heart. In the Alexandrian era, when the philological method came into vogue, literature had passed into a decline. The more these epigones dissected and analyzed the works of their predecessors, the worse became their own productions. There is no evidence that any of these grammarians and philologists produced anything worthy to be classed as literature. When some one upbraided George Buchanan for making a pedant of his royal pupil, he replied that it was the best he could do with him. In like manner, it is perhaps to be said in extenuation of these Alexandrian critics and their modern successors that they did, and are still doing, the best they can. That England and France have, during the last two centuries, contributed so much more to the sum of the world's literary product than Germany, is doubtless due in no small measure to the conditions that in those countries the philological or scientific method of studying the ancient classics never gained the upper hand to the extent it did beyond the Rhine. It is to be hoped and expected that when the young Americans who, in increasing numbers, are studying in France and England, shall make their influence felt in their native land, a more rational method of teaching literature, whether ancient or modern, will gradually come into vogue.

Charles W. Super.

Athens, O., April 14, 1906.

ON NIETZSCHE TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is quite pathetic to watch the conscientious perseverance with which some of your correspondents are berating the English-reading public for its moral turpitude and intellectual degradation in steadfastly declining to buy certain translations of that distinguished immoralist, Nietzsche; and it has occurred to me that it is time something were said in behalf of the incriminated public.

In the first place, has the thought never suggested itself—if not to the translators, at least to the publishers—that the public may have perceived that these translations were *bad*, and even in one case (Zarathustra) almost grotesque?

In the second place, may not the public have detected that the author was *mad*, and have stupidly regarded this as a drawback to the serious study of his works? For the Anglo-Saxon world certainly does not seem to feel the reverential awe for the divine madness of genius which is common further East. And so far from letting brilliance atone for lack of sanity, it is positively terrified by the union of these qualities. It likes, moreover, to take its morals very seriously, and without corruption by epigrams. It prosaically judges Nietzsche to be nonsense, and does not see how suggestive and funny he is. Not that it does not like nonsense, but that Nietzsche's is not the kind of nonsense that it likes. It prefers Mrs. Eddy's 'Christian Science,' and Lear's nonsense rhymes, and Lewis Carroll. And yet I dare be sworn that none of these works, if translated into German, would take the public fancy.

The fact is that there are national differences of taste, and it is a mistake to make them into occasions for international recrimination. It is by no means safe, therefore, to anticipate the literary success of an English translation of a book which has been widely read in Germany or France. For example, Weininger's 'Sex and Character' contains apparently just the right mixture of craziness and contempt for woman with pseudo-philosophy to please the popular taste in Germany, where it has in consequence run through six editions. But I should not like to be financially interested in its success with English readers. Ninety-nine out of every hundred it will probably disgust and bore. The hundredth will perceive how screamingly funny it is, but will find it much too long. Not that Nietzsche is to be compared with Weininger. He was a great stylist, who worked wonders with the stiffest German idioms. But, for this very reason, he loses greatly even by a good translation.

It seems permissible, lastly, to doubt whether in the end all the more theatrical of Nietzsche's ideas, the "Superman," the "Blonde Wild Beast," and the "Slave Morality," etc., are not quite as nonsensical as they seem to the Anglo-Saxon philistine. The profound truth, on the other hand, contained in Nietzsche's conception of the "translation" of values, he probably does not perceive. But if he did, it would annoy him very much. For what could be more exasperating than to have to recognize that our stablest notions are forever undergoing transformation? In this the philistine is probably mistaken. But it is by no means clear that he is equally wrong in thinking that Nietzsche had best be read in German.

F. C. S. Schiller

Corpus Christi College, Oxford,
April 9, 1906.

BEACHCOMBER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of April 5, your reviewer of Miss Laut's 'Vikings of the Pacific' takes exception to the author's use of "beachcomber" for a wave instead of a person. Permit me to call attention to the respectable support Miss Laut has in this use of the word. The Standard Dictionary defines beachcomber as "1. [U. S.] A long wave rolling up on the beach. 2. An idle or vicious vagrant about wharves and beaches at seaports." Substantially the

same definitions are given in Webster's International and the Century.

The word is occasionally heard in both senses in this region, especially on the shores of Puget Sound. The shores of the Sound and of the Pacific are frequently strewn with logs cut for lumber, shingle-bolts, and sawn lumber carried up and left by the tide. Dwellers along the beaches sometimes gather these and use them in constructing their houses, or tow them to neighboring mills and dispose of them. The act is called beachcombing, and the man who lives by it, especially if not over-nice about what he appropriates, is called a beachcomber. A long rolling wave that comes in and sweeps a beach clean of such deposits, either by carrying them high up on the beach or out again to the sea, is also sometimes called a beachcomber. The term used in this connection does not seem altogether unfitting. J. R. WILSON.

PORTLAND, ORE., April 14, 1906.

[The only authority for the use of "beachcomber" in the sense of 'breaker' is Bartlett, in his Dictionary of Americanisms. He gives no authority for his definition, and no citation from literature. Other dictionaries have merely copied Bartlett, without instances. Twenty years' intimate acquaintance with seamen, fishermen, sealers, and whalers on the Pacific has not afforded a single instance of its oral use, in that sense, to the reviewer. The use referred to by Mr. Wilson seems derivative from the use of the term in the sense of scraping or carrying away from the beach, applicable to the marine hobo, as previously indicated by the reviewer.—ED. NATION.]

A MISREPRESENTATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The New York Publishing Society (sometime the Century History Company and the Publishing Society of Wisconsin) has recently issued a work in four volumes entitled 'Wisconsin in Three Centuries.' I have not yet seen the publication in its entirety, but am credibly informed that I am blazoned on the title-page thereof as being "chairman" of its "board of editors." My sole connection with this enterprise is the fact that I wrote the brief introduction, purely as a matter of friendly courtesy to the author, Mr. Henry Colin Campbell, managing editor of the Milwaukee *Journal*, he having shown me the proof of his first volume, and his monographic work in connection with the Parkman Club publications being well and favorably known to me. This act of courtesy did not make me an "editor" of the work, much less the chairman of any so-called "board of editors" thereof. My several vigorous protests to the publishers against this unwarranted use of my name have proved unavailing, and all that appears possible now to do is to request my fellow-librarians not to catalogue the work under my name. Whatever merits or demerits it may possess, should in justice be attributed wholly to Mr. Campbell, who, I am glad to be able to say, appears to have been in no way responsible for the peculiar advertising methods of his publishers. Librarians would confer a still further service by pasting a clipping of this disavowal within the work itself, so that investigators may be informed as to the facts in the case.

REUBEN G. THWAITES.

MADISON, WIS., April 18, 1906.

A REJOINDER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 5, you print a letter from Prof. F. H. Dixon, of Dartmouth College, which states that Prof. H. R. Meyer, "under cover of an apparent erudition, is quite superficial, and that he is in many places guilty either of deliberate misrepresentation or of inexcusable ignorance." That statement Professor Dixon makes on the strength of a review of 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates,' written by Privy Councillor v. d. Leyen, who since 1880 has been an officer in the Prussian Ministry of Public Works.

I shall not ask you to allow me to use your newspaper for the purpose of replying to gentlemen who charge me with dishonesty and charlatanry but refrain completely from seeking to overthrow the propositions set forth in 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates.' In justice, not to myself, but to the public policy which I advocate, I shall, however, ask you to publish this letter, which shall close with the statement that in the *Journal of Political Economy* for April, 1906, issued by the University of Chicago, I shall reply at length to the criticisms upon 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates.'

I am, your obedient servant,

HUGO R. MEYER.

DENVER, April 19, 1906.

SANCTA SIMPLICITAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Simplified Spelling Board does not advocate any scheme of "fonetic reform," nor does it desire any radical change of any kind. It believes in Sainte-Beuve's suggestion that "orthography is like society: it will never be entirely reformed, but we can at least make it less vicious." Therefore the Board wishes, first of all, to awaken attention to the unfortunate condition of our spelling; and, second, to encourage the tendency toward simplification by the omission of useless letters—a tendency which has been at work from the beginning, and which has made it possible for the *Nation* now to spell *honor, wagon, music, almanac, comedy,* and *fantasy,* instead of *honour, waggon, musicke, almanack, comœdy, phantasie.* The Board would like also to restore certain older spellings, which are better than the later perverted forms—*rime,* for example, and *sovran* and *iland.*

A fuller statement of its aims can be had by sending a postal card of inquiry to the Simplified Spelling Board, No. 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

BRANDER MATTHEWS.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, April 21, 1906.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'Science and Idealism,' by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard.

'Notes on the History and Political Institutions of the Old World,' by Edward Preissig, will shortly be issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A work in five volumes, illustrated by photogravure, entitled 'America and her Insular Possessions,' by Joel Cook and C. H. Forbes-Lindsay, is in the press of the John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia.

Perennial charm of subject combined with literary skill has kept 'A Memoir of Jane Austen,' by her nephew, J. E. Austen Leigh, in steady request since its original appearance in 1869. Meanwhile it has been enlarged, particularly by some inedited tales and fragments of tales, and deserves a place beside the novelist's complete works. The present 16mo edition, in Macmillan's "Eversley Series," is all that could be desired for beauty and handiness.

The edition of Beaumont and Fletcher, in the series of "Cambridge English Classics" (Macmillan Co.), which was begun by Mr. Arnold Glover and is now, since his death, being continued by Mr. A. R. Waller, does not seem to us to possess any advantage over the Variorum edition which is appearing under the general direction of Mr. A. H. Bullen, except that of greater cheapness. It is more limited in scope, being practically a reprint of the Second Folio (1679), without explanatory notes or discussion of sources, etc. It seems a pity that two editions of these plays should be issued concurrently, but, if such was to be the case, the edition which is published under the auspices of the University of Cambridge and which was apparently planned to satisfy the requirements of professional scholars, might surely have been better arranged to attain that object. Why should the editors elect to give us the text of the Second Folio invariably, even in the case of plays of which contemporary Quartos exist? To be sure, the variant readings of the Quartos are recorded at the end of the volume, but a proper editorial method would seem to demand that the readings of this Second Folio, published many years after the authors' deaths by men who had no access to the original manuscripts, should be relegated to this place. For the same reason, moreover, we see no advantage in adhering slavishly to the punctuation of this Folio when the result is so often irritating, as it is in our editors' printed text. Even if we ascribe a sacredness to the blunders of the chance compositor who set up the text, the editor is at liberty to punctuate correctly and then record the blunder in a note. The Early English Text Society, in its handling of mediæval texts, has always been considered justly a model of conservatism in these minor matters of the law, but the editors of the Cambridge English Classics, dealing with periods in which such things are manifestly of secondary importance, threaten far to outdo that society. The first volume of the present edition bears date 1905; two more volumes have been promised for the present month.

It is difficult for the American teacher to imagine to himself exactly the class of

pupils who would profit by Mr. Percy Simpson's 'Scenes from Old Playbooks' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). In the main the book is made up of familiar extracts from Shakspere's plays—for instance, the quarrel scene between Brutus and Cassius in "Julius Cæsar." Added to these, however, we have a few selections from plays dealing (nearly all) with British history by Marlowe, Ford, and others. Mr. Simpson says that "the book has been edited solely with an eye to young readers." We believe, however, that teachers are hardly likely to depart from the prevailing practice of confining the reading in the Elizabethan drama of pupils at this stage of preparation to the plays of Shakspere, and, moreover, that they will continue to find it more profitable to read with their classes single plays in something like their entirety rather than brief, disconnected extracts such as we have here. It seems to us, indeed, a pity that the Delegates of the Clarendon Press should lend the influence of their authority to such a work as this. The introduction contains an adequate account of the English theatre in Shakspere's day, and the book concludes with a glossary and index of names.

The vexed question of why we are ourselves, or at least wherein we resemble and wherein we differ from other people, is discussed, under the guise of 'The Principles of Heredity,' by G. A. Reid, M.B., etc. (E. P. Dutton & Co.). Physiology, psychology, ontology itself, are pressed into the service in a way better appreciated by the medical philosopher than by the casual reader. It is held that "all the inborn characters of an individual take origin in the germ-plasm whence he sprang" (p. 61), and these characteristics, sometimes separated by thousands of generations, lie ready to be evolved according to conditions. Reversion is held to be an arrest of development, and as a rule "every variation is unstable in proportion to its newness," which is discouraging for Mr. Burbank's plant-breeding. Acquirements are supposed not to be transmissible, and as a concrete example there is denial of inherited gout, just as the mutilated tails of terriers fail to initiate tailless dogs. "The drink-craving," to use another instance, "is an acquirement, and as such is never inherited. But the inborn tendency to acquire it is certainly inborn and inherited" (p. 345). "Conditions adverse to the individual do not tend to cause racial deterioration, beneficial conditions do." "Country blood does not strengthen city blood. It weakens it, for it has been less thoroughly purged of weak elements" (pp. 336-7). These apparent paradoxes depend for their explanation upon the force of "acquirement" and of "habituation." If true at all, the reasoning is in advance of our general knowledge.

Among recent editions of law books which have stood the test of some years' use, we have received the second edition of William Wirt Howe's 'Studies in the Civil Law,' a third edition of John Wilder May's 'Law of Crimes,' edited by Harry Augustus Bigelow, and a second edition of George F. Tucker's 'Manual of Mercantile and Manufacturing Corporations' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.).

'The American Law Relating to Income and Principal,' by Edwin A. Howes, jr., (Little, Brown & Co.), is the title of an excellent little manual on a subject full of difficulty for lawyers and trustees. Bonds, bought at a premium, are held in trust for life-tenant and remainderman; must the trustees create a sinking fund to replace the depreciation in face-value if the bonds are held until maturity? A corporation makes an extra dividend in cash to the trustees; does it belong to principal or income? Is the rule the same in the case of a stock dividend? To whom do "rights" belong? These and other questions like them have occupied the attention of the courts of this country a great deal during the past thirty or forty years, and are, of course, discussed in books on Trusts and Trustees, and Executors and Administrators. But they require treatment in considerable detail, and with very careful discrimination between the conflicting rules laid down in different jurisdictions. Mr. Howes has done this compactly and clearly, and his hand-book will be found very useful.

Lemcke & Buechner send us a new one-volume 'Deutschland' in the Baedeker German series. For the convenience of tourists working on broad lines, whether automobilists or others, and not wishing to be cumbered with detail, it has been carefully made up from the five handbooks into which the original 'Deutschland' of 1842 has by degrees expanded. It is rich in maps which are fairly available for the highroad. The publishers show how it can be dismembered for the various sections.

From the same house comes a vastly useful and convenient addition to the "Manueli Hoepli" of Milan, 'Cronologia e Calendario Perpetuo,' by A. (Adriano?) Capelli. It has no table of contents, and this we will try to supply as a sufficient recommendation of so great a labor. In order, then, we have (1) the chronological series of Roman consuls; (2) parallel chronological tables of the Christian era to 2000 A.D., the Byzantine and Spanish eras, with Easter date for each year, keeping step with the successive Roman emperors and their modern Continental successors (France, Germany, Italy), and Popes; (3) Easter recurrences in the Julian calendar from 1583 to 2000; (4) index to the emperors and kings recorded in (2), with their ruling dates; (5) ancient Roman calendar; (6) perpetual Julian and Gregorian calendar, each double-page table furnishing the type for all the years indicated above, introduced by the same Easter date; (7) glossary of the principal feast days; (8) alphabetical list of the chief saints and *beati*; (9) wanting; (10) the hegira, paralleled by our Christian reckoning; (11) era of the French Republic; (12) chronological table of the principal European sovereigns under geographical alphabetical arrangement—a very important section for ready reference (thus, one may see at a glance all the presidents of the Swiss Confederacy, with their dates). The typography of this little volume is excellent, and the figures clear.

The April Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic, sent out by the Hydrographic Office, is of more than general interest. Suggestions for the use of oil at sea during storms, to prevent the breaking of heavy seas over the deck, are brief and to the point, and are illustrated by many diagrams. Rules of practical application are taken from the prize essay submitted to the Hamburg Nautical Union by Capt. R. Karlowa of the Hamburg-American Steamship Company. By means of arrows and flowing lines, drawn in connection with a ship's hull, to show the direction of wind and sea and spreading oil, most contingencies seem to be provided for, such as "scudding before a gale," "steaming into a heavy head sea," "hove to for a pilot," "drifting in the trough," and the like. In each case the method and place of emitting the oil to best advantage are indicated. It is mentioned, too, that other uses of oil are beneficial, as in lowering and hoisting boats, riding to a sea anchor, and crossing surf on a bar. Raw petroleum gives better results than the refined product, and thick, heavy oils are best, animal or vegetable being generally preferable to mineral; but as cocoanut and certain kinds of fish oils congeal in cold weather, they are not available for this use. Quotations from the masters of numerous steamers and sailing craft employing this means of calming rough seas show an overwhelming array of testimony to its efficacy. The amount of oil required seems to vary from half a gallon per hour to about two gallons and over, though one (only) vessel reports using as much as three gallons.

Very impressive is the second instalment of titles of genealogies in preparation given in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April, with a third to follow. At page 211, the Society's Committee on English Research invites support for a revival of investigation concerning the English ancestry of the pioneers of New England, which has pretty much lapsed since Mr. Waters's retirement. "Clues, not generally known, as to the origin of several early emigrants, have come into the committee's hands," and the secretary, Mr. Joseph Gardner Bartlett, "will be glad to give information to any one who may desire to make investigations."

The Semitic origin and great antiquity of the Rhodesian ruins are denied by Mr. D. R. MacIver in a paper read before the Royal Geographical Society and published, together with the lengthy discussion upon it, in the *Geographical Journal* for April. From personal examination of seven sites, including the Great Zimbabwe, he comes to the conclusion that the ruins belong to one period, mediæval and post-mediæval, and were constructed by a negroid race closely akin to the present dwellers in the country. The majority of speakers at the Society's meeting, mostly experts, disagreed with these conclusions, which were stated with great positiveness and scant courtesy for those who held the commonly-accepted views. The great interest in the subject which was aroused by the paper, and the discussion, may lead to the organization of a Rhodesian Exploration Fund for the scientific investigation of the ruins. If to this work could be joined the examination of the ruins in Arabia, facts of great ethnological and historical value might be brought to light. A journey through the almost unknown interior of Newfoundland, the second made by a white man from the south to the east coast, is described by Mr. J. G. Millais. The director of the New Zealand Geological Survey, Mr. J. M. Bell, gives

an account of the present condition of the great Tarawera volcanic rift, which is illustrated by some interesting pictures of geysers in action. Dr. Seligmann concludes his narrative of the recent anthropo-geographical investigations in British New Guinea. Its interest, when read before the Society, was greatly increased by biographic films of native life, and the suggestion was made that other travellers be urged to use them as advantageous to the study of anthropology.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 2, are the conclusion of Dr. Steinmann's account of his expedition in Bolivia, with a table of the heights determined; and a description of the thermic anomalies of the earth's surface, illustrated by twelve monthly charts, by Dr. F. Hopfner. This writer sums them up in the general statement that the southern hemisphere has a definite summer aspect —the land is too warm, the sea too cold— while the northern hemisphere exhibits a tendency to wintry conditions. A similar distinction is to be observed between the eastern and western hemispheres—the one having a mean October, the other an April, climate. An appeal is made by R. Tronnier for facts in regard to changes in the earth's surface. As an illustration of what he desires, he gives instances of changes in 1905, as the disappearance of islands, fall of coast cliffs, avalanches of earth; and man's work, *e. g.*, the removal of a hill in Germany by a railroad company. L. Mylius-Erichsen gives a sketch of what he hopes to accomplish in his "Denmark" expedition to the north coast of Greenland. It will consist of twenty-six men, including three natives of Greenland, six Iceland ponies, and one hundred dogs, and is to start from Copenhagen at the end of next June, and to return at the end of September, 1908.

A Tartar *Times*, a semi-weekly newspaper, published in Orenburg, Russia, and having a circulation in the southern part of that country and in Asia as far as eastern Turkestan, is a fact almost startling to those to whom the word Tartar simply suggests a raiding nomad. Its editor, says Arminius Vámbéry, in a communication to the London *Times*, is a highly educated Tartar gentleman, Mohammed Fatih by name, whose aim is to win over his countrymen to modern civilization and to prepare them for liberty and constitutional rights. It is not the only Tartar newspaper published in Russia, but it is the most southern, and its Asiatic circulation leads Vámbéry to think that it may be the forerunner of a Sarts *Times* to be published in Tashkend.

Shakspere's popularity in Germany, both on the stage and in the universities, is worthy of notice. Professor Schick of Munich, in a recent lecture in London, said that, in 1905, Shakspere's plays were given in 146 theatres, thus surpassing the performances of the works of any other dramatist, the next in order being Wagner, Schiller, Goethe, and Mozart. In Munich there were one or more performances every week, and in some places there were special Shakspere stages. The study of his works has been greatly stimulated by the marked increase in the students of the English language during the past ten years. In the University of Munich there are now six professors of Shakspere, each lecturing from different standpoints, and the Shaksperian lectures draw the largest audiences. In view of these facts, it is not difficult to accept Professor Schick's assertion that no poet of any nation, not excepting Homer, had ever influenced another nation so much as Shakspere had influenced the Germans.

The organization of a Leopold von Ranke Verein has been effected, the purpose being to establish a Ranke Museum in the house in Wiehe where the great historian was born. Publishers and representatives of the universities, and historians from various sections in Germany, constitute the committee of arrangements, Dr. von Boetticher being the chairman. An appeal recently published for Ranke articles suitable for such a museum has brought out an unexpected abundance of material.

The Cultus Ministerium of Bavaria has arranged, in conjunction with that of Hesse, for an archæological object-lesson journey for gymnasium teachers, to be carried out during the Easter recess. The first part of the programme consists of an examination and study of the archæological collections of the University of Würzburg, the superintendent of which, Prof. Paul Wolters, will act as instructor. From here the participants go to Aschaffenburg, to the *Limes* in Odenwald, and then to Erbach, and perhaps by way of Heidelberg to Speyer and its rich museum. The expedition will reach its conclusion in Mainz with study in the Roman and Germanic Museum, where Professor Dragendorf, of the Archæological Institute of Frankfort, will act as instructor, devoting special attention to the ceramic finds of the Roman period. The Speyer Museum, because of its proximity to Rheinzabern, where the greatest Roman pottery north of the Alps was stationed, is especially rich in material for these researches.

As decided upon at the Fourteenth Congress, which was held at Stuttgart, in August, 1904, the Fifteenth Congress of Americanists will be held at Quebec this year under the patronage of the Governor-General of Canada. Dr. Robert Bell, Director of the Geological Survey of Canada, is President of the Committee of Organization; Dr. N. E. Dionne, Librarian of the Legislative Assembly of Quebec, is the General Secretary; and Mr. Alphonse Gagnon, of the Department of Public Works, Quebec, is the Treasurer. The meeting of the Congress will take place in the Legislative Building at Quebec; and the session will be opened on Monday, the 10th, and continue to Saturday, the 15th, of September. The work will have reference to (a) the native races of America, their origin, geographical distribution, history, physical and mental characteristics, languages, civilization, mythology, religions, and habits; (b) the indigenous monuments and archæology of America; (c) the history of the discovery and European occupancy of the New World. There will be social entertainments of the kind customary in connection with similar gatherings; and it is probable that at the close of the session an excursion to Lake St. John, including a visit to a camp of Montagnais Indians of the region, will be organized. Among the promoters of the coming Congress are Prof. A. F. Chamberlain, of Worcester, Mass., and Dr. Franz Boas, New York. In accordance with previous usage, the accepted languages will be French, English, German, Spanish, and Italian.

The International Congress for the Historical Sciences, which was to meet during the present year, will not convene until the summer of 1908, and then in Berlin. The programme is to be sent out during the coming year. This will be the fourth united convention of the representatives of historical research from all civilized lands. Its significance is signalized by the fact that the committee of arrangements consists of three of the most famous specialists in this line in Germany, namely, Dr. Reinhold Koser, the director-in-chief of the Prussian Archives, and the two famous Berlin University professors, Ulrich von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff and Eduard Meyer.

A mining engineer writes to us from Nevada: "In your review of Prof. Shaler's 'Man and Earth,' you state that the accessible coal deposits of the world have a life of 300 years. This is an absurdly low estimate. The coal fields of eastern Shansi are soon to be accessible through the railways of the Pekin Syndicate. This is an anthracite coalfield containing some 600,000,000,000 tons of coal, or enough for the world's supply for 700 years. In western Shansi there is a larger field of bituminous coal, and there are enormous deposits in Honan and in Kansu, all of which will be accessible long before the 300 years has passed."

—The latest volume of the Transactions of the Royal Historical Society contains a paper upon "English Ships in the Reign of James I.," communicated by Mr. R. G. Marsden, whose two volumes of 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty' were published by the Selden Society. The paper in question should be noted by those who are in quest of details as to the early colonial period of American history, for, hidden away among the seldom examined records of the High Court of Admiralty, are statements made by persons who actually visited the colonies in their infantile state. No doubt, to any but enthusiasts, it would be dry work to pore over such documents as "Libels, Examinations, Acts, Warrant Books, Miscellanea, Oyer and Terminer, Interrogatories, and Exemplifications," which form the records of court. But sometimes one is well rewarded. Thus, in connection with the *Discovery* (or *Hopewell*, or *Good Hope*), which was Hudson's ship on his last voyage, and in which Baffin also sailed, Mr. Marsden tells us that particulars of the trial, on January 25, 1611, of some of the crew for the murder of Hudson, will be found in *Examination* 42. Mr. Marsden has discovered no documents relating to the voyage of the Pilgrims, in 1620, in the *Mayflower*, but he gives several references to documents containing facts about that vessel from 1609 to 1624, or perhaps 1626. He has encountered many references to the *Susan Constant*, or *Susan Constance;* but, sad to say, he gives no details. Was not this the flagship of Capt. Newport's little squadron, which, in 1607, carried the first settlers to Jamestown? There are papers telling of a charge of piracy against the *Trial*, bound to Virginia, in 1607; of the *Gift of God* sent forth by Sir John Popham to Virginia, in 1608; and the *Garland*, lost at Bermuda on a voy-

age to Virginia, in 1619. In this last case, among the papers are the commission to William Wye, her master, and a letter from the Virginia Company to Sir George Yardley. A claim for wages by two of the crew of the *Little James*, which relieved the Plymouth Colony in 1623, discloses a letter of William Bradford and Isaac Allerton. Of the *Destiny*, Sir Walter Raleigh's ship on his last voyage to Guiana, the records of the High Court of Admiralty have much to tell. Mr. Marsden notes that this vessel was taken into the Royal Navy, when her name was changed to the *Converse* or *Convertine*.

—'Americans of 1776' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is an elaboration of the lectures delivered by Mr. James Schouler at the Johns Hopkins University during the years 1901-1905. They form a study of the life and manners of the Revolutionary period, based on an examination of newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, letters, and diaries. Crime and Disorders; Births, Marriages, and Deaths; The Casualties of Life; Dress and Diet; Philanthropy and Disease; Religious Influences, are some of the chapter-titles. Detailed facts in abundance are presented, loosely strung together by rather obvious comments. The separate chapters bear little or no necessary relation to each other, each one being measurably complete in itself. The author, indeed, makes no claim to originality of treatment, and if there is from first to last no observation of a profound or illuminating character, we have observed few misleading or erroneous statements. If the colonial assemblies vied with each other in "voting heroic statues to George III." (p. 7) for the repeal of the Stamp Act, they were less ready to indemnify the sufferers from the Stamp-Act riots. The laws for the relief of debtors were due quite as much, perhaps, to the financial stringency resulting from the Sugar Act as to growing humanitarianism (p. 30). There was in New York, after all, only one estate forty miles square (p. 49), and that one was not originally granted by the English Crown. The tavern where Washington said farewell to his officers is better known as Fraunces', the name which it bore at that time (p. 78). The self-denial of the colonists in refusing to drink the East India Company's tea was not excessive, since there remained the Holland tea (p. 100). The New York liberty pole was cut down by the soldiers in January, 1770 (p. 266). If New York "broke down" in 1770 under the burden of the Non-Importation agreement, it was precisely because New York was the only colony which enforced that agreement with sufficient strictness to make it a burden (p. 101).

—'Mary Stuart,' by Florence A. Maccunn (Dutton), is a book which comes into the world without a second title, without a preface, and without any need of an apology. Moreover, in making this statement, we speak as a rather jaded reader of Marian literature. What we have enjoyed specially in the volume is its directness. Among a host of technical and controversial monographs, it stands out a simple, lively narrative of the remarkable adventures through which Mary Stuart passed. No amount of argument about the Kirk o' Field or the Casket Letters can excite the same interest which is elicited by a well-told story of the authentic incidents in that strange career. Most writers on this subject are so preoccupied with their own theories upon doubtful points that they make their books mere pieces of dialectic. The first volume of Dr. Hay Fleming's *magnum opus* has recently been styled by another expert in Marian questions "a notable example of biographic spadework." Doubtless spadework must be done, but at times it is really delightful to turn from researches conducted by the historical detective to the broad facts about which there can be no disputes. Miss Maccunn believes that Mary was in the plot against Darnley, sees clearly enough how infatuated she became over Bothwell, and does not forget her lack of humanity towards Bothwell's wife. Of the three main strains which met in her—Stuart, Guise, and Tudor—the last is held responsible for the sensual impulse which once at least got the better of her clearheadedness, her conscience, and her abundant good nature. But when all the worst has been said, there remain for our author the natural kindliness of disposition, the queenly instincts, the unstinted generosity, the charm of manner, and the willingness to sacrifice herself though she sacrificed others. The essential crudeness and vulgarity of Bothwell, the shiftiness of the Lord James, the cowardice of Maitland, and the rapacity of the ordinary Scottish noble are always the foils which serve to place Mary's finer qualities in high relief, and the contrast is cleverly indicated in these pages. Knox and the Presbyterian conscience come in for a certain amount of attention, and while the *dramatis personæ* belong to court circles rather than to the bourgeoisie, Miss Maccunn reaches the chief fact in the history of the reign when she says: "The bulk of serious burghers and their wives listened week after week with sour satisfaction to Knox denouncing from the pulpit her 'dancing and skipping' and the 'stinking pride' of her 'targetted tails.' For Mary, full of ambitions—Spanish marriage, English succession—or possessed by her more fatal dream of love and happiness, these sober-suited people hardly existed; yet they and their crude, sincere instinct of conduct proved to be the unregarded stone which, falling on her, was to grind her to powder."

—M. George Moreau, whose verdict on America ('L'Envers des États-Unis') comes to us from the Plon-Nourrit press of Paris, sees but a gloomy outlook for the future. Not believing in the settlement of so important a question "entre la poire et le fromage," as the manner of some is, he has taken time and pains to go to the bottom of things—deeply enough, in fact, to unearth some matters of which we on this side were ignorant, such as the arrival of William Penn on the *Mayflower*, the invincible horror for colored people in the Northern States, and the favorable eye with which the Southern districts regard marriage between whites and mulattoes, thus opening the door to an amalgamation which threatens a dangerous weakening of American energy. Then, too, a very great majority of American women are addicted to excessive indulgence in alcoholic drinks. This is all bad enough, but we are essentially a nation of mere bluffers anyhow, materially successful so far, it must be admitted, but desperately ignorant and hypocritically feigning an interest in art, music, and all that sort of stuff, merely to keep up appearances. But the handwriting is already on the wall. With the evils always inherent in increasing density of population, added to degeneracy from race mixture and alcoholism, will come strifes and bickerings over conflicting local interests; large States here and there will gather their smaller neighbors around them in warring groups, the tie that now binds will be broken, and Europe (has M. Moreau been reading Tacitus?) will look on with a sigh of relief as her enemy works its own ruin. Have we possibly a key to our critic's almost unbroken pessimism in his statement that "en général la cuisine est détestable"? A man with a pain to nurse on that score must have exceptional self-control to take an accurate and wholesome view of other things. Any well-informed American could have pointed out to him many very serious faults which he seems not to have noticed at all, as well as a few items on the opposite side of the balance-sheet.

—From the same press we get a healthful corrective to M. Moreau's acidity in 'Impressions d'une Française en Amérique,' by Mlle. Thérèse Vianzone, who spent some months on this side the water in 1903-1904, lecturing before various schools and other organizations and studying certain phases of American life, chiefly in our large cities east of the Alleghanies, with a short trip to Chicago and a few weeks in Toronto and Montreal. Mlle. Vianzone's previous acquaintance, gained in European diplomatic circles largely, was such as to bring her here with exceptional opportunities for seeing certain of the more attractive features of American life. Naturally, this gave a more roseate color to her visit than would otherwise have been possible. She is too wise to take a partial view as sufficient basis for dogmatic judgment upon the whole, however, and that is just the difference between her and M. Moreau. Her general impression is that a nation having in itself such powerful agencies for good as she discovered, has no adquate reason to despair of its future. She goes into scores of American homes, and finds there mothers thoroughly devoted to their children, guiding them intelligently into the development of responsible and self-respecting manhood and womanhood; she meets everywhere young women of great wealth and high social position forgetful of self and devoting means and energy unostentatiously to the good of others. Is not the frivolous, characterless woman here too? Yes, but not as a characteristic American institution. Europe knew her before America was discovered, and knows her still. The separation of colored people from white, which the Frenchwoman saw on a trip to Mount Vernon by car, calls forth the cry, "O égalité!" The day before, she had found herself the only white person in a car well filled with negroes, and had felt no concern whatever. At Boston she had the privilege of forming a close acquaintance with Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, and was very deeply impressed with the personality and achievements of the veteran reformer. A fine photograph of Mrs. Howe graces the book, with others of Cardinal Gibbons, Secretary Bonaparte,

the President and his family, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The orthography of English words and phrases used in quotation has given some trouble (brikchurch, Harward, the for hundred, John Hopkins, Peobody, etc.), and the service of some proofreader capable of correcting such blemishes should have been called in.

SOUTHERN HISTORY IN TWO STYLES.

The Brothers' War. By John C. Reed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

Civil War and Reconstruction in Alabama. By Walter L. Fleming, Ph.D. The Columbia University Press (Macmillan Co.). 1905.

"Bebra," quoth the Quaker, "everybody is queer except thee and me, and thee is a little queer." The ante-bellum South seems less queer to us since reading 'The Brothers' War,' in which Mr. Reed expounds some wise theories and makes many philosophical observations. His antecedents add interest to his opinions. From incidental remarks in the book we learn that he was born about seventy years ago in northeastern Georgia, the son of a Presbyterian clergyman who owned less than a score of slaves; that he was educated at Princeton, and had been practising law a few years when Lincoln was elected; that then secession seemed to him to be the only patriotic course, and that he engaged in the first battle of Bull Run, and continued to hazard everything until he surrendered at Appomattox. Since 1865 he has pursued his profession, first in his native county, and latterly in Atlanta. Hence he knew the old order of things, and works and writes as a part of the energetic new South. It would be less than fair not to add, that he has rid his mind of all cant, and has at least endeavored to slough off all prejudices. Being so open-minded himself, he is sure to be a mind-opener to others.

His main thesis is that economic interest, not principle or derivation, made two distinct and antagonistic peoples in the United States. Originally the North and the South were "homogeneous in origin, race, language, religion, institutions and customs." His argument advances along that well-known main-travelled road of the "economic contrast." The "nationalization of the South" began, he says, before the formation of the Federal Constitution, and could have been arrested in but one way, "by the extirpation of slavery, which was both its germ and active principle." After the cotton gin, the "cotton States" soon came into existence; and after they "had really developed their industry, the Southern Confederacy was inevitable." In this nationalization "the doctrine of State sovereignty was really nothing but its instrument, nurse, and organ" (p. 59). Each side grasped the weapon that promised to be most serviceable. Strict construction and State sovereignty suited the South most of the time, just as the opposites were more useful to the North. Our author might have added with equal truth that the leaders again and again exchanged positions and weapons, for aggressive strategy or the needs of defence. "The economic interest of the South in slavery was so great that it commanded her to sacrifice all the advantages of the Union to preserve slavery, if it should be necessary." The favorable was right, morally and politically, and *vice versa*. If you dispute it, kindly explain how "all the churches, accepting the same Christ and worshipping the same God, were at last divided; the Northern churches impugning and the Southern churches defending slavery" (p. 86). Long before 1860, property in slaves had "supplanted or made dependent on itself all other property, and became the solitary foundation of every kind of production and mode of making a living." The returns from slave labor depended on soil, crops, and management, and varied from a loss to a great profit; but what might easily be made "the greatest profit of all was what the master thought of and talked of all the day long—the natural increase of his slaves, as he called it. His negroes were far more to him than his land. . . . Quickly exhausting his newly cleared fields, he looked elsewhere for other virgin soil to wear out" (p. 49). So great was the increase in the value and number of slaves that slavery might still be highly profitable although the soil was poor and its cultivation slovenly. If the slaves raised enough to supply the bare necessaries for their master and themselves, there was often a good percentage of gain even in the annual compound of principal and interest, if no slaves were sold. Elsewhere the author likens the ease and advantage of slave-breeding to a self-managing and remunerative orchard, where "the trees plant and tend themselves, gather and store the fruit, set out other orchards, and do all else necessary to care for the property and keep it steadily growing" (p. 48). "Really the leading industry of the South was slave rearing. The profit was in keeping the slaves healthy and rapidly multiplying" (p. 156).

Lest any one should wonder how the Southerners could believe that they were champions of liberty when slaveholding was their great concern, he reminds us that their idol was Greece, both slaveholding and liberty-loving. Nor were they incredibly dull and obtuse in not abandoning slavery when they saw that the economic, political, moral, and intellectual forces of the world were against them; they acted only as human beings always act. "Note how people dwell near overflowing rivers, or a sea of tidal waves, or live volcanoes, or in earthquake districts, or near a tribe of scalping redskins, where they, their wives and children, keep merry as the day is long until the calamity comes." In fact, Mr. Reed never knew but one man who showed by his actions that he foresaw the early fall of slavery (p. 43). He might have said with equal truth that nineteen persons out of twenty, especially among the educated and rich, were absolutely confident that all the rest of the world was wrong, and slavery was a great civilizer and the only true solution of the conflict between labor and capital. Moreover, he gives a living illustration of old illusions and of how tenaciously intelligent persons may adhere to them, by arguing at great length that slavery was a blessing to the negro, and that since emancipation the negro has depreciated.

Mr. Reed discusses different periods and influences in the evolution of the conflict, in chapters on such subjects as "Root-and-branch Abolitionists and Fire-eaters," Calhoun, Webster, 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' Toombs, and Davis. Webster and Calhoun are, of course, given their usual rôles. If Calhoun did not really love the Union, he at least loved to think he loved it. Some of Mr. Reed's opinions regarding Calhoun seem very extravagant. He is doubtless correct in saying that Calhoun chose the absurd ground of nullification because he foresaw that "secession meant internecine war between the sections"; and, after nullification had been both successful and peaceful, he strove to "exalt peaceful nullification above bloody secession" (p. 125). While he lived, he nominally cherished the Union, and slavery continued mainly on the defensive. Toombs was cast in a totally different mould. To his logical and clear mind, slavery and free labor were obviously mortal enemies, and hatred of the Union was already beginning to burn in his heart when, in June, 1850, he proclaimed in the House, that, unless the Territories should be divided or slavery should be allowed to go into all of them, "I will, if I can, bring my children and my constituents to the altar of liberty [!], and, like Hamilcar, swear them to eternal hostility to your foul dominion." That was typical of the temper of the coming period. So when the South took the aggressive, and, by the Ostend manifesto, prepared to obtain more slave territory abroad, as by the Kansas-Nebraska act more was opened up to her at home, Toombs became, in many respects, the truest representative of the Southern cause.

Mr. Reed, long an intimate acquaintance of Toombs and often his colleague or opponent in court, probably would not accept this characterization, but compares him with Webster as a lawyer, and claims that he was the successor of Calhoun and the great Southern leader for about a decade before the Confederacy was founded; he even argues that if Toombs instead of Davis had been chosen President, the result might have been more favorable. The author's frankness in admitting Toombs's drunkenness, unbridled temper and boasting conceit is characteristic. Undoubtedly, Toombs had rare natural talent, some great qualities as a lawyer, political debater, and Senator. He possessed a few statesmanlike traits. Moreover, his defences of slavery were the most effective, his logic was the most ruthless, his audacity the most daring. He could not imagine himself or his cause being wrong, or that any civilization was equal to one founded on servitude. To reject his demands or to check the growth of slavery was to subject the South to "foul dominion." Until statesmanship shall be defined as the art of precipitating revolution and acting with violent indiscretion, Toombs is not likely to rise above the rank of a powerful but unsuccessful revolutionist. Therefore, that Davis instead of Toombs was chosen for the head of the Confederacy, showed that the Montgomery convention knew its right hand from its left. But Mr. Reed, seeing that Toombs's career inspires less and less respect, has reëxamined and described it in the hope of making it appear that of a true statesman. Our zealous searcher for four-

leafed clover goes so far afield that he entirely loses his bearings, and we are solemnly assured (on evidence that would have convinced Colonel Sellers or Cy Prime) that if Toombs had been President, he would early have rushed cotton to Europe, for which ships could have been obtained, which, in turn would have broken the blockade, etc., etc. (pp. 286-92). "King Cotton"—so soon forgotten! In 1860 and 1861 every Southerner believed that cotton was so absolute and immediate a necessity to Great Britain and France that, long before the blockade could injure the Confederacy, those nations would have to come and break that blockade, or be thrown into commercial panic that would threaten millions with starvation. Late in 1862, after the blockade became effective and the foreign ships came not, the changeful Stephens and other impractical critics discovered that *Davis* had made an awful mistake!

We pass over other erroneous assumptions; some serious, but common, misconceptions about the Abolitionists; many blemishes in style; and here and there some special pleading. There also seems to us to be much more sentiment and jugglery about "equally patriotic," "brothers all," "glad we fought" and "glad we lost," or similar phrases, than is called for by the author's arguments that slavery was the cause of the war, and that slavery was a curse to the white population. But perhaps such a pill would not be taken if there were less sugar-coating. "He and I can agree about everything on earth until we get to our sable population. I do believe," said Toombs of his hard-hitting opponent, Senator Wade; and so, with few exceptions, we can say of Mr. Reed.

Professor Fleming and his 'Civil War and Reconstruction in Alabama' are strikingly different from the author and the book just noticed. Presumably Professor Fleming was not born until after the end of Reconstruction; but, before he came North to study history, he had the advantage of living among the survivors of the periods and events which he describes. His opportunities have therefore been exceptionally good. An older and experienced writer would be expected to use them so as to produce a picturesque, philosophical, scholarly, and unbiassed history, and especially one giving clear representations of all the controlling impulses working in the different races, classes, and conditions of men. So much should not be looked for in a mere beginner; but a professor of history and a Ph.D., who has had such opportunities and presents the results in more than 800 large octavo pages, has serious responsibilities. In any case, two qualities are prerequisites to a large degree of success—scholarly industry and impartiality. Of industry, Professor Fleming has given an exhibition that is truly phenomenal. No possible field of information which he has desired to acquire seems to have been left unexplored.

The scope of his work is far-reaching; it extends to almost every important phase in Alabama life, from about 1860 to the end of Reconstruction. Even an abbreviation of the subjects of leading chapters will show this: Sectional Controversy, Secession, Military and Political Events, Economic and Social Conditions, Social and Economic Disorder, Confiscation and Cotton Tax, Temper of the People, Provisional Administrations, Military Government, Wards of the Nation, Military Government Under the Reconstruction Acts, Campaign of 1867, "Reconstruction" Convention, "Reconstruction" Completed, Union League, Taxation and Public Debt, Railroad Legislation and Frauds, Reconstruction in Schools and Churches, Ku-Klux, Industrial Reorganization, Political and Social Conditions in Reconstruction, The Overthrow of Reconstruction. The subdivisions would still more clearly show that there is here no room for criticism. It is when we come to consider the construction of the narrative that imperfections begin to appear. Many of Professor Fleming's chapters must be called monographic, if not monographs, for they pursue a special subject through a certain period, perhaps several years. Then another subject is taken up, and the same years are gone over again. Each of the monographic chapters is stuffed with superfluous facts and details; and, as most of the subjects are kindred as well as synchronous, the repetitions are innumerable and fatiguing. This method makes it necessary to separate causes and effects when, as is often the case, they lie in different fields. Most of all in a time of wild disorder like that of Reconstruction, when scores of forces are acting and reacting, it is the duty of an historian to keep the results within sight of the causes. Shall he, then, write of all things at once? No. But he should so write of the things that are related as to be able to see and to describe the relationship. How is that possible? It is quite impossible, unless one has what in a figure may be called a good historical digestion—the capacity to transform raw facts into history. Facts and history are almost as different as are a cow's feed and her milk. With such a method as Mr. Fleming has adopted, a fluent narrative is quite impossible. The style seldom either rises much above a respectable commonplace or (what is considerable praise for a work of this abnormal size) falls much below it. Professor Fleming seems to be untrained in the art of expression, or even in the art of arranging facts so that they shall be interesting if not picturesque; but now and then we see evidence that, if he should cultivate a taste for quality and care less for quantity, he might greatly improve.

The author's point of view and the purely intellectual part of his task are of the greatest moment. Olmsted once made some remark to an ante-bellum planter, who answered to this effect: "I don't know, but if it's anything unfriendly to slavery I know it isn't true." That was the state of mind. Slavery had been so violently attacked by all the rest of the world that Southerners felt compelled to defend as much of it as possible, and studiously to conceal, ignore, or misrepresent the rest. A part of the method was continually to say and to believe that no one but a Southerner knew or could learn anything about the South, especially slavery—unless his opinion should be wholly favorable, and then it was conclusive. It became second nature to champion and glorify everything Southern, and the re-echo of this glorification is the tradition that has come down to the present generation. Incredible as it may seem, this tradition is the steel frame of a large part of the structure Professor Fleming has built.

We said that our author had explored every available field where there was information that he desired to acquire. Instinctively feeling that everything Southern was wholly right, he often instinctively avoided or failed to perceive unfavorable evidence. However, sooner or later the inveterate fact-hunter must discover some unwelcome phenomena—*quasi*-evidence or troublesome evidence. During the last four years before the civil war a wild craze for reopening the African slave-trade swept over the South below the border slave States and North Carolina. It was prompted by both economic and political interests, and perfectly illustrates Mr. Reed's theory of the economic interest controlling ideas of morals. With the destruction of slavery the South soon acquired the normal view that the African slave-trade was horrible. Therefore, tradition makes no mention of that midsummer madness. So, when Professor Fleming finds Yancey advocating the repeal of the prohibition of that trade, he is naturally a little puzzled. He consults the recollection of Judge Roger A. Pryor—who disagreed with Yancey at the Montgomery Commercial Convention of 1858—and informs us that "no one understood that there was any desire on the part of Yancey and others to reopen the slave trade." That suffices to do away with the *quasi*-evidence; for the talk of reopening the slave-trade was only Yancey's little subterfuge to split the Democratic party as a means of hastening secession. The late, most amiable Dr. Curry wrote two books largely to demonstrate that the causes of the civil war were wholly matters of constitutional interpretation, and that slavery had nothing to do with it. Subsequently he discovered, to his utter amazement, that the speeches he had made advocating secession gave not the slightest hint of any cause except slavery. If the venerable judge and our author will turn to the reports of that Commercial Convention (24 *DeBow's Review*, 473ff., 579ff.) and, along with the other records, will read the speech by one Roger A. Pryor, then of Virginia, they will learn something important for them to know.

The troublesome evidence conflicting with tradition is eliminated more summarily. After the manner of criminal lawyers, Professor Fleming boldly attempts to throw out such evidence by insisting that the witness is either *non compos* or a disreputable character, and sometimes both. Thus, the non-slaveholder hated the negroes, and consequently dreaded emancipation more than the slaveholders; therefore, they could not honestly have been Unionists. (Don't suggest that it was possible both to fear negro equality and also to believe that Lincoln's administration would not interfere with slavery.) Hence, for secession, directly or indirectly, there was practical unanimity, and all went into the cause. When, as the war advanced, many show signs of opposition, desert, etc., our author so covers them with one or more of several epithets that their criticisms are discredited, and every genuine traditionist will forever consider them outlawed and disreputable. So the traditional perfection of the secessionists and Confederates is demonstrated; and the

presumption of this perfection becomes cumulative as we advance towards reconstruction. The "surrender" meant "quits"; the South expected to forget and forgive, and the best portion (by which understand all) of the population, was in favor of educating the negro, and even giving him the right to vote. (Evidence and details are strangely meagre on these points.) Hence, if the South had been left to herself, peace and prosperity would soon have returned even to Warsaw. All Southern witnesses to the contrary straightway become "scalawags," or worse. Likewise, every Northerner or foreigner found in the South during or after the war, and in disagreement with the perfectionists then or the traditionists now, is *prima facie* both *non compos* and disreputable, first, because only Southerners can understand the negro and the South, and, secondly, because they were opposing and thwarting the only true Reconstruction, which the perfectionists would otherwise have carried out. Gen. Carl Schurz is put down as doubly *non compos*, because, in addition to being a Northerner, he was also of German birth, and doubly disreputable, because, when in the South in 1865, he obtained some of his information from Northern officers stationed there (p. 312). Mr. Godkin, on account of his ante-bellum and post-bellum travels in the South, has heretofore been counted a high authority. But he was not, we are told, above getting his information from loafers on the street corners and in the bar-rooms. Of course every Northerner that settled in Alabama is loathed as a carpet-bagger. Excepting only Gen. Swayne, who is occasionally allowed a few moments of respectability, so that he may testify on the Southern side, we are unable to recall another instance where any one of all the thousands of civil or military officers, teachers, or preachers, of any degree, is not spoken of with something like contempt, on the assumption that he or she (although in many instances engaged in highly Christian and philanthropic work) was an absurd, if not also a base creature. Just the reverse is true of all persons and things our author considers typically Southern. Any Ku-Klux is better than any Northern teacher, missionary, or preacher. A more complete separation of the sheep from the goats, or, rather, the angels from the devils, it would be difficult to find in any 800-page history. And yet there are persons who deny that history is a science! Professor Fleming's method, for scientific precision and efficiency, could hardly be surpassed, even by a guillotine.

Nevertheless, we consider this volume a very important contribution to the history of its period. Several chapters or sections, on account of their subjects, are entirely free from the objectionable features that have been noticed. The best of these is the one about economic and social conditions during the war. Some others are excellent in most respects. Even where the author has been the victim of his own bias, his references and collections of facts, good or bad, are so extensive that this volume will be of immense value *pour servir*.

WILKINS'S MRS. FITZHERBERT.

Mrs. Fitzherbert and George IV. By W. H. Wilkins. Longmans. 1905.

The story of the amours of George IV. and Maria Fitzherbert is interesting if not edifying. At the age of twenty-one, the eldest son of George III. fell very desperately in love with this young widow, six years his senior. She was well born and bred, spotless in reputation, sweet, and equable in temperament, and, according to eighteenth-century canons, beautiful. The sentiments of the Prince were not reciprocated. The lady did her best to escape from her suitor, and this led to the beginning of a series of unusual and dramatic incidents. George was, to put it plainly, a very dreadful person, probably not quite so bad as Thackeray painted him, but certainly not so amiable and virtuous as Mr. Wilkins would have us believe. He could, to be sure, bow better than any man in Europe, and make himself popular with kitchen maids, but alongside of that he was a profligate and drunkard, with a bad heart, a lying tongue, and a deficient sense of honor. The best defence that can be offered for him (one that Mr. Wilkins has not put in) is that he had inherited a strain of his father's lunacy. His lies were often carried to the point of delusion—for instance, his famous one that he had taken part in the battle of Waterloo. This idea, that he had been at Waterloo, became so rooted in his mind that he appealed to Wellington to confirm it, which provoked the Duke's dry retort: "I have heard your Majesty say so before." Such was the man who had fallen very genuinely in love with a lady far too good for him, and who would have none of him.

In despair at his rebuffs, George feigned an attempt to commit suicide. Mrs. Fitzherbert was dragged to his bedside, and, at the sight of the royal blood, nearly fainted. A ring was forced on her hand, and she was declared bound to the Prince. This desperate comedy failed to achieve George's purpose, for Mrs. Fitzherbert, to escape him, now fled to the Continent. Unable to see her, he bombarded her with letters (one of them was of no less than 37 pages), and, under this heavy fire, she began to weaken. Finally she surrendered, but on honorable terms. She consented to marry the Prince. The marriage took place under conditions of the greatest secrecy—of such secrecy, in fact, that it has never been strictly authenticated until the publication of Mr. Wilkins's book. The reason for secrecy was twofold. Under the law as it then stood, George could not contract a marriage without his father's consent, and to ask for it in this case would have been hopeless. Again, under the Act of Settlement, a marriage with a Catholic excluded the Prince so marrying from the succession, and Mrs. Fitzherbert was a Catholic. So the marriage had to be kept secret. It was valid in the eyes of the Church of Rome and of the Church of England, but by the civil law it was invalid, and politically, it was folly.

The apparently wedded life that the Prince now began to lead with this well-known Catholic lady raised a Protestant storm about his ears. Rumors of the marriage got about. George was in financial distress; would the King and Pitt relieve his wants? His friends worked for him in the House of Commons, and, to win the day, Fox rose and declared, on the express authority of the Prince, that there was no foundation for the report that he was married. This is one of the few points at which serious exception may be taken to Mr. Wilkins's statements. He tries to mitigate the circumstances by exaggerating the importance of the letter of the 11th of December, 1785; there may have been later letters that have disappeared, or unrecorded conversations. There can be no reasonable doubt that Fox knew the facts, that he lied deliberately, and that he did so by arrangement with the Prince. It was a great shock to Mrs. Fitzherbert, and Fox she never forgave.

There was a momentary estrangement over this public affront, but with this exception the Prince and Mrs. Fitzherbert lived happily together from 1785 to 1794, mostly at Brighton. In the latter year, without any warning, he suddenly threw her over, having been paid by the King to marry the Princess Caroline of Brunswick. George did not take kindly to his new wife, and was soon back at the feet of his old love, but it was not till 1799 that she reluctantly consented to resume their former relations. Once more they lived together, until the summer of 1809, when the Prince turned definitely away from his amiable and long-suffering wife for younger women, Lady Hertford and later Lady Coningham. During the Regency, and after he ascended the throne as George IV., she rarely met him, and, when she did see him at some social function, treated him with cool disdain. But when, in 1830, he lay on his deathbed at Windsor, she wrote in affectionate and dutiful words to ask that she might soothe his last hours. The letter came too late, but the King had charged the Duke of Wellington that he should be buried with a locket around his neck; and when, after his death, the Duke looked at the locket, he found that it contained a portrait of Mrs. Fitzherbert. William IV. ordered his brother's widow to assume the royal livery and wear mourning, and all the royal family treated her with marked consideration and respect. She survived her husband some years, dying in 1837 at the age of eighty, leaving, apparently, no descendants.

Mr. Wilkins's book is so good that his readers ought to know that the author, who makes no allusion to the fact, had to produce it under conditions of physical disablement so distressing as nearly to disarm the critic, and which have since ended in death. At the same time it is a duty to point out its failings. Firstly, it must be said that Mr. Wilkins, though a conscientious searcher and worker, is here rather an apologist than an historian; he is so anxious that the good points of George IV. shall not escape us, that he finally leaves only a very unsatisfactory outline. Again, he is not a psychologist, and his Mrs. Fitzherbert is little more than a lay figure. The forces that got her into the marriage were evidently very mixed and very subtle; to say that she "loved" the Prince might do for a fairy tale, but is hardly adequate here. Mr. Wilkins rather misses the significance of the religious factor in Mrs. Fitzherbert's life, especially at the crises; these suggest

very decidedly a strong hand behind her; was it the Rev. William Nassau? Another point that is rather obscured is her love of social pleasures; at eighty she was still dining out, at seventy-eight she was thinking of taking singing lessons.

A few slips and mistakes here and there may also be noted. *Plombiers* is given in several places for Plombières. Fox's argument (p. 53) as to the possibility of Mrs. Fitzherbert being Queen is perfectly sound, and does not require the note appended, for, writing as he did before the marriage (unless this was an antedated letter, which Mr. Wilkins does not suggest), he was bound to consider it possible that she might abjure Catholicism and marry as a member of the Church of England. For *style* of Epicurus (p. 108) one would expect sty. In Chapters X. and XI. it would appear that Mr. Wilkins misreads the whole situation; it is safe to assume both the Prince and Fox capable of direct lying, while it is not safe to assume that the date of Fox's letter is genuine. In the matter of the lunacy of George III. (p. 164), it was clearly the object of Pitt to gain time, but the delay caused by the examination of the doctors by the House of Commons proceeded not from Pitt, but from Fox. Willis was more than an "ex-clergyman"; he was also a doctor of medicine. The terms on which the Prince was offered the Regency (p. 167) are not fairly stated; when the bill was in the Commons, Pitt proposed that all restrictions should cease after three years. It was not in August, 1815, that the Princess Caroline left England (p. 331), but in 1814. George Dawson, who married Mrs. Fitzherbert's ward (p. 359), was not the second, but the third son of the Earl of Portarlington.

The Life and Letters of Peter Ilich Tchaikovsky. By Modiste Tchaikovsky. John Lane Co.

A few years ago the Russian publisher Jurgenson issued Modiste Tchaikovsky's Life and Letters of his brother, the famous composer, in three volumes. A German version, by Paul Juon, promptly followed; the first volume of this was reviewed at length in these columns. Juon reduced the three Russian volumes to two in German, and now we have an English version by Rosa Newmarch in one volume. While agreeing with Carlyle that "mankind takes an unspeakable delight in biography," Mrs. Newmarch wisely recognized the necessity of further condensation; and so, in place of the 2,000 pages of the original edition, we have 782 of the English version. This is probably quite as much as even the most ardent admirers of the great Russian will care to read about him when they purchase this volume. After perusal, to be sure, many of them will wish there was more, for a book of more absorbing human as well as artistic interest has seldom been written.

In the earlier chapters there is a considerable amount of biographic narrative; but, as the volume progresses, nearly the whole story is told in the letters of Tchaikovsky, of which there were about 3,000 to choose from, and which are often as *intimes* and unreserved as Wagner's letters to Liszt and to Frau Wesendonck. This is true, especially, of those addressed to his benefactress, Frau von Meck, who, in granting him a liberal annuity on the understanding that they were never to meet personally, was in all probability actuated in part by the desire thus to draw him out in his letters. He is constantly answering her questions regarding his plans, his method of work, his opinions on music and musicians; and thus the world owes her a large debt of gratitude. For thirteen years their correspondence lasted. Then, like a bolt from the sky, came her announcement that she could no longer pay him the 6,000 rubles yearly, because of her pecuniary embarrassment. "Do not forget," she added, "and think of me sometimes." What hurt Tchaikovsky most was the implication of these words that he would now cease writing to her. "I may say without exaggeration that you saved me," he replied. "I should certainly have gone out of my mind and come to an untimely end but for your friendship and sympathy, as well as for the material assistance (then my safety anchor) which enabled me to rally my forces and take up once more my chosen vocation." To his great distress, Mme. von Meck never replied. Her financial difficulties blew over, and the composer concluded that she had simply wanted to get rid of him. As a matter of fact, her strange conduct was the consequence of a terrible nervous disease, to which she succumbed a few months after Tchaikovsky's death.

Thanks to the success of two of his operas, "Eugene Onegin" and "Pique Dame," the composer was not in the least incommoded by the loss of his annuity; but it was only three years before his end that he thus secured financial independence. Russian music lovers had been slow to acknowledge his genius, and foreigners slower still, with the exception of Hans von Bülow and a few other leaders of thought. It seemed like the irony of fate that success should come to him principally through his operas, for he rather looked down on the opera and felt that he was not at his best in this field. But it was only in Russia that his operas became popular; elsewhere they failed, for the same reason as Rubinstein's: both these Russians disliked Wagner and refused to learn from him. Tchaikovsky had little use for Wagner after "Lohengrin." "The Nibelung's Ring" at Bayreuth and "Tristan" in Berlin bored him—almost as much as Brahms bored him. Nor did he care for Bach or Beethoven; his sympathies were narrow; Mozart was his idol, and he admired his French contemporaries. He felt uneasy about his own works. "I have not attained to the rank of a master," he wrote four years before his death.

Such utterances, to be sure, were largely inspired by his moods, which were as variable and as extreme as Wagner's. Emotionalism is the keynote of his letters, as of his musical works. "To make the fair sex faint is the highest triumph to which any composer can attain," was one of his mottoes. "An hour ago I was in the millet field which lies beyond the garden, and so great was my ecstasy that I fell upon my knees and thanked God for the profound joy I experienced." Paintings used to bore him; but the time came when he could write: "To-day I went on foot to the Vatican and sat a long while in the Sistine Chapel. Here a miracle was worked. I felt—almost for the first time in my life—an artistic ecstasy for painting." Massenet's oratorio, "Mary Magdalen," moved him deeply. "I was so touched by the emotionalism of the music in which Massenet has reflected the eternal compassion of Christ that I shed many tears. Wonderful tears!" And, to give only one more sample, from the same letter:

"I took up 'Les Travailleurs de la Mer'; I read, and read, and grew more and more irritated by his grimaces and buffoonery. Finally, after a whole series of short, unmeaning phrases, consisting of exclamations, antitheses, and asterisks, I lost my temper, spat upon the book, tore it to pieces, stamped upon it, and wound up by throwing it out of the window. From that moment I cannot bear the mention of Victor Hugo!"

Memoirs of Archbishop Temple. By Seven Friends. Edited by E. G. Sandford, Archdeacon of Exeter. With photogravures and other illustrations. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1906.

These volumes set forth in full detail a career far more familiar to Englishmen than to Americans. Born in the Ionian Islands in 1821 and educated at Oxford, Dr. Temple was a fellow and tutor of Balliol 1842-48, was employed in the Education Office 1848-57, became headmaster of Rugby 1857, Bishop of Exeter 1869, Bishop of London 1885, Archbishop of Canterbury 1896, and died in 1902. In all these posts his ability, activity, and success were notable. His official acts, etc., arrayed in order by several of his associates, and largely supplemented by the editor, fill near 1,400 octavo pages. This wilderness of facts can hardly create in Americans an interest hitherto lacking, if one may judge by the few dry lines vouchsafed to Dr. Temple in our books of reference; yet the man was worth remembering. Works of edification, however valuable, offer to history matter less attractive than ideas; and Temple, though mainly a worker, has his place as a widener of the British mental horizon, if not as a reformer of religious thought. The salient feature of his record is his connection with 'Essays and Reviews' (1860), and what came thereof. That episode brought on him a deal of trouble, and most of his friends regarded it as the blot on his scutcheon.

The essay on "The Education of the World" seems obvious and harmless now, but it stood first in a book which excited general horror, and was itself, though not directly theological, tinctured with the odious spirit of free inquiry. Eminent divines and pious mothers, then and long after, were shocked by the idea that pagan Greeks and Romans, as well as Hebrews, had an allotted part in educating the world. Temple told his Sixth Form that he thought the publication of the book was right, since "it contains opinions that had long been lurking in corners: it was time they were dragged to light and faced. We, the essayists, knew who was going to write, but not what each was going to write about." He said he disagreed with some things in the book, and had done his part of it before he thought of coming to Rugby; "to have written in that book as headmaster of Rugby would have been a blunder." One of the boys wrote to his alarmed parent: "Tem-

ple's all right; but if he turns Mahometan, all the school will turn too."

The tocsin rang with increased fury when he was named for Exeter. Dr. Pusey protested against "the horrible scandal of the recommendation of the editor of the 'Essays and Reviews' to be a Christian bishop." He was not the editor, and the book had plainly stated that each writer was responsible for his own work only; but at least he was in such bad company as Jowett, Pattison, and Baden Powell. He refused to make any public explanation or defence.

As a prelate he lived down obloquy and opposition, made friends of foes, and was regarded as a conservative and a strict disciplinarian. Any seeming opposition between the two parts of his career is easily explicable. He was no trimmer, but a very manly Englishman—"granite on fire." As schoolmaster he was a Gladstonian; as bishop he abstained from politics in Church or State. His views and principles never changed materially; first and last he held to the right of private judgment. But he was a practical man as well as a thinker and scholar, and saw that high office imposes duties and restraints, and this from a larger view than that of mere personal prudence. The impression he made was that of principle and character, and those nearest him honored and loved him deeply.

One lack he had, curious in so successful a career—that of affability, surface geniality. Not that he was "a delightful man with his friends, but shy with strangers"; but that strangers and friends alike were liable to find him curt, blunt, even sharp. He did not suffer fools gladly; like Mr. Bailey of Texas, he had not the gift of being pleasant under all circumstances. To a disgruntled parson who taxed him with rough and unsympathetic harshness he confessed with deep humility that he had prayed and striven in vain to cure the fault. In vain it was; but some of the samples of his manner are less painful at long range than they probably were to the first auditors. Thus, to one asking if he believed in Providential interference: "That depends on what you mean by it." "Well, my aunt was suddenly prevented from going a voyage in a ship that went down. Would you call that a case of Providential interference?" "Can't tell: didn't know your aunt." And to a vicar pointing to a dissenting chapel and saying, "That is where all the people go, my Lord": "WHY?" At worst, the scholboy's verdict may stand: "Temple is a beast but he is a just beast." His boys, after their first term, and the British public in later years, forgave the beast and respected the justness.

International Law as Interpreted during the Russo-Japanese War. By F. E. Smith and N. W. Sibley. The Boston Book Co. 1905.

This volume is designed to give an account of the international questions raised by the Japanese war in such a way as to enforce the conclusion that Russia showed throughout the war very little respect for the rights of neutrals. "The undiscriminating comprehensiveness of her list of contraband articles, her repudiation of the distinction between conditional and unconditional contraband, her claim to destroy neutral vessels upon provocation so extremely slight, and finally her bold contention as to the status of the volunteer cruisers," are given as instances to be contrasted with the behavior of Japan—so entirely civilized and legal (except in the cutting out of the *Rishitelni* from the neutral harbor of Chifu) from beginning to end of the conflict. This is perfectly true. Nothing was more remarkable from the first than the fact (conspicuous in all the diplomatic correspondence and public acts of the Japanese Government) that Japan had taken the Law of Nations of Grotius and Wheaton as a living guide, while Russia had failed wholly to grasp the fundamental modern notion that belligerent rights, as against neutrals, are substantially only such as arise *ex necessitate*, and not such as belligerents may be ready to claim. In saying this, it is, of course, to be admitted that there was a great disregard, on both sides, of the territorial rights of China and Korea, but this was in large measure because those States were not actually regarded or feared as equals. The International Law even of the most highly civilized nations has not yet become hospitable or "correct" enough to include within the "family of nations" members of that family who do not vigorously defend themselves against fraternal aggression.

We are inclined, however, to think that the great contribution of the war to International Law is not the mere fact that Russia made an extreme attempt to advance belligerent rights (in which she was pretty uniformly unsuccessful), or even that Japan gave to the world the wonderful spectacle of an Oriental nation at war, just emerged from the pre-scientific Asiatic night, exhibiting the very devotion to law and civilization in which its enemy (the armed champion of universal peace) was entirely deficient. The event of the war which seems to us most likely to be significant in future, and to tell most as a precedent, was the formation of the Court of Inquiry, under The Hague Convention, into the dispute which arose between England and Russia over the attack by the Russian fleet in the North Sea on the trawlers. This was not a court of arbitration, but a court to inquire into and settle facts. As the authors point out, it is at this point that International Law has been hitherto remarkably weak. When a dispute arises between nations, each side puts forward its own version of the facts; hitherto no machinery has existed for the ascertainment of facts by an impartial tribunal. The consequence is that when, in the heat and stress of a great war, a neutral complains of an outrage by a belligerent, each side puts forward and insists on its own version of the facts. Before The Hague Convention, an impartial international inquest was indeed possible, through a special arrangement with this end in view, but lamentably unlikely to be resorted to. The Hague Convention puts such an inquiry among the natural and simple means of settlement, and this first use of it is a novel and memorable historical precedent.

The book discusses all the questions which arose during the war and a great many more, but can hardly be regarded as a work of authority, as it is hastily and loosely written. The chapter on Espionage and Wireless Telegraphy, for instance, presents, to our mind, no clear case for consideration. Chapter VI., on the case of the *Hatsuse* (blown up by a mine ten miles from land), contains no new light on the subject of mines and balloons in war; the discussion is discursive and hypothetical. The book has a long chapter on international arbitration, which gives "some account of recent international arbitrations." A little more than a page is devoted to the *Alabama* arbitration; this is so condensed as to be valueless.

Mount Desert: A History. By George E. Street. Edited by Samuel A. Eliot, with a memorial introduction by Wilbert L. Anderson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905. Pp. xv., 361.

The three-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of Mount Desert was celebrated in September, 1904. Dr. Street intended to publish, in time for this celebration, an arrangement of numerous historical notes and papers that he had long been gathering, but his illness and death intervened. These, so edited as to be a continuous story, now constitute the present volume, issued as a memorial of Dr. Street. It is of specific value as a local history, but it includes much that is beyond the range of its title. In 1604, Champlain found and named the island, and in 1618 some Jesuits attempted to establish a colony at the entrance of what is known as Somes Sound. The colony was destroyed by English enemies of France almost as soon as it was begun. These incidents gave occasion to the historian to elaborate, through the first part of the volume, a description of the romantic and tragic adventures of French voyageurs on the American northeast coasts during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Most of this interesting and instructive detail is irrelevant here. Also, the discussion (pp. 46-50) of the career and character of Sir Samuel Argall, who destroyed the Saint Sauveur colony, would more fittingly find place elsewhere.

The history of Mount Desert, connecting past and present in a continuous sequence of events, begins properly with the happenings that make up the fourth chapter on "The Tory and Refugee Proprietors." After the dispersion of the Jesuit colonists there is a blank in the records for about a hundred and fifty years. But then, with the close of the conflict between France and England over the possession of northeastern America, large migrations eastward of adventurers from the older settlements of New England took place. From that time, the mountain-island of Maine was occupied by permanent settlers, and the development of the communities now there begun. The annals of "The Mount Desert Plantation" for the next hundred years tell of a sturdy, plain, frugal folk whose life was subjected to the most cramping and barren hardships in their struggle with an ungenerous environment. It is a memorable story, sympathetically, graphically told. The incident at Norwood's Cove in 1814, when some of the islanders defended their property successfully against the attacks of a British warship, possesses more than a merely local interest.

Within the last forty years Mount Desert has attracted wide-spread interest, and, in some relations, has become a place of national importance. Dr. Street's history acquires a distinctive character among New England local histories from its chapter on "The Summer Colonies." Here is an important record of the beginnings and growth of the island's modern era, from the years when "its beautiful scenery and refreshing air" and simple, unconventional ways of living drew to it "a few artists and seaside loungers," to the present day, when "the whole social life and atmosphere have been transformed" by the presence of hundreds of families from afar, resident in luxurious homes, and hosts of tourists, who bring with them the conventional fashions and some of the follies of metropolitan centres.

The copious "Bibliographical Notes" exhibit the many guide-books and historical sketches, much verse, voluminous art works and scientific studies that have been published regarding Mount Desert. Thirty-three pictures, illustrating the history and scenery of the island, ornament the volume.

With Walt Whitman in Camden. By Horace Traubel. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1906.

This is yet another of those merciless books by which the immediate circle of Whitman's personal friends have done what they could to check his widening fame. In this case the remorselessness is peculiarly thorough, since it finds itself justified by Whitman's own words, taken as a motto and given in large type: "Be sure to write about me honest: whatever you do, do not prettify me: include all the hells and damns." It does not appear in what temporary mood of illness or depression this candid counsel may have been given, but there is no doubt that the instruction is well fulfilled in this book. All the familiar group of intimate friends take a part in the effort, and they show themselves ready for constant reproduction even of the coarsest words.

With this appears, also, on Whitman's part, a constant attitude of superiority to the world's people. The New York literary men, or those whom the world knows as such, come in for habitual contempt. "They are mainly a sad crowd," Whitman says; "take the whole raft of them—Stoddard, Fawcett, the rest—what are they saying or doing that is in the least degree significant?" (p. 55). "Stedman is cute, but hardly more than cute" (p. 56). "The New York crowd of scrawlers" they are elsewhere called (p. 61). The Bostonians fare even less well. "There was a time," Whitman says, "when New England culture made me sick, mad, rebellious" (p. 392). "Whittier," he reports, "started to read the 'Leaves,' and when he came to what are called the indelicate passages threw the book into the fire" (p. 127). Of Hawthorne he says condescendingly that he "was a man of talent, even genius. . . . Still, I think he is monotonous, he wears me out; I do not read him with pleasure." Moreover, he speaks of "Hawthorne, in whom there is a morbid streak to which I can never accommodate myself. I call this thing in modern literature delirium tremens" (p. 111). The only man whom Whitman praises cordially and manfully is Emerson, of whom he always speaks with a certain reverence, even while strangely convincing himself that Emerson's objections to what Whitman calls "the outcast passages" in 'Leaves of Grass' were "neither moral nor literary, but were," as he says, "given with an eye to my worldly success" (p. 50). To those who recall the frankness with which Emerson at that very time used to express himself on what he called the "priapism" of the book, this remark will seem curiously incongruous.

The greater part of this thick volume is taken up with familiar gossip and letters, bearing less upon Whitman himself than on the intimate circle of rather second-rate men who clung close to him at all times and gave him good-night kisses (pp. 116, 147, 296, 304, 337). There are many portraits of these admirers; and yet, though the book itself is well arranged and beautifully printed, it leaves the reader in a somewhat dreary wonder whether it faithfully records even the declining and enfeebled years of the poet who once wrote "Captain, my Captain" and "Joy, shipmate, joy."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balfour, Arthur James. Fiscal Reform Speeches. Longmans. $1.25 net.
Converted Catholic, The. Edited by James A. O'Connor. Vol. XXII. James A. O'Connor.
Fowles, George Milton. Down in Porto Rico. Eaton & Mains. 75 cents net.
Harrison, Jane Ellen. Primitive Athens as described by Thucydides. Macmillan Co.
Ivins, William M. The Soul of the People: A New Year's Sermon. The Century Co.
Leage, R. W. Roman Private Law. Macmillan Co.
Mark Twain's Library of Humor. Women and Things. Harpers. $1.50.
Powell, Mary Elizabeth. The Dying Musician. Boston: Richard G. Badger.

New Books

Beebe's THE BIRD: Its Form and Function
BY C. WILLIAM BEEBE, Author of "Two Bird Lovers in Mexico." (Ready in May.)

Cabot's EVERY DAY ETHICS
BY ELLA LYMAN CABOT. (Ready in June.)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 3, 1906.

The Week.

Representative John Sharp Williams has so many times shown himself a master of the tariff question that it was no surprise to see him rise and rend the Republicans in the House on Friday. In addition to a thorough grounding in economic principle, Mr. Williams has a large practical knowledge, which makes him a peculiarly ugly customer for the standpatters to wake up. Moreover, he has the fine consistency which leads him to denounce tariff plunder even when it seems to be flowing towards his own pocket. Hence the discomfiture of those who sought to trap him by asking him if he, himself a cotton planter, was not in favor of a protective tariff on his own product. "Why should I want to rob carpenters and bricklayers and blacksmiths," asked Mr. Williams, "by making them pay an artificial price for my cotton?" This is a much stronger position than that taken by Senator Tillman when he admitted that the tariff was but so much stealing, but declared that, so long as it was going on, he was bound to get South Carolina's share of the booty. Mr. Williams, too, fairly left the Republicans terror-stricken when he asked what they would do with the tariff-revision message which the President was sure to send in before a twelvemonth had passed.

The Constitutional doubt about remitting duties on building materials for San Francisco will not bear examination. The proposition is simply to exempt from duty certain goods imported for certain specified purposes. Such exceptions have been frequent. In fact, they exist to-day under the Dingley law, which grants to institutions of learning, for instance, the free importation of certain classes of books upon which others are required to pay a burdensome duty. Works of art, too, may be imported free of duty for public galleries. A rebate of duty is allowed on raw materials when the manufactured articles into which they are wrought are exported for sale abroad. In all these cases, Congress has assumed the right under the Constitution to allow the free importation for specified purposes of certain articles otherwise dutiable. The exception has been based upon the ground that some public interest would thereby be promoted, though in every case the immediate gain falls to comparatively few. No exercise of the supposed right by Congress has ever encountered an adverse decision of the courts. Republicans who have sustained the hitherto unprecedented breadth of interpretation put upon the Constitution under the McKinley and Roosevelt Administrations will merely excite derision by pleading Constitutional scruples against this sorely needed and readily available means of succoring the fallen city.

Ex-Mayor Phelan's reported proposal to the San Francisco municipal finance committee, that the Federal Government be asked to endorse a loan to be raised by that city, will very probably go no further than suggestion; but it would raise some interesting questions. Mr. Phelan is quoted as saying that for such endorsement precedent exists in the loan of the United States to the Pacific railways during the sixties, and, more recently, in its railway loan to the Philippines. What will occur to the practical reader, however, is not only that circumstances were so peculiar in both these cases as to provide no real precedent, but that the nature of the Government aid differed radically from that now suggested in the case of San Francisco. If the Union Pacific had defaulted outright on its interest due the Government, the United States possessed the right of foreclosure. If the Philippine railway concessionaires were to fall back on the Philippine Commission for its guarantee of interest on their bonds, a similar lien would exist. Even in the case of the bonds issued by the United States last March to help the construction of public works in the Philippines, it was stipulated that we should possess a lien on the lands bought from the Philippine religious orders. The railways and the lands were at least rational security for the Federal Government to deal with; but it is somewhat difficult to imagine the Federal Government foreclosing on the San Francisco public-utility systems and the city hall.

Although relief in the shape of tariff reduction has been withheld from the Philippines, the present Congress has granted one boon to the unhappy islands. It has just postponed until April 11, 1909, the application of the coastwise shipping laws to trade between our ports and the Philippines. Otherwise, American bottoms would have been granted a monopoly of this carrying trade after July 1 of this year. Just how much higher freight rates this restriction would have brought about is very naturally disputed—the Philippine Commission says 50 per cent.; but there is no doubt that it would raise very materially the cost of bringing to this country the Philippine products, which already have to pay 75 per cent. of the Dingley tariff rates. The Philippines, of course, are foreign territory whenever it is to the interest of the sugar or tobacco men to have them so, but for the purpose of benefiting ship-owners they were to be made domestic territory. Nevertheless, there has been a singular reluctance to apply these coastwise laws. The Philippine act of 1902 put off their application till 1904. Then, a few months before the expiration of the period thus set, Senator Lodge's Philippine Committee brought in a bill exempting the inter-island trade entirely, but leaving the date as it was. On the floor of the Senate, the bill was amended to make 1905 the date for the shipping monopoly. The House made it July 1, 1906, and in that form it was passed. There were then two years and three months in which shipbuilders and shipowners might get ready for the new traffic which Congress had delivered into their hands. The sponsors of the bill in both houses of Congress ridiculed the idea that there would not be enough and more than enough tonnage by 1906 to carry every pound of hemp or other products the Filipinos could dream of producing.

And what has been the result? Here is a colloquy that occurred on the floor of the House two weeks ago:

> "Mr. Stafford—I would like to ask the gentleman whether . . . there has been any extension in the shipping interests in view of giving to the American-made vessels a monopoly of the Philippine tariff?
>
> "Mr. Crumpacker—I think there has been none at all.
>
> "Mr. Stafford—Then I would like to ask the gentleman whether he thinks that by postponing for three years, until April 11, 1909, there will be any additional American ships built by reason of that prospective monopoly we were going to create for the Philippine trade?
>
> "Mr. Crumpacker—I hardly know how to answer that question, because any answer I could make would be purely conjectural. I believe this, that in the meantime we will probably abolish the custom duties upon Philippine products, and if we had free trade now with the islands, they could probably get along if the coastwise laws applied to their shipping."

There is the policy expressed in one sentence. We were to relieve the distress of the Philippines by removing the tariff, and then compel them to pay over part of their gain to the American ship-owners. Give their industries a chance to get on their feet, and they at once become fair game for another set of selfish interests. All but a very few men in Congress, however, stopped short at demanding that this tribute be demanded from the Philippines at the same time that we refuse them the means for paying it by marketing their products.

Following the Senate's careful and in-

telligent scrutiny of the Indian Appropriation bill, the Indian Rights Association is now asking Congress to avert what is called "a menace to the reindeer industry" of Alaska. Here are two illustrations of the changed attitude of the public toward the native Americans. Ten years ago the pamphlet issued by the Association to call attention to the danger of transferring the control of some 13,000 head of reindeer from the United States Bureau of Education to the Governor's office, would have been regarded as about as important as the minutes of a tatting club. But now the protest is taken seriously. It is to be classed with such questions of morals as the continuance of prohibition in Indian Territory, the provision of home work for reservation dwellers who have farms and families, the investigation of forest-reserve operations on Indian lands in the Northwest, and the Government's solicitude as to the "square deal" on the part of the agent to the Umatillas in Oregon. It is worth while to consider the case of the native Alaskans. They seem to be amenable to the law without enjoying the law's protection. They are discriminated against in the schools, and now it is feared that if the control of the fifteen reindeer herds that were started in 1892 to provide for the self-support of the natives is placed in the Governor's hands, the old tale of the Indian spoilers will be repeated.

Secretary Bonaparte explains to his fellow-members of the National Municipal League that the Government service is kept in a state of comparative inefficiency because of our insistence upon the theory that "all men of right ought to be, and therefore should be made and kept, precisely equal." In other words, we refuse to admit that an Elihu Root can be more valuable to the country than a Cortelyou, or a Taft more indispensable than a Metcalf. The Government bestows the title of "secretary" upon nine citizens of the United States, chosen from every part of the country, and pays each of them $8,000 a year. It regards a colonel as a colonel, worth at the best $4,500 a year, while it is notorious that a score of banking houses in New York will gladly pay ten times as much for the services of a "captain," or even an efficient "lieutenant," of industry. Of course, no one imagines that a responsible civil officer of the Government thinks himself properly paid; he must inevitably count upon the advertising value of his office in reference to future private employment. Our cities, lacking this power of bestowing prestige upon their servants, pay far higher salaries than are paid at Washington. While Secretary Taft, for example, must go on directing both the army and the Panama Canal for $8,000 a year, New York's superintendent of schools convinces the Board of Education that his pay should be increased from $8,000 to $10,000 a year.

To the annoyance of many citizens of the West, Secretary Hitchcock keeps pegging away at the land frauds. Information laid before the Federal Grand Jury at Sioux Falls, S. D., a few days ago, tending to implicate C. I. Crawford, a "reform" candidate for Governor, has drawn from that gentleman a curious and spirited comment. In effect, he declares that the filing of charges against him is a deep conspiracy between the Republican machine of South Dakota and the Government at Washington to ruin his career. But the ordinary observer of Mr. Hitchcock's activity in the past two years will doubt Mr. Crawford's statement, in so far as it implies that an innocent man is being "persecuted." Nobody believes that Senator Mitchell and Representatives Hermann and Williamson were made victims of an ambitious State machine; the Rev. Mr. Ware of the Black Hills had no vindictive political enemies; John Q. Anderson, a Republican Presidential elector in 1904, who is under indictment in Sioux Falls, had no quarrel with his party organization; Royal B. Stearns of Fort Pierre is under an eighteen months' sentence, in spite of his prominence; and the State organization did not prevent the indictment of Thomas H. Ayres, a former private secretary of ex-Gov. Lee. Mr. Crawford has yet to learn what the people of Nebraska, Kansas, and Oregon have had impressed upon them, that the moral "spasm" suffered by the Interior Department at Washington is really something chronic.

The effect of Secretary Root's assumption of control over the Department of State has already become apparent in a number of ways. The executive order of last November required an examination for new appointees to all posts in the consular service above as well as below $2,500 per year. At the same time, consuls were informed that a system of efficiency records had been instituted whereby they were to be rated according to the value of their commercial reports and their display of ability in the performance of other duties, with a view to consideration in connection with the opportunities for promotion. Those who are in the service know that this matter is being taken seriously in the Department, witness numberless little evidences in dispatches, circulars, etc. One result has been that consuls of long standing who have hitherto done little or nothing in the way of making commercial reports (men who knew to what influence they owed their appointment, and who have felt secure in paying no attention to the making of reports or even to the study of commercial conditions in their districts), are suddenly displaying some activity in this matter. All the consuls have noted, too, that circulars, customs rulings, etc., are sent out from Washington regularly as they appear, and not weeks after; that circulars are fewer and more carefully drawn, and do not so often contradict or else correct their predecessors; that accounts are passed upon promptly, instead of only after weeks, or even months. In these and other ways they note that some of the dry-rot is being shaken out of the old State Department by an organizer's hand. Consuls who have kept their records and performed their duties carefully, and have tried to promote their country's interests in their districts, now fairly expect that the Department will somehow, sometime, discover these facts. They also hope that the new inspecting agents whom the Department will employ to this end, will know enough to see such things when they do inspect, and will not merely perform their duties in a perfunctory way, or treat their supervisory functions as an opportunity to display to the consular service or to people abroad their own magnificence.

Harry H. Bender, State Fiscal Supervisor of Charities, must submit to an investigation by the Civil Service Commission. The case in brief is this: Bender, whom 'twere gross flattery to call a cheap politician, tried in 1904 to have a campaign contribution collected from one of his subordinates. The man refused, and was dropped from office. Then the New York Civil Service Reform Association filed charges against Bender, and the Commission started to investigate. But Bender, who knew that he had flagrantly violated the law, has resorted to every legal quibble and trick in order to escape from the clutches of the Commission. His efforts, however, have been vain, for the Court of Appeals has finally decided that the Commission has jurisdiction. This evasion and delay would have been impossible had Governor Higgins possessed courage enough to discipline Bender; but Higgins, as usual, has been afraid of Bender's powerful friends. The Civil Service Commission can, we believe, be trusted to push this case to the bitter end. Whether the result will be the removal of Bender, is doubtful. That he richly deserves to be kicked out of an office which he disgraces, no one can deny.

We read with pain that the deadly millionaire is being warmed and nourished in the very bosom of the national capital. Congressman Gillett of the subcommittee on appropriations for the District of Columbia tells us that Washington has become a veritable paradise for

tax-dodgers. The tax-rate is fixed by law arbitrarily at $15 the thousand, and the valuations at 66 per cent. of market prices. But the personal tax amounts to practically nothing at all. Household effects above a certain value are taxed, it is true, but stocks, bonds, and other securities are allowed to escape altogether. The national Government pays half of the cost of local administration. This is a standing invitation to persons of great wealth to flock to Washington, with their resources in tin boxes, which the assessors cannot lawfully invade. This looks bad for Congressmen on the way to face their constituents, and it also has a serious aspect for President Roosevelt. Just as he is maturing his plans for drawing the fangs of the golden serpent, wealth lifts an immune head under the very shadow of the White House.

Next to its opposition to the Chamberlain fiscal programme, the strongest appeal which the Liberal party was able to make to the so-called "City" interests was a promise to set the public finances in order. The Tory Government had not handled them successfully. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach brought a trained experience to the task of financing the Boer war itself, but it is now quite generally agreed that he tried too many experiments. At one time he would issue a war loan distinct in form from outstanding consols; at another he would issue consols with a prior allotment to foreign banking syndicates; then both plans would be suddenly abandoned, and the old practice of selling consols direct to the public be resumed. The effect was to upset the market for British Government securities more than was necessary, and to force the Exchequer constantly into short-term, piecemeal borrowings when it felt doubtful about trusting the money market for subscription at satisfactory prices to a new consolidated loan. Mr. Ritchie, who succeeded Sir Michael Hicks-Beach in 1902, was driven to drawing on the sinking-fund; his successor, Mr. Austen Chamberlain, resorted, two years after the war was over, to an increase of one penny in the pound in the income tax. With all this, the Government's floating debt—"exchequer bonds" running three to five years, and "treasury bills" for still shorter periods—continued in such unwieldy volume that, as against the $40,000,000 of 1899, before the Boer war, its present total is $278,750,000.

Mr. Asquith, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, declares his purpose to stop this heaping-up of unclassed debt. The most serious charge against the late Tory Government's financial policy was that of unthrift in constantly adding to this floating debt to provide for its naval and military construction. Mr. Asquith correctly pointed out, in his budget speech on Monday, that the mere existence of so huge an indebtedness of the sort was a burden to trade and financial enterprise; for the reason that, whereas the general investing public takes an issue of consols, these short-term bonds and Government notes have to be cared for by the banks, where they absorb the capital which should remain at the money market's service. Pursuance of expensive public policies on the basis of casual borrowing of this sort is a most demoralizing practice. Under it a government slips from one outlay to another, without ever being brought to the reckoning which a large public loan, with its measuring of the public credit, must involve. Mr. Asquith announces that the main expedient towards rectifying this evil should be rigid economy; the $17,300,000 surplus of the fiscal year ending with March is chiefly devoted to reducing or repealing some of the Tory Government's import taxes. The budget speech was on the whole a distinct pledge that the free-handed committing to extravagant undertakings will not, under this Ministry, be encouraged.

The Trade Disputes bill, which exempts trade-union funds from legal attachment, has passed second reading in the Commons without opposition. Mr. Balfour gave notice that the matter would be threshed out in committee. The unchecked course of this flagrant bit of class legislation in Parliament is almost equally discreditable to Government and Opposition. If it is deplorable to see a Liberal Ministry in abject surrender to a group of Laborite members, it is no less unfortunate to find a compact and ably led Opposition silent on a bill of capital importance. Except for a rather futile hour of heckling the Ministry for changing its mind over night, the Unionist leaders have let the bill alone. The matter of principle and fair play, which is obviously all-important, has been thoroughly discussed only by the Attorney-General, whose argument the Government straightway repudiated. It is clear that Mr. Chamberlain has reasons for not attacking this vicious act. He is groping about for a future composite majority that is to include the Laborites. Mr. Balfour, however, is not struck dumb by solicitude for his future prospects. What would his political godfather, the late Lord Salisbury, have said to waiving an issue of principle on a bill of revolutionary tendency, and making up by haggling over details in the committee stage? The impotence of the Unionists on an issue peculiarly their own shows how far the disintegration of the historic parties has gone. Gladstone and Disraeli, should their shades return to Westminster, would feel equally out of place to right or to left of the Speaker.

Very interesting is Lord Cromer's suggestion, in his latest blue-book, for a radical change in the legislative control of Egypt. The British protectorate is still conducted under the old "Capitulations," which require the unanimous consent of the European concert for any change in Egyptian law. Justified when Egypt was actually an international concern, the protocol is only an embarrassment now. It gives large obstructive powers to nations that have no real interest in the administration of Egypt. Practically, the European concert does nothing helpful in the premises; potentially, one disaffected nation might make a great deal of trouble. Lord Cromer's proposal is for a permanent council, which, representing the signatory Powers, will actually supervise the making of Egyptian law. In this way the principle of internationalism will be not only preserved, but made more effectual. The proposal is accompanied by a clear and convincing statement of England's duty as a trustee for civilization—a profession that gains all credit from the facts of Lord Cromer's administration. Since the Anglo-French agreement contained an express disavowal of the especial claims of France in Egypt, and no other nation except England has just standing-ground there, the way seems easy to such a readjustment of the Capitulations as is outlined above.

The Sinai peninsula is perhaps less worth a quarrel than any equal area on the globe, and one need expect no serious results from the friction between Turkey and Egypt regarding the possession of Akabah. This fort is on the pilgrim route to Mecca. For nearly seventy years the Khedive occupied it in the interest of the Egyptian pilgrims, and the garrison was withdrawn only after the land route had been practically abandoned. For a matter of fourteen years the boundary between Egypt and Syria has remained in dispute, and the Turks have made advances towards what is regarded as Egyptian territory. Primarily a problem in cartography, the Turkish garrisons have practically made the border dispute unpleasant for Egyptian travellers. Egypt has now demanded that the Turkish garrisons be withdrawn from the debatable region and the *status quo* restored. Earl Grey's statement that the Egyptian contingent is being increased at Lord Cromer's request, shows that the British Government stands ready to support the Khedive's contention. The matter is intrinsically of little importance, but requires settlement, because it affords an opportunity for schemers at Constantinople to keep up a slight irritation between the Sublime Porte and Downing Street. Such an exchange of pin-pricks is no unwelcome spectacle, perhaps, in certain non-Muslim capitals of Europe.

OUR INHUMAN TARIFF.

It was not logic but the appeals of starving men which gave England free trade. The failure of the potato crop of Ireland in 1845 did what Cobden's speeches and Bright's eloquence had not been able to accomplish. It compelled Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington—that Iron Duke whom Cobden reminded that, despite all his victories, he had "never yet entered into a contest with Englishmen in which he was not beaten"—to repeal the Corn laws. Privilege and party and an historic policy had all to go by the board when humanity asserted itself against them. There might be various alleviations of Irish distress, the Prime Minister wrote, but "the only effectual remedy is the removal of impediments to import."

Protection in this country is now facing a similar crisis. Devastated San Francisco is looking about for the material wherewith to rebuild, and finds the tariff prepared to exact the uttermost farthing from her even in her extremity. She needs lumber, and the vast stores of British Columbia are ready to pour in upon her, but the Dingley tariff thrusts itself between and says: "First pay the extra $2 a thousand." San Francisco needs steel and iron beams and girders, to make sure that the future city shall be so far as possible earthquake-proof; but the dead hand of protection first demands its payment of ½ cent a pound. Cement will be required in great quantities, but before San Francisco can get a barrel of it, the tariff tribute must be paid of "eight cents per one hundred pounds, including weight of barrel or package." In these and other ways does the tariff Apollyon straddle the path along which San Francisco would walk to recovery.

The resulting sense of inhumanity is plainly fluttering the dovecotes of the standpatters at Washington. The protected interests are preparing to make a grudging concession to the humane instincts. The steel men and the lumber men and the cement men are willing to remove the duty on building materials destined for use in San Francisco, but "only for a specific period." This they could put up with, but what they "fear" is a "tariff debate," and, above all, they "dread the striking object-lesson which must result from such legislation." Indeed, they see troubles swelling ahead of them immediately, since they consider it "doubtful if exemption of Trust-controlled building material from a removal of the duty would be tolerated at this time, in the present temper of the people and a portion of Congress toward tariff revision."

This gives the whole case away delightfully. Greed and monopoly, intrenched in the law, are willing to remit a portion of their plunder temporarily, for the sake of aiding people in exceptional distress—or, rather, they dare not refuse to do this—but they serve notice on every other subject American that there will be no let-up on him whatsoever. For the time being, they may even be as kind to the residents of San Francisco as they are to foreigners; may sell to them at 30 per cent. under what they extort from sheeplike consumers of their own, their native land; may even consent, if they find they cannot, on account of a glut of orders, produce in time the steel and lumber and cement needed, to allow commerce to flow into the Golden Gate unvexed for a year by artificial hindrances; but they want it clearly understood that this relaxation of their grip on the country is only provisional and fleeting, and that they mean to go on taxing all other Americans without a particle of mercy or remorse.

What is the dreaded "object-lesson"? It is the demonstration, first of all, that the pretence of protectionists that "the foreigner pays the tax" is a hoary old fraud. We saw it for what it is when Congress made exemptions for burned Portland in the sixties and for burned Chicago in the seventies; but never did it appear more of a hideous absurdity than now, when even a protection-ridden Congress is preparing to relieve the native from paying the tax simply because he is destitute and it would be inhuman to make him pay it. The object-lesson next goes on to show exactly what is the power which the protected interests exercise under the forms of law. It is the power of taxation. Taxes levied by the Government for the public are a necessary evil, often grievous to be borne; but a right of taxation corruptly acquired by private interests and ruthlessly insisted upon throughout the whole country is an outrage which only needs to be uncovered to be hated. Tariff exemption for San Francisco does uncover the whole unjust system, and hence the fear and trembling of its beneficiaries. The teacher of the object-lesson will also not fail to point out that the alliance of protection with politics sends to Washington men who represent particular interests, not the people. Look at the all-powerful Senator Aldrich at this moment. It is to his tender mercies, as chairman of the Finance Committee, that the San Franciscans have to appeal. He will decide just what duties and for how long will be graciously remitted by the tariff Trusts. But on the question of free alcohol, be it noted, Aldrich is firm. The bill which passed the House by a great majority, he is going to hold up for this session. He needs to "investigate" it. But it does not require much investigating to show that the Standard Oil Company is opposed to the free-alcohol bill, and that Aldrich is doing the bidding of his masters. It is such aspects of tariff corruption that we hope the Democrats in Congress will not fail to emphasize when the bills repealing duties for the benefit of San Francisco are put upon their passage.

Meanwhile, the philanthropists of the steel trade are geting together against the bill to admit structural steel duty free, for the rebuilding of San Francisco. The *Iron Age* kindly explains: "It always takes time to rebuild, and the somewhat hysterical fears that the mills of this country, busy as they are now, could not cover the demand, are utterly unjustified." The obvious inference is that under such circumstances Congress would be guilty of a crime if it encouraged San Francisco to buy steel of the malignant foreigner. The *Iron Trade Review* declares frankly that the manufacturers will oppose the free admission of structural material. The Steel Corporation will give preference to the orders from San Francisco, so as to "prevent the necessity of calling on foreign plants to help in this emergency." The attitude of the protected monopoly is admirably reflected by the *Iron Trade Review*. That journal is moved to deep enthusiasm over "the wonderful courage, public spirit, and home devotion of the people of the stricken city." This is a very pretty statement of the sentimental aspect of the case; but in cold practice this glow of sympathy finds expression in that altruistic precept, "Line your pockets."

CONSERVATIVE WESTERN DEMOCRATS.

In nominating ex-Senator W. A. Harris for Governor, the Democrats of Kansas have chosen the strongest available politician in the State. Once leader of the Populists and classified as a "typical Kansas statesman," Mr. Harris at sixty-five is perhaps a more conservative man than Governor Hoch, who, it is expected, will be his opponent in November. The rest of the ticket is excellent. The campaign will be a serious one, upon clear issues; and, if the judgment of local observers is to be trusted, the party has an even chance of winning. What is promised in Kansas is perhaps typical of the new style of Democratic strategy, in the West at any rate. Out there the false gods have had their day of adoration, and now the party is returning to what they call in Nebraska "the J. Sterling Morton brand of democracy." Ultra-radicalism is, by the political law which decrees that new things shall come out of the West and penetrate the East in from five to ten years, now pretty much confined to the Hearst stripe of Democrats in New York and to the "Socialist-Democrats" of New England.

The Kansas Democrats, instead of calling for a repeal of the prohibitory law,

on the ground that, as it works in Kansas, it is a mere sham, call for the law's rigid enforcement. Writing before last week's convention met, a Topeka Democrat declared that the campaign would be made on the law-enforcement issue, on the proposal to secure a two-cents-a-mile passenger fare on the railways of the State, and on the anti-pass issue. These, be it noted, are all good Republican articles of faith in Kansas. It comes to a question which party can convince the greater number of voters of its ability to carry out its programme. According to tradition, the Democrats have a prior claim, and with one of the Populist old guard at the head of the party in Kansas, that State may show the way to what may amount to a general rolling back of the "Roosevelt tidal wave" of two years ago. Governors are to be chosen in California, Idaho, Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and North Dakota of the Western group of States; in Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas of the Southern group; and in Maine, New Hampshire, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania in the East. Besides, the general Congressional elections will serve to register the strength of this new, conservative element in the party.

Nebraska used to refer to "that grand old Democratic doxology,"

> "We want the offices—
> We don't care who the candidate or what the platform is."

From the time of Bryan's rise to a position of control in that State, however, this taunt has seldom been heard. It is significant that it has been revived by a Republican newspaper—but with the object of attempting to show that, on account of factional fights in the party, it does not now apply. As a matter of fact, the Democrats of Nebraska have come nearer to raising a live issue—the election of Senators by the people—than for a long time past. In Wisconsin, too, where the Democratic State Committee has just met, it is proposed to agitate for a party convention on the ground that under the primary law there is no opportunity for the formulation of an acceptable party platform. Candidates make the issues, while the party is left voiceless. In California, Democratic leaders have recently met to map out the campaign and to repair the blunders of four years ago that resulted in the defeat of their candidate for Governor.

In such widely separated States as Minnesota, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, a hopeful spirit is shown by the Democratic party guides. Under Governor Johnson it is said that the old Hanna Republican machine in Minnesota has been broken down. Senators Nelson and Clapp are charged with losing to the State a disproportionate amount of Federal patronage. They are urged by the Republicans to "get in line at the White House." An old Hanna worker recently said: "When the Republican President, in a message to Congress, lauds the Democratic Governor of Minnesota, and the latter responds in a letter lavish with personal admiration and adulation, the wheel-horses of the old Republican party may well wonder what will come next." This is a concrete illustration of the success of the new leaders of Democracy in the ancient seats of Populism in getting hold good campaign material.

There is a growing belief in Washington that in the next Congress far fewer Republican Representatives will have seats. The solid Republican delegations of such States as California, Nebraska, and Minnesota seem certain to be broken, while Illinois will send more than one Democrat to bear Rainey company. Some of Missouri's freshmen Republicans will retire. In Indiana it is expected that the Democrats will profit by Republican factional quarrels. The situation in the Eighth District is suggestive. Here Representative Cromer has just won a renomination, but after a fight that put heart into the Democrats, who say that "we have never said as mean things about the Republicans as they have said about each other."

While Pennsylvania Democrats are hopeful of electing a successor to Gov. Pennypacker and are taking stock of the strong points of State Treasurer Berry, whom they elected last year at the height of the "reform" movement, such accidental breaks in the ranks are not counted upon. In the West it is recognized that a man like Hearst might be seated in the Governor's chair at Albany, but such a "Democratic" victory would not deceive the party out there. The need for keeping sane is felt. With Western Republicans emphasizing old Democratic doctrine, such as tariff reform, State railroad regulation, and the popular election of Senators, it is felt that a "Democratic year" is due. If the avoidance of radicalism will help to gather the fruits of the movement toward Democratic principles, the party leaders in the West are prepared to resist the radicals.

CLERICAL VERACITY.

The ecclesiastical court before which the trial of the Rev. Dr. Crapsey for heresy has just terminated, declined on Thursday to allow any witnesses to qualify as "experts in doctrine." This seems proper enough. The question of doctrinal soundness is the very thing upon which the court itself has to pass. And if even clerical outsiders are not allowed to advise the court on points of theology, laymen must *à fortiori* keep silent. But there are certain moral aspects of the matter in which we are all interested, and upon which any man of good understanding and clear conscience is entitled to be heard. Moreover, on this point we have at hand a qualified expert. The late Prof. Henry Sidgwick, in his two essays on "The Ethics of Religious Conformity" and "Clerical Veracity," discussed the moral bearings of the question at issue in the Crapsey prosecution, with a directness as great as if the case itself had been laid before him. He took up precisely the instance of a clergyman who ceases to believe in the virgin birth of Jesus, and yet clings to the ministry in a church which compels him solemnly to avow such a belief every Sunday; and discussed it with a liberality, a large reason, and a moral earnestness which leave little for one to do except glean after him.

Professor Sidgwick was neither bigot, skeptic, nor indifferentist. He was a man who keenly sympathized with the liberalizing movement in the church, as everywhere else. He would grant you all the arguments for the need of revivifying outworn creeds by fresh interpretation. He was for the utmost possible freedom for clergymen. Phrases in the historic creeds which are tacitly abandoned, in their literal sense, by Christendom—such as the resurrection of the actual physical body, the descent into hell, or the ascription of bodily parts to the Deity—he would concede that they might continue to use, in a non-natural sense, since no one, or, at least, no intelligent person, is any longer deceived thereby. But Professor Sidgwick found an insurmountable moral difficulty in the explicit assertion by a clergyman, in the solemn worship of Almighty God, of belief in a plain and unambiguous statement of fact in which, in reality, he had abandoned belief. As if with his eye precisely on Dr. Crapsey, he wrote:

> "My contention is simply that the widest license of variation that can be reasonably claimed must stop short of the permission to utter a hard, flat, unmistakable falsehood; and this is what a clergyman does who says solemnly—in the recital of the Apostles' Creed—'I believe in Jesus Christ, . . . who was conceived by the Holy Ghost, born of the Virgin Mary,' when he really believes that Jesus was, like other human beings, the son of two human parents."

This, of course, goes quite beyond the usual debate about the established formularies of the church and the obligation of ordination vows. It is solely the question of the clergyman's own moral position upon which Professor Sidgwick fixes his penetrating gaze. The right of growth and the duty to change with new light, he fully admits. Tacit changes in the common understanding of the creeds he recognizes as freeing a clergyman from the charge of untruthfulness in using the old language. There is also the matter of "good faith" with his ecclesiastical superiors. He may frankly go to his bishop, admit that his views about certain doctrines

have changed, and obtain assurances that he is still within the permitted liberties of the church. Or, in the interest of theological advance and of relief for troubled consciences, he may publicly acknowledge his heresy, and ask the courts of his church to try him in order to determine whether it may be tolerated. That seems to be very much the attitude of Dr. Crapsey. A great deal is to be said for it. It is undoubtedly one of the ways in which theology may be liberalized. But behind all that lies the question of "truth in the inward parts." What is the moral attitude of a clergyman who, with or without the permission or acquiescence of his superiors, stands up before the great congregation and declares in the presence of God, "I believe" —a certain clear assertion of historic fact which he does not really believe? Professor Sidgwick was replied to by the Rev. Mr. Rashdall of Oxford, who argued against a pedantic insistence upon "technical veracity" in dealing with church symbols prescribed for repetition in public services. But Sidgwick rejoined:

> "My complaint is that, instead of stating and applying these considerations with the care and delicacy of distinction required for helpfulness, so as to show how the essence of veracity may be realized under peculiar and somewhat perplexing conditions, he rather uses them to suggest the depressing and demoralizing conclusion that no clergyman can possibly speak the truth in the sense in which a plain layman understands truth-speaking; so that any clergyman may lie without scruple in the cause of religious progress, with a view to aiding popular education in the new theology, and still feel that he is as veracious as his profession allows him to be. Or, perhaps, I should rather say that Mr. Rashdall's conception of substantial veracity is what grammarians call *proleptic*; the duty of truth-speaking is, he thinks, adequately performed by a Postnatalist [one denying the miraculous birth] if he may reasonably hope that the falsehood he now utters will before long cease to deceive through the spread of a common understanding that he does not mean what he says."

What, then, is a progressive clergyman to do? Let him stick to his work, if his heart is in it, and if his departures from the faith as his church "hath received the same" do not compel him to a living lie. But if his divergence from accepted doctrine be such that he cannot stand up and repeat the prescribed creeds without intellectual stultification and moral ignominy, then his place is elsewhere; and all the arguments from usefulness and "spiritual importance" but make his position the more untenable. He may lead a movement to change a creed which has become impossible to him, but he cannot go on repeating it when to do so is of the essence of falsehood. This may be said with a sympathy as full as Professor Sidgwick's for the men who are trying to rid inherited creeds of their "thaumatological elements." Of such men we may, with him, highly approve, and say that they are "engaged on a good work and profitable for these times"; but we shall be compelled to add that it is "not a work that can properly be done within the pale of the Anglican ministry."

LUXURIOUS TAXERS OF LUXURY.

Before the President's deliverance about the need of limiting fortunes by legislation is completely dismissed as "only one of Teddy's breaks," it may be asked just why the outgiving caused so much surprise, coming from him. Every one seems to have felt a certain incongruity about it. This has been variously defined. Some have found the misfit to be simply that of time and place. Why did Mr. Roosevelt throw his hand grenade, and then declare that he had no intention of waiting to see the effect of the explosion, or of following it up? Others have felt that the trouble lay in the President's looking at the matter solely as a measure of social reform, not of public revenue. For others, the offence appeared in a Republican President taking up a doctrine of the Populists. Could he ever have been elected if we had known that he was such a radical?

In our opinion, however, the inconsistency goes deeper than any of these things. It is inherent in the case of a luxurious man attacking luxury; of the chief of a lavish nation denouncing inordinate expenditure. An Italian writer, Guglielmo Ferrero, dealt some months ago with this moral "antinomy," as the philosophers might call it. He pointed out the essential contradiction between the proclaimed ideals of rulers like the Emperor William and President Roosevelt, and the net result of their practice. They exalt the austere virtues, but encourage luxurious habits. They denounce ostentation, but promote it. We may translate a part of what Signor Ferrero wrote about Mr. Roosevelt, to show how near the white he struck:

> "Not long ago, Mr. Roosevelt reëdited for the Yankees, as Augustus did for the Romans, the old treatise of Metellus Macedonicus, *De prole augenda*. He repeated to the great republic, softened by wealth and pleasures, the severe discourse which Augustus once addressed to the nobles of Rome. Celibacy he deplored, with the infertility of marriages, the frequency of divorce, and all the vices and selfishness of an over-rich civilization. He endeavored to oppose, again like Augustus, rising luxury with the simple life. There followed much discussion, many exclamations, great admiration—but what did it all amount to? The apostle of simplicity is going, none the less, to cut the Panama Canal and in other ways do all he can to double American commerce, the wealth of the cities, the luxury of the higher classes, and to overwhelm the finer traditions of his country, so dear to the President, with a flood of gold."

This is, in sober truth, to put the finger very near the essence of the puzzled feeling we all have over President Roosevelt's sudden appearance as the enemy of luxury. Publicly, at any rate, he has consistently advocated measures to make this nation the most luxurious going. He has never made a stand for economy. All his recommendations are for larger and larger national outlay, accompanying an ever-increasing extension of the functions of the general Government. He nearly rivals Capt. Hobson in his repeated clamor for a tremendous navy. All military expense he would see pushed up. In addition to tariff largesses from the national Treasury, he would have bounties handed over to shipowners, to aid them to become so "unhealthily" rich that he can begin to tax them to the quick. In a word, he quite lives up to Ferrero's description of him as a public man most lavish in all his policy, yet most denunciatory of the inevitable results of a lavish policy.

One dislikes to refer to the personal aspect of the matter, yet it is necessary to do so if full exhibition is to be made of the contradictories displayed by President Roosevelt in his unexpected dread of great fortunes. In many ways, his private attitude towards money-making has been laudable. He has never shown any of that passion for the speedy acquisition of great wealth which ruined Blaine. We can scarcely imagine an appeal to go into some scheme to get rich making any impression on him. It may be said that this is because he inherited a competence, but that does not matter; the main thing is that, in a time when the pecuniary motive has been far too strong with too many public men, Mr. Roosevelt has been singularly indifferent to it. In this respect, his example has been most wholesome. But this does not make his appearance in the rôle of an austere prophet the less disconcerting, for his manner of life has been, after all, what the average man would call luxurious. He consorts freely with the richest men of the day. This may be only a part of his large and free democracy, which sets millionaire cheek by jowl with cowboy; but it leads to some queer contrasts. The list of guests at the recent White House ceremony was telegraphed abroad as representing more accumulated millions than were ever assembled under one roof. All this is a matter of taste, and wholly within Mr. Roosevelt's rights; but it goes ill with his taking up his parable against great wealth. For such a work we naturally expect a man to be differently equipped; we do not look for one living delicately, but for a prophet clad in camel's hair and coming out of the wilderness; a Jacobin, a revolutionary, with the fire of class hatred burning in his heart; a child of labor, rising to political leadership through consistent attacks on privilege and wealth. True, we have had to see a good deal of outcry against riches by men enjoying all the comforts of wealth; but we think that the incongruity is so peculiarly marked in the President's case as part-

ly to account for the general astonishment at his desire to cut off the heads of the tallest poppies.

No doubt, the President merely typifies, in all this, a common state of mind. Most of us betray the same divided counsels, if not the same inconsistencies. Of our civilization, too, it may be said that we can endure neither our vices nor their remedies. That is one reason why luxurious taxers of luxury will never make much headway.

MODERNIZING SPAIN.

As the past "glories" of our little war with Spain are more and more forgotten in the presence of the continuing and thankless burdens which it left us, American interest in the affairs of the Peninsula has declined. Our flurry of attention to Spanish developments has subsided, though they are really of a sort to concern us and the whole world. The President recalls our accomplished and acceptable Minister in Madrid, Mr. Hardy, cutting short his diplomatic career to make room for a personal friend; but the act excites no remark. Even when he gives a consolation prize in the shape of a special embassy at King Alfonso's wedding, the interest kindled is but languid. We have ceased to be either Hispanophobes or Hispanophils. Even the translated Spanish novel has gone out of vogue among us.

Spanish politics, it must be confessed, does not offer an inspiriting study. Prime Ministers succeed each other with even greater frequency than in France, and with less apparent reason. Villaverde yields to Montero Rios, and he to Moret, without one being able to perceive adequate cause, either partisan or personal, for the substitutions. The explanation which the most detached observers, whether Spanish or foreign, give of this rather dreary succession of political changes which change nothing, is the dominance of the boss system in Spain. What the group system does in French politics, powerful and unscrupulous bosses, local or provincial, do in Spain. It is the voracious "cacique," with his insatiable demands for patronage, who makes the lives of Ministers both precarious and miserable. This is an old complaint in Spain; but it has been renewed of late with especial emphasis, as it has been freshly illustrated in the otherwise meaningless and, in any case, ignoble course of public affairs.

Commercially and industrially, Spain has given many signs of having taken to heart the bitter lessons of 1898. She is exemplifying the advantages of "intensive" farming, as against the loose and wasteful system. With the artificial colonial market cut off, the manufacturers of Catalonia have been driven to improve their methods and to depend upon their own skill. In the result, they have fully held their own. Barcelona was never more flourishing, and is now the largest and most progressive, as it is in many respects the finest, city of Spain. Similar if smaller improvements are registered in other parts of the country. The disastrous failure of crops in Andalusia last year was, after all, only a temporary check to the progress towards better conditions. Public finance has been comparatively well handled, the steady decline in exchange—or the price of gold—being a sure sign of this; and in many branches of enterprise and investment Spain is making bids for foreign capital. There has been a great demand for electrical apparatus of all kinds. In the northwest, important concessions for developing electrical power from the "white coal" of the Pyrenees, on a scale comparable to that attempted in the south of France, are in the way of being worked. Even in railroad building, where Spain has long been backward, there is new activity. A straight line from Madrid to the French frontier has been chartered by the Government, and will bring with it important commercial and agricultural gains.

It is, however, in the realm of ideas that the Spaniards are revealing the greatest change and the strongest purpose to keep abreast with the modern world. One phase of the movement is dwelt upon by Ernest Martinenche in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He is writing of the dramas of Galdós, who may now be described as the chief literary figure of the Spain of to-day, and shows what is the marked difference between his plays, together with the work of the school of younger dramatists in general, and those which immediately preceded them. It is that they are devoted subtly to the inculcation of the new ideas which have come into the world during the past fifty years, but to which Spain has been singularly and steadily inhospitable. What has given to the dramas of Galdós—which he began to produce only in 1892, after twenty years of novel-writing—their peculiar fame and won them their great influence, is their break with the old tradition. The impact of the modern scientific spirit, the stirring of the dry bones of ecclesiasticism, the struggles of the brain and conscience of Spain to escape from a dead past—these are Galdós's favorite dramatic themes. As Martinenche sums up his review:

> "This Spain, not official but real, Galdós has penetrated to the very bottom of its soul. He has not thought it his duty to hide its weaknesses and imperfections. Nor could he render it a better service. It was shutting itself up and vegetating in barren regrets over past glories. Galdós, with more of filial piety than revolutionary zeal, has shaken off the dust which covered that Spain, and taught her the salutary remedy of walking in the open air by the light of to-day."

Fully as significant is one of the most widely read of recent Spanish novels; we mean 'La Catedral,' by Vicente Blasco Ibañez. Reaching a sale and provoking a discussion almost unexampled in Spain, this story is devoted to impressing the same need of readjustment to modern conditions which Galdós enforces. The book is, in reality, a huge tract for the times. Under the guise of a romance, it is truly a propaganda. The larger part of its 356 pages is taken up with arguments for Spain's coming out of her shell. With the utmost boldness, Señor Ibañez sets himself against the traditional view. The expulsion of the Moors was a great calamity. They would have kept Spain in the stream of modern culture, out of which she drifted. Pride in the colonies was misplaced. They are better gone. Dreams of military power are childish. What Spain lacks is education, suffusion with the scientific spirit. So the author goes on, with much learning and great eloquence and daring; and the fact that his teachings have had so wide an echo, shows that we are in the presence of a Spanish awakening, even if we cannot yet be sure of the achievements to follow.

JAPAN'S IMMEDIATE SOURCES OF WAR-COSTS PAYMENT.

TOKIO, March 31, 1906.

The fury of the war-storm in the East has passed. It shook an earth made small by wire and rail and steam. It brought new chaos to the world. Politically, commercially, financially, the face of the earth is changed. Old marks and bonds are gone. New ties are knit and knitting. New grooves are cut for trade. Great blocks of Japanese securities have been carried away to Europe and America. The ramifications of finance have been extended, enlarged, and complicated. Excitement turned the world's gaze on Japan, interest must partly keep it there. The state of Japan's finances, her industries, her trade, the doings of her Diet, the thoughts and plans of her Government and people, now concern Americans and Europeans.

The first post-bellum Diet is a sort of mirror which shows Japan in many phases, under many lights. Reflected from this mirror in towering proportions are costs of war and the present state of finances. The most careful scrutiny of these two main objects cannot yet trace all minor lines. The Finance Minister himself said that, since the war, some ships have not yet touched home ports, and the exact costs of repair cannot be stated. Although a special War Account is kept, some minor payments have been made from the regular budget and are not easily traceable. Plans for military readjustments and for other enterprises born of the war are not yet shaped. The Ministry said it hoped to have them ready for the next session of the Diet. Hence the ultimate effect of the war on Japan's finances cannot yet be wholly seen. Still, the newly enacted Budget enables us to see approximately the costs of the war to Japan, and also the immediate effects on her finances.

Omitting some minor items which are not

yet clear, and including interest on war debt till March 31, 1906, the total costs to Japan of her war with Russia were about 2,204 million yen (dollars). From this deduct the balance receivable from Russia for maintenance of prisoners, now unofficially stated to be about 80 millions. The immediate means of payment were:

	Million yen.	Million yen.
New and increased taxes and monopoly (tobacco and salt) profits, 1904-06 (March 31)	212.6	...
Economies in normal budget	96.4	309
Funds borrowed from "special accounts"		63
Voluntary contributions and miscellaneous		2
Total paid from current revenues and capital funds		374
Balance paid from proceeds of loans to the amount of		*1,830

*As all bonds were issued under par, actual proceeds were much less. Some explanation of the items in this statement will make it clear.

The new and increased taxes and monopoly profits were created by two schemes for providing war revenues. The first scheme (March, 1904) yielded in the first fiscal year (April 1, 1904—March 31, 1905) about 62.2 million yen. It continued with a somewhat larger yield during 1905-1906. The main features of that scheme appear in a previous letter of mine to the *Nation* (May 5, 1904). The second scheme of new and increased taxes (December, 1904) added to yearly revenues about 67.2 million yen. The new taxes were: a progressive succession tax, to yield 4.3 millions; a passenger transportation tax—on railways, tramways, omnibuses, waterways—to yield 3.2 millions; a 10 per cent. consumption tax on silk and cotton goods (woollens being already taxed at 15 per cent.), to yield 7.7 millions; a one sen (½ cent) stamp tax on bank-checks; a placer-mining tax. New import duties were fixed, on cocoons at 10 per cent. and on imported rice at 15 per cent. Textile consumption taxes apply to home products, and also to imports—in the latter case being distinct from and additional to customs duties. A salt monopoly was created to yield 16.2 millions. New sources of revenue thus created yield about one-half the whole new increment of revenues. The remaining half was drawn by increasing the yield from already existing sources. These additions were mainly: land tax, 11.5 millions; income tax, 7 millions; business tax, 6.5 millions; sugar tax, 2.2 millions; stamp duties, 11.5 millions (but this includes *new* textile and bank-check taxes); customs duties, 4.45 millions (including the *new* duties on rice and cocoons, some 2½ millions).

The land tax shows these changes:

	Original rate. Per ct.	*1st inc. Per ct.	†2d inc. Per ct.	Whole rate. Per ct.
Urban building lands	2.5	5.5	12	20
Rural building lands	2.5	3.5	8	14
Other lands	2.5	1.8	1.2	5.5

*March, 1904. †December, 1904.

As shown in my former letter, the first increase gave a rate but little higher than was really paid during the years before the war (1899-1903). The second increase is net addition. The whole rate of 5.5 to 20 per cent., resting on a low cadastral value, is relatively less burdensome than income, business, and some other taxes. The Government had proposed 8 per cent. more on urban building, 6 per cent. more on "other" lands, and 1 per cent. less on rural building lands. The overwhelming influence of the landed interests in the Diet refused to draw from land all that the Government wished. The urban interests opposed the great disparity of rates proposed by the Government for urban and for building lands. The outcome was compromise and the rates above given.

Income taxes are assessed under three classes. Class I. includes income of legal persons, *i. e.*, joint-stock and other companies and partnerships. Class II. includes incomes from public and corporation bonds. Class III. includes all other incomes, *i. e.*, salaries, wages, earnings, allowances, pensions, interests on loans to individuals. The tax on Class II. remains throughout the same as before the war, viz., 2 per cent., while the later issues of home war bonds were exempted from taxation. Incomes under Class I. are divided into two groups. (1) Where the number of shareholders or partners exceeds 21—the original rate being 2.5 per cent.—the war increase is (.7+.8) 1½ times the original rate, making a total rate of 6.25 per cent.; (2) where there are less than 21 shareholders or partners—the original rate being 2.5 per cent.—the war increase was progressive, making a total rate of 4½, 6, 7½, 9½, 11½, 13½, 17, 20¼ per cent. on incomes of 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 100, and over 100 thousand yen respectively.

The changes brought by the war in Class III. are best shown thus:

Amt. of income. Yen.	Rate before the war.	Proportion of rate before the war. 1st inc.	2d inc.	Whole rate.
300 to 500	1	.7	.3	2
500 to 1,000	1.2	.7	.4	2.52
1,000 to 2,000	1.5	.7	.4	3.45
2,000 to 3,000	1.7	.7	.4	3.91
3,000 to 5,000	2	.7	.4	4.60
5,000 to 10,000	2.5	.7	.6	6
10,000 to 15,000	3	.7	.7	7.50
15,000 to 20,000	3.5	.7	.8	9.45
20,000 to 30,000	4	.7	1.0	11.50
30,000 to 50,000	4.5	.7	1.2	13.95
50,000 to 100,000	5	.7	1.4	17
100,000	5.5	.7	1.7	18.70
Over 100,000	5.5	.7	2.0	20.35

The whole rate here given is national tax. To this, urban and prefectural taxes may be added within the limit of .3-10 of the rate before the war. (The actual rate so added in Tokyo this year is about 25-100 of that before the war.) Few salaries in Japan exceed ten thousand yen. Relatively few incomes are in the grades above twenty thousand yen, and probably none are taxable in the two highest grades. Hence the great mass of incomes are taxable in the grades which, including local additions, range from 2¼ to 10 2-5 per cent.

The business tax applies to profits earned in trade, transportation, banking, insurance, manufactures, inn-keeping, and such like enterprises. The tax is assessed on a complicated basis. Its weight and increment of increase closely correspond with those of the income tax.

The new succession tax distinguishes between property used to perpetuate the family estate (property going to the new head of a family) and property passing to others than a new family head. In each case, the tax is graded (a) according to the degree of kinship or to the nature of legal relationship, and (b) according to the value of the property inherited. The rates of the tax range from 1.2 to 6.5 per cent. The peers, who specially feel this tax, wished to avoid or change it; but, on learning that the Lower House would brook no important change in the war budget, the peers gracefully bowed the unwelcome tax into being. The proposals for a salt monopoly and a rice duty called forth from a part of the press and public sharp criticism. The Government asked for a 15 per cent. tax on silk and cotton goods. The Lower House made it 10 per cent., payable in stamps. Both industries concerned strongly, but vainly, opposed the tax and still more the method of collection.

In the second scheme of war taxes, all changes noted and a few of less importance were made by compromise with the Government in the Lower House Budget Committee. Afterwards, patriotic zeal, impatient of criticism or discussion, and wishing to show a united nation, quickly carried them intact through both houses. A provision that all special war taxes (but not succession tax and monopolies) should end within the next year after that in which the war ended, smoothed the way.

The remaining items which contributed to war expenses may be more briefly explained. "Economies in the normal budget" came from certain peace expenses of army and navy, from the suspension of various public works of a continuing nature, from curtailment of ordinary administrative expenses. Sums thus saved were used for war. The "funds borrowed from 'special' accounts" are those which had been created for special purposes, viz., naval maintenance, public relief in times of national calamity, education, redemption of Formosan public-works loans, improvement of State forests. Other items were patriotic gifts and small miscellaneous receipts.

The great part of the war expenses was paid from proceeds of loans. War loans were placed thus:

	Yen.	Per ct.
At home	280,000,000	@ 5
	200,000,000	@ 6
In foreign countries	220,000,000	@ 6
	600,000,000	@ 4½
	100,000,000	@ 4

Last November the Government contracted for a foreign loan of 500 millions at 4 per cent. The net proceeds of that loan (half now in hand) are ear-marked to redeem the home 6 per cents (conversion now in process) and the foreign 6 per cents, and otherwise to balance the war budget. Again, the new budget provides for the issue of 350 millions of additional bonds to square war accounts. Of these, 200 millions at 5 per cent. have just been floated at home. Another 150 millions are to pay pensions, rewards, etc., to army and navy. They will be home 5 per cents, and they are, so far as practicable, to be issued direct to the beneficiaries. Then, after using the 500 millions foreign 4 per cents and the 350 millions home 5 per cents as explained, the war debt will take this form:

	Yen.
Home bonds at 5 per cent (280+350)	630,000,000
Foreign bonds at 4½ per cent	600,000,000
Foreign bonds at 4 per cent	600,000,000
Total	1,830,000,000

It thus appears that, after deducting the balance receivable from Russia for maintenance of prisoners (now unofficially re-

ported at about 80 millions), Japan's war with Russia has cost her something over 2,124 million yen. Of this sum she has paid (March 31, 1906), out of increased revenues, economies in administration, sums diverted from other uses and patriotic gifts, together, about 311 millions. If she were now to borrow money and restore the capital taken from her permanent funds (this has not yet been done), the addition to her debt made by the war would be about 1,893 million yen. The resultant changes in national expenditures and the way taken to meet them will be shown in a later letter on the recently adopted budget.

E. H. VICKERS.

THE WINDSOR WHISTLERS.

LONDON, April 15, 1906.

The English have of late seen so many pictures and other works of art, after long years in the country, leave it, chiefly for Germany and the United States, that the few whose business it is to take charge of such matters are becoming alarmed. There has been something like a panic among directors of galleries and writers on art. A national art collections fund has been established, with a view to eking out the beggarly pittance for purchases allowed to its galleries and museums by the self-styled richest nation in the world. Various schemes are being suggested to prevent a repetition of recent losses. Some would-be authorities incline to a system of cataloguing all the old pictures in private houses throughout the United Kingdom; others, to a commission—as far as I can understand it—to keep an eye on them; or else, to a stamp act, a stamp tax on every picture, of any date or school, sold—which would make the dealers incontinently shut up shop, and societies of artists bring their exhibitions to an end forevermore. The leading reviews have found space for the subject; the papers that extend their attention to art have been full of it. To read the numerous articles, to follow the animated controversy, is to imagine Great Britain in as violent a state of agitation over its pictures as over its Trade-unions and Education bills. And this is the moment in the midst of the clamor—as if to remind a common-sense public that he has no sympathy with such nonsense—chosen by the King to sell the Whistler etchings which, with the Holbein drawings and the miniatures, were the great glory of the Royal Library at Windsor Castle. Moreover, to emphasize his indifference as to whether or no great works of art remain in the country, he has, as everybody now knows, allowed the royal prints to become the property of a New York print-dealer. It is the first time on record that a King of England has stooped to so "unroyal" a transaction.

The circumstances make it seem all the worse. The etchings were collected during the last reign, though nothing could be less in keeping with the manner of art that usually appealed to Victorian taste and received Victorian patronage. But Sir (then Mr.) Richard Holmes, the librarian at the time, had the intelligence to appreciate Whistler when hardly anybody else did in England, and to foresee the day when the prints would be valued as the masterpieces they are. Gradually the collection increased in number until it included many of the early French and London prints, the Venetian and Dutch sets, some of the later prints, the Naval Review set, which collectors now find so difficult, if not impossible, to complete. Among all these are several very rare prints and states, many very beautiful impressions. The Naval Review series has, moreover, a personal interest, for it was presented to the Queen by Whistler in commemoration of a great royal occasion. The plates were his record, made during the day of the Review at Spithead in 1887, the year of the first jubilee. Permission to present them was asked in a stately letter, afterwards presented at Windsor, to the late Right Hon. W. H. Smith, then in the Cabinet; the gift was accepted by the Queen, and Whistler, with his characteristic respect for the ceremonial of life, did everything to increase its distinction, arranging the prints with every care in a portfolio specially designed by himself. It may be a question whether Queen Victoria (who had the misfortune to dabble in etching) ever looked at the Whistlers more than once, if, indeed, she looked once; whether they interested her in the least; whether she remembered their existence and her gracious approval of them for her library. But, anyway, there they were, the most splendid addition to that library during the Victorian period, and, if left undisturbed, they would have been forever after associated with her name as the Holbeins are with the name of Henry VIII., as so many of the finest pictures in the royal collections are with the names of Charles I. and Oliver Cromwell. There was, too, the immediate personal note in the Naval Review set, commemorative, as it was, of one of the most important events of her reign, presented by the artist who, if not an Englishman any more than Holbein or Van Dyck or the other distinguished foreigners England now delights to claim, was the greatest master at work in the country during the long years when she was Queen.

These are the etchings the King has thought it expedient to sell, in order—so the reports put it with a seriousness that in any other country might be mistaken for humor—in order that the Library, of which they were one of the chief treasures, may be improved! A few years ago, the sale might not have struck one as quite so preposterous and unroyal. It was known only here and there, by a keen collector or by a casual visitor to the Library, that any Whistlers were at Windsor. The Royal Family would, the chances are, have been the last to discover them unaided. But, after the past two years, the King, if he would, could not help knowing something of their actual importance, though it must have come as a surprise when loyal subjects began to compliment him on his Whistlers with scarcely less warmth than on his prize cattle and race horses, which he could understand without the assistance of anybody.

The fact was, loyal subjects were themselves beginning to hear a great deal about the royal Whistlers; they heard about them, first of all, when a representative showing of Whistler was proposed in Edinburgh two winters ago, and it happened that Sir James Guthrie, on the advice of an artist who is an authority in these matters, appealed to Windsor for the loan of some of the etchings there, with the result that the fine Venetian series had a place in the exhibition. Then came the Whistler Memorial Show, arranged by the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers, in London last winter, to which all the Windsor Whistlers were lent, including those in the Princess Victoria's apartments. No one who saw can easily forget the beauty of the court, where they covered the white walls, and of the balcony above, where the Venetian prints were hung. The King was not denied the privilege of seeing this beauty, for he and the Queen visited the exhibition. Apparently, he was impressed in his own royal fashion, though not even the delightful stories of the visit that went the rounds of London afterwards invented anything as hard to believe as the use to which he was to turn his impressions. It will be remembered that, at the close of the London show, some of the Windsor Whistlers went to the Whistler exhibition at the Beaux-Arts in Paris. The French were loud in their praise of the King's generosity and his fine judgment as a collector. Really, in Paris, Edward VII. began to figure as quite a patron of the Fine Arts, a worthy successor to the Stuarts and Tudors. As for the English papers, they were jubilant. What? cried the critics, Whistler not recognized in England, his work not accorded that most practical of all appreciation, a place in one of the country's great collections? What misrepresentation! Look at the Windsor etchings!

Well, no one again can look at the Windsor etchings at Windsor. As soon as the King found out that they had a value and that this value was financial as well as artistic—Sir Richard Holmes having been superseded by another librarian—he sold them. With the exception of several on the walls of Princess Victoria's rooms, they have all gone—early French and London prints, Venetian, Dutch, and the Naval Review, the very portfolios prepared specially for the Queen. Only the letter has been suppressed. There is just a suspicion that somebody connected with the transaction had the grace to be ashamed—perhaps the English dealer who was the King's agent on the occasion; for not until the collection was in the hands of the New York firm was the fact of the sale actually known in London. That the King, like a wise collector, was getting rid of duplicates, principally of his mezzotints, was the first story. Then followed vague references to the Whistlers. Then silence. But the transaction is completed now. An American firm of print-sellers have had the good sense to prize what the King disdains, there is no reason for them to keep silent, and no doubt, before much longer, the Windsor Whistlers will be seen in New York.

That the collection should go out of the country must be the most unfortunate feature of the whole business to those who are quick to lament the lack of patriotism whenever a less exalted Englishman sells any masterpieces in his possession to the foreigner. In the course of the recent excitement over the Rokeby Velasquez, that point was made very clear. Then, however, the public was offered the opportunity to prevent such a catastrophe by putting its hand in its pocket. That the picture was

for sale was widely advertised; that a smaller sum would be accepted if it were bought for the nation was also announced. But that was a different matter, for, according to rumor—a rumor never denied—the Velasquez was being managed by a little syndicate of art critics who expected to make their profit out of public patriotism: which they doubtless did, unless the scandal was too great to warrant the risk, or unless the whole story was a fabrication—for the "Venus" is now in the National Gallery. When I saw it some years ago at the Old Masters', I remember being very much impressed by it. Whether because of the cleaning it is said to have suffered, or some unrecorded accident, or some uncalled-for repainting, I cannot say, but certainly it fails to impress me in the same way now it hangs with the Velasquez group in the Spanish Room at the National Gallery. I have even heard artists question if Velasquez ever touched it. However, it has been secured for the nation, after months of loud talk about it, diligent collecting for it, much scandal over it; while a foreigner has been allowed to buy the fine collection of Whistlers from the Library of Windsor Castle without one word of protest or one word of regret, to my knowledge, having been uttered. The Englishman who is the rare exception and cares for art, must ask with anxiety if it is the turn of the Holbeins next, and if they too must go in the royal endeavor to improve the Royal Library. N. N.

Correspondence.

COMING HOME TO ROOST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The comment of President Roosevelt on the decision of Judge Humphrey in the Beef Trust cases may be subject to just criticism for its lack of propriety. The intimation of the President that the judge did not know the law, or at least did not follow it, reflects sharply on his qualifications for his office. It would be well for President Roosevelt to go back further and consider the part he himself may have played in what he regards as a miscarriage of justice. Judge Humphrey's intellectual abilities are moderate; he would scarcely be equal to the grasp of any large proposition. Prior to his elevation to the bench, he had greater fame as a politician than as a lawyer. He had been for many years the political factotum of Senator Cullom in southern Illinois. At the time of his appointment he had never manifested high judicial qualities. The President did not appoint him because he supposed he had them; nor did he care to inquire. He simply permitted Senator Cullom to make the appointment, and the Senator spent no time seeking for the best man for the office. The President treated the appointment as he treats all judicial appointments, as one of the "places" which "belong" to Senators. Judgeships are not distinguished by him from the offices of postmaster, marshal, or Indian agent.

Prior to McKinley, most of the Presidents withheld the judiciary from the scope of Senatorial patronage. This desirable custom, unfortunately, has not been in vogue under Roosevelt. He has appointed four judges now sitting in this circuit, none of whom had any distinction at the bar, or any substantial recommendations for their judicial appointments, except those of Senators Cullom and Hopkins. The result is a Federal judiciary not only not comparable to their predecessors, who included Drummond and Blodgett, but below the average even of the State judges. If the judges whom Mr. Roosevelt has thus selected "make a farce of the law," as he declares in his message, a large share of the responsibility is his. John A. Woodruff.

Chicago, April 23, 1906.

LORD GRANVILLE'S STATECRAFT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One who has closely followed the career of Lord Granville is much pleased with your reviewer's estimate of Lord Fitzmaurice's work (*Nation*, March 15), with its fairness and ability. One observation, however, might be controverted, namely, that Lord Granville's name would never be connected with any great and memorable fact in foreign policy. This is not quite the case. Apart from the marked help which he gave to the cause of United Italy during his short first tenure of the Foreign Office, in 1852, his name will be connected with at least three events of very great importance in political history.

(1.) When Foreign Secretary in 1870, Lord Granville notified both belligerents, upon the outbreak of the Franco-German war, that, if either violated Belgian territory, England would at once join the other side. This bold step was wholly successful.

(2.) When Foreign Secretary for the third time, in 1880, he carried through a European naval demonstration organized by himself—the fulfilment of the stipulations enforced two years before by the Berlin Congress upon the Turks, which the Sultan had hitherto evaded.

(3.) Although the outset of the policy was clouded by checks and disasters, Lord Granville initiated the policy of the "policing" of Egypt by England, in 1882, which has ultimately proved so beneficial to both countries and to the world at large.

It may, of course, be said that in these instances he was guided by Mr. Gladstone's influence, but this was not so at the time of the Danish war. Then he assisted the late Queen against Lord Palmerston and Lord Russell, and at first against Mr. Gladstone himself, who subsequently came around to Lord Granville's views, to keep the peace with Germany instead of joining in that conflict. F. H. R. Poole.

April 25, 1906.

Notes.

Brentano's announce for early publication 'Italian Romance Writers,' being essentially a translation of Dr. Joseph Spencer Kennard's 'Romanzi e Romanzieri Italiani,' published in Florence two years ago.

We read in the *Library Journal* for April that the Carnegie Institution of Washington has in mind the completion of the late Joseph Sabin's 'Bibliotheca Americana,' which Mr. Wilberforce Eames carried on as far as John Smith; a desideratum indeed.

Ever since the early days of the London Bibliographical Society, plans for a complete bibliography of English literature have been discussed at its meetings, and the Society has just taken steps to collect material for a catalogue of all English books printed up to the end of 1640. Under the general editorship of its honorary secretary, Mr. A. W. Pollard, a collection of lists of books coming within this scope and preserved in college and cathedral libraries and similar collections has begun to be issued. First to be published is a catalogue of the books in Archbishop Marsh's Library in Dublin of earlier date than 1641, prepared by Dr. Newport J. D. White, Marsh's librarian. It is a volume of ninety pages, enumerating not far from 1,500 titles, chiefly of historical and theological works. The Bibliographical Society stands ready to defray the cost, as far as its funds and the claims of its regular publications will permit, of paper and printing for such other lists of this kind as may be prepared.

Americans of Welsh descent will find much to interest them in the facsimile reproduction of the MSS. of 'The Taylors Cussion' by George Owen (*circa* 1552-1613), to be issued this month with a short biography of the author by Emily M. Pritchard (Olwen Powys). George Owen, Lord of Kemeys, was the only Lord Marcher left in Britain in the time of Elizabeth. He was a noted scholar and antiquary, and, judging from the title-page, a man of quaint humor. Just as "the Taylors cussion made of shreedes of divers peeces hath a snatch," in the same way (so runs the assurance) "he that all this volume reedes of divers thynges will find a snatch." Among the said snatches are rules to shoot great ordnance; to score sheep; to know the full sea at Tenby and Milford; verses to find the books of the Bible as they now are placed; a pithye description of the persons of the Trinity; lists of the Deputy Lieutenants of every shire in Wales and the Marches, of all the shires in England and Wales, and the number of parishes, cities, and boroughs in each shire—of all the bishops that have been in St. Davids—of the fairs and markets in every shire in Wales, with many other matters, notes on antiquities, etc., etc. The book will be put out by subscription by Messrs. Blades, East & Blades, No. 23 Abchurch Lane, London, E. C.

A little handbook for 'Genealogical Research in England, Scotland, and Ireland,' by J. Henry Lea, merits the attention of all serious American searchers for ancestors beyond seas. Besides general preliminary guidance, the main features to be noticed are a list of Probate Jurisdictions for every county, with the location of each and the earliest date of wills (pp. 11-46); an index of Will Registers in the Prerogative Court of Canterbury, according to their respective dates (pp. 47-49); the same, alphabetically arranged (pp. 50-52); indexes of Will Registers in the Consistory and Commissary Courts of London (pp. 53-54); a list of Marriage Licenses by dioceses (pp. 57-63); a list of Herald's Visitations (pp. 70-86); a table of the names and jurisdictional scope of the Commissariat Courts of Scotland (pp. 91-95); lists of the Counties of Ireland and their diocesan jurisdiction, and of the Will Indices in the Public Record Office, Dublin (pp. 100-103); and, finally, lists of Probate and Diocesan Re-

gistries in England, with hours open and of closing (pp. 106-112). The rear is brought up by a folded map on linen, showing the Probate Districts of England and Wales. The author is his own publisher, at South Freeport, Maine (London: Mitchell, Hughes & Clarke), and the price is $1.50 (or, interleaved, $2.50).

Miss H. A. Guerber's 'How to Prepare for Europe' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a new and highly ambitious kind of guide-book. It consists of something over five hundred pages, and is a handbook of "historical, literary, and artistic data." First comes the preparation of the mind, in 486 pages. This includes short histories, from the earliest times, of all the European countries, Asia Minor and North Africa, with excellent maps and illustrations (nearly one hundred in number) of places and famous pictures; all clear and well reproduced. For each country there are bibliographies and tables of dates. The wonder grows how one small book can carry all this. But when one observes, on closer scrutiny, that the four pages of "Greek History" contain no single name or date, one marvels less. Miss Guerber, however, is detailed enough, in all conscience, in her table of Greek chronology, and we feel that the unwary reader should be warned that if he accepts 1198 as the precise date when Paris kidnapped Helen, or 1213 for that first abduction by Theseus, he must not suppose that he is backed by the pundits of to-day. Let him, however, digest as he may all those thirty-four imaginary dates in the table down to the eighth century B. C., provided only that he does not follow the authoress in her statement on page 49 that the Long Walls of Athens were pulled down in 411; for, as a fact, that devoted city preserved her cherished walls to the Peiræus until 404. We observe in a note by the author that, had space permitted, she would have included a Comparative Chronological Table "from the dawn of history to date," and that this will be published separately. If facts were all, the reader of this little book would be sufficiently equipped; no brain could carry more. The page on Vesuvius is now unhappily out of date. The phraseology is usually correct, but here and there is evidence that for Miss Guerber English is an acquired language. One does not speak of "herds" of geese and ducks (p. 117), nor can one allude to a Vandal Invasion as a "mode of death" (p. 22). Torquay is disguised as Torquai (p. 117); Mure, not Muir, is the name of the historian of Greek literature (p. 51); on the same page Shuckburgh is misspelt Shuckburg. These are slight blemishes on a useful little book that need not be depreciated as over-ambitious, since it is light in the hand and most compact and clearly printed.

We have received two more volumes (III. and IV.) of the "Gettysburg Edition" of Nicolay and Hay's 'Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln' made more complete as we have already specified (New York: Francis D. Tandy Co.). The portraits continue to present an interesting variety.

Two years ago, Mr. J. R. Tutin, of Hull, England, ventured a series of paper-bound "Orinda Booklets," an anthology of seventeenth-century English verse, which he has now followed up with a second series, but in the orthography of the original editions, with a minimum of editing. The four in hand include Katherine Phillips, Robert Heath, Henry Reynolds, and Thomas Flatman. In the same style but somewhat bulkier is a new set of "Pembroke Booklets," "for the general lover of our great Elizabethan, Jacobean and Carolinian Literature." Both issues are praiseworthy as selection, and typographically attractive.

The 'Ainu-English-Japanese Dictionary and Grammar' (pp. 525+159) of the Rev. John Batchelor, for over twenty-five years a resident in Yezo among the Ainu, and author of three other books on these aboriginal people of the Japanese archipelago, is issued in a second edition, greatly enlarged and with both Chinese characters and *kana* added to the Romanized Ainu and English (Tokio: Methodist Publishing House; London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.). To the dictionary and grammar proper he adds a discriminating chapter on "Ancient Japanese and Ainu Compared," and a most suggestive list, with commentary, of place-names in the archipelago. This English scholar expresses his regret that, in view of the desirability of criticism, so few persons are interested in Ainu. Besides making a book of the highest scientific value to students of Japanese and the Turanian or agglutinative languages, Mr. Batchelor argues for an Aryan origin of the Ainu tongue. He demonstrates to completion what Chamberlain had already in large measure pointed out, that the Chinese characters with which place-names in Japan are expressed are wholly misleading, and that the names of rivers and mountains and other landmarks in Japan are as surely Ainu (we may add) as are those in the United States Iroquois or Algonquin. It is creditable to note, by the way, that all official Japanese documents have dropped the old "Aino," popularly suggesting canine or at least brute origin, and now use the term Ainu (men). It is conclusively proved that the Ainu language has no general affinity with the Japanese. In the Turanian tongues (*e. g.*, Japanese) the root suffers no change. In Aryan, the change in the root is perhaps the most characteristic fact, and the Ainu grammar reveals in this respect a close affinity with Aryan morphology. A reading of the Dictionary discovers not only the narrow range of ideas of the Ainu, but at many points interesting similarities and differences. The argument in this book, on the linguistic side at least, shows that the basic stock of the people of Japan is a white or Aryan race.

In the 'Life of General Sir Andrew Clarke' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) we have a memoir of one who served the British Empire in the highest posts at home and abroad—Surveyor-General in Victoria with a seat on the Legislative Council, later Colonial Secretary; Director of Works at the Admiralty; Governor of the Straits Settlements; member of Council of the Viceroy of India; Inspector-General of Fortifications, etc. The book, which contains some interesting portraits, illustrations, and maps, is full of information as to persons, places, and events; but is wanting in individual human interest. It is rather a record than a well-digested biography. This is the more to be regretted in that Sir Andrew was at the centre of affairs in Tasmania during convict times; in Australia during the gold discovery; and in the Straits Settlements during reconstruction. He was evidently an able, high-minded, conscientious man of independent character, and with broad views of life and government. In reading this volume we have been reminded of the power of literature before other pursuits to give prominence to a name. Here is a man who governed provinces and left his impress on States, yet to most the name of Clarke recalls his cousin Marcus, the author of 'For the Term of his Natural Life.' A passage in Col. Clarke's interesting preface goes far to clear Mr. Gladstone of any blame regarding the fate of Gen. Gordon.

Under the title of 'Old Tales from Rome,' Miss Alice Zimmern has put into readable form for children a volume of legendary lore from Virgil and Livy, covering the ground of the Æneid and the period of the Kingship (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). The author would have done better, we think, to have kept her book free from any dependence upon the previous reading of her 'Old Tales from Greece.' At the end of the book she has placed a few adaptations from the Metamorphoses of Ovid, interesting enough in themselves, but damaging to the unity which her stories otherwise possess. We fear that not many eyes will be offended by her own (or the proof-reader's) metamorphosis of Typhō-eus into Typhœ-us. The successful efforts to make the book attractive to the eye in other ways should have been seconded by a little more care in the inking, which is somewhat uneven.

Though the Byzantine Empire of the eighth and ninth centuries stood somewhat apart from the more easily recognized currents of world development, yet, with plot and counterplot, iconoclast and anti-iconoclast, orthodoxy and heterodoxy seething within, and such ogres as Chumn the Bulgarian without, ready to make a drinking-bowl out of an emperor's skull if occasion offered, life in Eastern Europe in those days was anything but an unbroken round of dull monotony. Around the personality of Theodore of Studium, who figured in the iconoclastic controversy as an ardent and persistent advocate of the use of the sacred images, Miss Alice Gardner has constructed a very interesting and informing picture of the life of the time under the title of her hero (London: Edward Arnold).

In lighter and more popular form we have also from Armand Colin, Paris, a volume of biographical sketches by M. Charles Diehl, entitled 'Figures Byzantines.' M. Diehl covers about six centuries in his choice of subjects, touching Miss Gardner's period in but two cases, those of the Empress Irene and of Theoctista, the mother of Theodore of Studium. Readers of M. Diehl's 'Excursions Archéologiques en Grèce,' either in the original or in the English version, will not need to be assured that these sketches are at once scholarly and entertaining. The man who will teach English and American scholars the secret by which so many French prose writers pack so much lucid and interesting thought into so small a compass, will have effected a saving far beyond anything to be hoped for from our subsidized spelling-reformers.

Nothing daunted by adverse criticisms of his 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates,' Prof. H. R. Meyer offers "the second of a series of four books" on public regulation of industry. 'Municipal Ownership in Great Britain' (Macmillan) arraigns public management of transporta-

tion and electric light and power. There is also a short chapter upon municipal gas plants, which should have been allotted more space, inasmuch as it is popularly supposed that British municipal trading has been especially successful in this field. Scorning "birds of passage who study problems on the spot," the author presents a purely objective study of official evidence. His work consists largely of quotations judiciously selected. His opponents may complain that the selection has been too discriminating, but whether he has presented more or less than half the story can be ascertained only after some one of a different attitude of mind has made as thorough a study of the same sources of information. With respect to the injurious Tramways act of 1870 and the inadequate Light Railways act of 1896, the author's conclusions will receive fairly general assent. The controversy over fares, however, is a long-standing one, and, even if Mr. Meyer's figures are unchallenged, his interpretation of them is sure to be questioned. The probabilities are that uniform fares would have relieved the congestion of British towns to a somewhat greater extent than graded fares have done, but the author seems not to realize that the problem is so complicated that there are intelligent as well as honest differences of opinion. It is unfortunate that skilful bargaining on the part of companies is characterized as "enlightened self-interest," while equal vigilance on behalf of the towns is persistently ascribed to the "greed" and "stupidity" of the "municipal politician." But if intellectual tolerance is not one of the merits of the book, moral earnestness is; and the work is one that cannot be lightly answered.

The latest addition to the literature of monetary problems is Joseph French Johnson's 'Money and Currency' (Ginn & Co.). Written for "practical men as well as students in high schools and colleges," the book avoids the pedantry and needless technical terminology that disfigure many works upon the subject. Within the moderate compass of 398 pages, and in simple and direct language, the author presents the essential facts and principles of money and credit. Long study of his subject, from a practical as well as a pedagogical point of view, has fitted him well for his task, and he has produced what should prove the best text in its field. Particularly to be commended are the careful analysis of the demand for money, the discussion of "fiat" money, and the treatment of the difficult subject of credit.

"The Home Library of Law," by Albert S. Bolles (Doubleday, Page & Co.), in six small volumes, is one of those courageous attempts at popularizing law in which enterprising publishers and authors display the perennial optimism that no experience of failure in this field ever entirely kills. There never has been written any popular law book, that we can remember, since Blackstone, and the reason lies on the surface—law is not popular, and genius alone can make it readable; even Blackstone is not popular except with students of law and government. Nevertheless, a new Blackstone may be born, and, if now living, it is the business of publishers to search for him and set him to work. It is small blame to Mr. Bolles if he does not turn out to be one. His qualifications for his task are inadequate, and his "Home Library of Law" cannot be recommended as anything more than one of many labored compendiums.

Not since Herder in his 'Kritische Wälder' attacked the validity of the conclusions as to the relation between poetry and art reached in Lessing's 'Laokoon,' has there appeared a more trenchant or original criticism of Lessing's æsthetic principles than that contained in Prof. Frank Egbert Bryant's treatise 'On the Limits of Descriptive Writing' (The Ann Arbor Press). The treatise, which forms number six of the "Contributions to Rhetorical Theory," edited by Prof. F. N. Scott of the University of Michigan, is remarkable not so much for learning—although the author's reading is wide and varied—as for the fresh and unbiassed manner in which he approaches subjects that to the great majority of scholars have seemed to be settled once for all. He certainly proves his point that the Homeric poems contain many descriptions of coexisting objects which it is in no way difficult for our imagination to conceive of as a whole; so that Lessing's insistence on the necessity of the poet's transforming coexisting objects into consecutive action in order to bring them clearly before our mind's eye, is shown to be without support from the very poet on whose alleged practice Lessing's theory is largely founded. Professor Bryant's treatise will be a most welcome help to college teachers who interpret and discuss Lessing's 'Laokoon' in the classroom.

"Our Plant Immigrants" is the title of the leading article in the *National Geographic Magazine* for April, in which Mr. David G. Fairchild describes, in a most instructive and interesting way, one of the means by which the Department of Agriculture is increasing the agricultural wealth of the country. After a too brief reference to his own six years' experience as an agricultural explorer in most of the promising plant-growing regions of the world, he tells how the great plant industries of the country, as the wheat, rice, and fig, are being changed or bettered by the introduction of new plants. Nearly twenty different varieties are being tested at the Government stations or by carefully chosen farmers. Among the problems now in process of solution are the finding of paying crops for the abandoned rice farms of the Carolinas, the introducing of hardy fruits into the Northwest, the improvement of the arctic agriculture of Alaska, and the substituting of a valuable for a worthless cane in the cane brakes of the South. Mr. Walter Wellman gives a description of the new airship or aeronef, now being constructed in France. It will have a carrying power of eight tons, with two motors, one of 50 the other of 25 horsepower, and will be maintained in the air from 20 to 25 days and travel at a speed of 12 miles an hour. There will, further, be a motor sledge. An interesting feature of the expedition is the plan to establish a wireless station at Hammerfest, Norway, another at the headquarters in Spitzbergen, 600 miles distant, and a third on the airship, by which it is believed that messages can be sent from the neighborhood of the Pole itself to the outer world. Mr. Wellman treats at length of his proposed methods of navigation, and gives some elaborate tables of wind velocities in the Arctic Ocean from *Fram* records. The expedition, which is financed by Mr. Victor Lawson, is planned to sail for Spitzbergen in June, where the headquarters for a two years' campaign will be established. The Board of Managers of the National Geographic Society have recorded their conviction that Mr. Wellman's plans "for reaching the North Pole are carefully and thoroughly considered, and give good promise of success." Major Henry E. Hersey has been appointed as a representative of the Society to accompany the expedition.

Our compatriot, the Rev. William Hayes Ward, makes in the last *Athenæum* a gallant attempt to explain once more and finally Milton's "two-handed engine at the door" in 'Lycidas,' which most commentators pass over in silence. He follows his predecessors in seeking the source of a Biblical allusion, and finds it in Ezekiel viii., ix. The "slaughter-weapon" of ix., 1 is the "engine" in question, whether translated maul or battle-axe. We shall offer no opinion as to the conclusiveness of this view. Dr. Ward finds the "smite once, and smite no more" clearly reminiscent of the words of Abishai to David in the presence of the sleeping and unguarded Saul.

—Gardens and gardening is the accentuated feature of the May *Century*. Frances Duncan describes the gardens of the group of artists and literary folk who have taken up their abodes at Cornish, New Hampshire, beginning with Augustus Saint-Gaudens, who set the pattern twenty years ago. Francis E. Leupp writes of the old Washington garden, at Mount Vernon, and, from the evidence of Washington's letters and diaries, almost exclusively negative, he is inclined to give the credit of it to Mrs. Washington. A plan of it, dated 1787, is shown at page 159. Ten years later Latrobe describes it in his Journal as "a neat flower garden, laid out in squares and boxed with great precision. . . . For the first time since I left Germany I saw here a parterre stripped and trimmed with infinite care into the form of a richly flourished fleur-de-lis, the expiring groan, I hope, of our grandfathers' pedantry." Another old garden, at Sharon, Connecticut, is described by Helen Evertson Smith, great-grandaughter of Mrs. John Cotton Smith, by whom the garden was developed into its permanent form in the years following the close of the Revolution. George W. Cable takes up the problem which always confronts the would-be gardener at the gate, "where to plant what." Luther D. Burbank jumps the hedge between botany and anthropology, and writes of "The Training of the Human Plant," contending that as marked and persistent improvements as he has succeeded in securing in plant life can be effected in human life by analogous methods. Under the title of "Reflex Light from Africa," Charles Francis Adams expresses some very positive views with reference to the condition and capacity of the negro race, and the treatment it should receive where subject to our jurisdiction. His views challenge discussion at almost every point, but, as a corrective of his pessimistic attitude toward the negro's inherent capacity for improvement, we need only refer the reader to the evidence which the editor has supplied in "Topics of the Time," from recent scientific studies of the

negro in Africa by Prof. Franz Boas, published in the *Ethical Record* of March, 1904, and to the three works on the African race reviewed on another page.

—The April bill of fare of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde), as presented by Mr. Henry Bradley—Matter-Mesnalty—will richly reward scrutiny. The claim of this work to be compiled "on historical principles" lurks subtly in the sudden blossoming out of the word Melodrama, first quoted from Southey in 1809. In the breathing-space of the Napoleonic wars afforded by the Peace of Amiens (1802), the British flocked in multitudes to Paris, and made acquaintance with this form of spectacle (from which the melodic element has by our time quite evaporated). Hence the immediate invasion of English literature by the name and its derivatives. The *form* was restored to that of the Greek component parts, and the French accent discarded. Similarly, Memoir was anglicized without the accent and the final *e*, and fully naturalized, yet in pronunciation the best English usage retains the French sound of *w* before the *oir*—as Mr. Bradley suggests, because this termination is unfamiliar in English. The foreign origin asserts itself again in Mélange, taken over as early as 1653, and indifferently written with or without the accent; its outlandishness continues to be felt. It is not much otherwise with Mêlée (1648), which displaced Mellay, Melling, and Melly, somewhat to our loss. Ménage tends to cling to its accented vowel; Menagerie appears never to have cumbered itself with it. The throes of naturalization or assimilation are often very prolonged. We may notice the process in Debris and Plebiscit and Proletariat beside the perhaps more common French aspects, and in the wavering pronunciation of Menu. To clear our deck of French notes, Mazarine (a dish) is dubiously ascribed either to Cardinal Mazarin, who died in 1662, or to the Duchesse de Mazarin, who died at Chelsea in 1699, with the local weight of derivation in her favor. The dish (1673) somewhat antedates the blue color (1686). Finally, we owe our use of Mentor rather to Fénelon through 'Télémaque' than to Homer and the Odyssey direct; and our application of it to things as well as persons finds a warrant in Rousseau as cited by Littré.

—History is embalmed in a quotation from Lord Salisbury (1897): "A common intellectual complaint . . . which I may name (as I see Mr. Gladstone has consecrated the word) Megalomania—the passion for big things simply because they are big"—a definition which has hardly maintained itself beside 'overweening self-conceit.' Mr. Gladstone's "consecration" does not appear to have been picked up for the Dictionary; but he did not invent the term, as Bentham did Meliorability (1811-1831), which fell on stony ground, though a useful vocable and ready to anybody's hand who chooses to revive it, albeit in this age of the white man's burden we hear less of capacity for improvement and the perfectibility of man. George Eliot (1877) ventured the term Meliorism for the doctrine that the world may be made better by rightly directed human effort; and in the same year she wrote: "I don't know that I ever heard anybody use the word Meliorist except myself." Nevertheless, Dr. John Brown, in his 'Horæ Subsecivæ' (1858), proclaimed himself a Meliorist. These cross-quotations, introduced side by side chronologically, are entertaining. Mr. Bradley himself holds "to make mention of" "to be now slightly archaic and literary;" yet his first definition of the verb Mention is 'to make mention of.' Again, in illustrating the idiomatic use of Mend, he says, "We do not speak of mending a house"—although we might? And shortly, in the sense of 'improve,' Tennyson is quoted:

> "How mend the dwellings of the poor."

Mend, by the way, is aphetic from Amend, but, oddly enough, the abbreviated form is encountered before the full.

—Words have their fates, and curious it is to think of Mensk, 'humanity, honor, dignity, reverence,' with numerous derivatives, flourishing from the 13th to the 16th centuries and then dropping quite out of sight —"rugged names" that ceased, perhaps, to be "sleek" to British mouths grown less rugged. We have lost, further, Memorous in favor of Memorable; and the poets, those dainty scavengers of speech, have not cared to save J. Semple's Melancounterous, 'ill-timed.' Nor has Crabbe, on the other hand, caused to prevail his penultimate accentuation of Mercan'tile (not noticed by Mr. Bradley), or his monosyllabic rhyming of Mayor. Dr. Johnson has been more potent in sustaining the dissyllabic pronunciation of Medicine (med'sn), which mounts to the fourteenth century at least; for the less common trisyllabic pronunciation is in England "by many objected to as either pedantic or vulgar," whereas it predominates in Scotland and in the United States. We conclude with some interesting reading to be found under the verb May: "Like other past subjunctives, *might* is frequently used in a sense which differs from that of the present form not temporally, but modally. . . . The fact that *might* thus admits of three different meanings is sometimes productive of ambiguity, which has to be avoided by recourse to some different form of expression." "In poetry, *might* was sometimes nearly equivalent to 'did.' This use is strikingly characteristic of the style of Gibbon." "In the eighteenth century it was common to use *might be* or *do* in the sense of 'perhaps was' or 'did.' "

—In 1903 appeared the fifth volume of Prof. Paul Fredericq's monumental 'Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ,' carrying the series down to 1528, and now, in 1906, we have the third volume, which is devoted to completing the first and second, with 146 additional documents, ranging from 1236 to 1513 (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke). The work of research is never ending, and though, if the whole mass of material in these first three volumes could have been fused into a single series, it would be more convenient to students, the author who should wait until he had gathered everything before printing would never begin to print, for he could never feel sure that his task was completed. Moreover, Professor Fredericq has reduced to a minimum the inconvenience of his method by furnishing in this volume a complete chronological list of the 690 documents contained in the three, together with an extended index to the whole, occupying more than 200 pages. As in the previous issues, a very generous definition of the word heresy enables him to bring together a number of most interesting documents, gathered not only from printed sources but from the archives and MSS. of the Netherlands, of Paris, and of the Vatican. Such a collection as this illustrates emphatically the modern spirit in which history is studied and written, neglecting no detail and requiring exhaustive research into the original sources, in order to verify, by documentary evidence, everything that can be verified. Professor Fredericq has thus accomplished so much in his chosen field that all students of the period will await with impatience the continuation of his labors through the reigns of Charles V. and Philip II., when the annals of the Netherlands were written in characters of fire and blood.

—Fogazzaro's last novel, 'Il Santo,' noticed at length in these columns, has finally been put upon the Index. The fact, taken in connection with other recent incidents, is of great interest as showing the policy likely to be followed by the present Pope. Hitherto he has seemed to hesitate and vacillate, but the path he has now entered upon is that of intolerance. As the *Corriere della Sera* says: "We return to the times of Pius IX., with the bad distinction, however, that between Pius IX. and Pius X. there came the pontificate of Leo XIII., which marked a period of progress and comparative liberty, and that in the last thirty years ideas have gone ahead." The condemnation of 'Il Santo' follows close upon the incident of Bishop Bonomelli, who, it is now asserted, owed it to the intervention of a friend high in power that he was not cited before the Holy Inquisition. It is known, too, that, in the entourage of the Pope, whoever is suspected of broad and liberal views is sure to fall into disfavor, so that it is not doubtful that the censure of Fogazzaro's book is a blow directed at the whole party of progress in the Church. It includes, of course, such Catholics as Brunetière, who had just finished the publication of the French version of 'Il Santo' in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the editor of the German Catholic review, *Hochland*, which, besides translating the book, has published a series of articles highly laudatory of its author. Of course, even a Pope is but a feeble obstacle against the current of modern thought; at the same time, it is a keen disappointment to the better part of the faithful that a Pope of the gentle and kindly character of Pio X. should decide to throw his weight on the side of *intransigenza*.

—"Das Blumenboot" ("The Flower Boat"), a four-act drama written in thirteen months, is the last play by Hermann Sudermann since his "Stein unter Steinen," and shows in general the recent tendencies of the author. Baroness Erfflingen, daughter of a banker and wife of a reckless spendthrift, has enjoyed the forbidden pleasures of the world for years, drawing her income from the toil of a plebeian son-in-law, once a clerk and now manager in the banking establishment, to whom she has given her elder daughter, Raffaela, in marriage; and now she counsels the younger child, Thea, whose hand is sought by the impecunious Count Sperner, to marry

the Count for his social position, but to hold her affections free for others, that she may finally "become what she *is*." According to provisions made by the founders of the banking-house, a family council is held to approve the match, and the plodding son-in-law, Brösemann, seeing additional drains on the bank that his resources cannot meet, interposes such a spirited objection that he thwarts the plan of the Baroness, and the engagement is not concluded. A dare-devil cousin, Fred, recently installed in the bank, steps in the breach and wins the hand of the girl. They are no sooner married, however, than they are face to face with a dramatic situation: Fred has promised Thea, before he knew that he would marry her, to take her on her wedding night to a low dive in town, to meet there, as she expects, various actors of the city theatre. The young wife demands the fulfilment of the promise, and the excursion is made; champagne, song and smoke upset her reason; she falls, glass in hand, ere her husband can persuade her to leave, and finally returns to her new home, dimly conscious of the scars that can never be effaced. Raffaela commenced her married life true to prosaical Brösemann, and was inclined to flee from the attentions of Doctor von Schwerthe, who crossed her path; she even besought her husband to give up his business and take her away, but he saw in her request only a desire to travel. Thea, meanwhile, citing the mother's example, urges her into the liaison, and later, when a great flower-festival is held in the evening at the country seat, begs Raffaela in vain not to keep her appointment at midnight with her unlawful lover. Raffaela promises to retire; but while Fred and Thea are in passionate dispute—he asserting his wish to throw aside the trashy pleasures of life and be a man, and she declaring her purpose to continue on the downward course to which he has impelled her, but to continue alone, on her own responsibility—a woman's cry is heard in the park. Brösemann has returned home unexpectedly, to meet and shoot the wrecker of his home on the river bank. Blood-stained, he enters the house a moment after Raffaela has rushed to her room, takes cool leave of the terrified Baroness, whose first thought is to cover the crime, and, with a word of farewell, transfers the banking business to Fred; and in their hour of common shame and need, Fred and Thea feel for the first time the passion of worthy love.

THREE WORKS ON AFRICAN RACES.

The Native Races of South Africa: A History of the Intrusion of the Hottentots and Bantu into the Hunting-grounds of the Bushmen, the Aborigines of the Country. With numerous illustrations. By George W. Stowe, F.G.S., F.R.G.S. Edited by George McCall Theall, Litt.D., LL.D., Formerly Keeper of the Archives of the Cape Colony, etc., etc. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905. Pp. xvi., 618.

The East Africa Protectorate. By Sir Charles Eliot, K.C.M.G., Late H.M. Commissioner for the Protectorate. With illustrations and maps. London: Edward Arnold. 1905. Pp. xii., 334.

The Masai, their Language and Folk-Lore. By A. C. Hollis. With introduction by Sir Charles Eliot. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905. Pp. xxviii., 359.

These three books represent as many different points of view and as many aspects of book-making. The first is the compilation (since edited by another and abler hand) of a settler of long and varied experience, a geologist, but without exact scientific method in ethnology. The labor of the editor (the chaptering, paragraphing, and index are his) in getting the original unwieldy mass into some sort of order must have been very great. The second is the work of an administrator, who gives, in untechnical language, an account of the peoples and policies with which he has been concerned for several years. The third is a valuable contribution to anthropological science by one who has come into close individual contact with the uncivilized race of which it treats.

Mr. Stow's book was compiled before 1880, the date of his preface, and after the author's death the MS. was purchased from the widow by Miss Lucy C. Lloyd, said to be "the greatest living authority upon the Bushmen," and by her entrusted to Dr. Theall to edit for publication. As printed, it contains a mass of valuable and interesting information accumulated by the author during the years 1843-1880. The photographs of Bushmen were added from Miss Lloyd's excellent collection. In the lapse of twenty-five years, however, not a little of the text has naturally become merely auxiliary, or even antiquated. This does not affect much that is Mr. Stow's personal contribution to our knowledge of the South African aborigines. The twenty-six chapters, into which the volume is divided, discuss the following topics: The Bushmen and their antiquity, their habits, weapons and implements, methods of hunting, and fishing, social customs, modes of burial, various tribal groups, struggle for existence; encroachment of the stronger races; tribes of the West Coast; the Koranas, the Griquas, the Baastards (and Barend Barends, their original chief); the Bechuana and Basutu; the Mantatees, Baralong, and Bakuena. The tale of the progressive extermination of the Bushmen by the European colonists, and, before them, by the Hottentot and Bantu invaders, is the familiar story of the oppression of the weak by the strong, and the author makes it the main point of his book. First Bushmen, then Hottentot, then Bantu, would appear to have been the general southward movement of the races; the last, apparently, had not crossed the Orange River until the Dutch had long been settled in South Africa. Mr. Stow fixes, without particular proof, the immigration of the Hottentots at "about the end of the fourteenth century" (p. 249). The age of the oldest Bushman painting is thought to be about four hundred years (p. 26), while to the older rock-"sculptures," with no very accurate determination of geologic and other conditions, an antiquity of twelve centuries is assigned (p. 30), *e. g.*, to the great eland of the Riverton Island of the Vaal. The cave-paintings and the chipped outlines of animal figures Mr. Stow attributes to two entirely different branches of the Bushman race, the "sculptors," or kopje-dwellers, and the "painters," or cave-dwellers, who arrived by separate migratory routes. But there is no real reason for such a view, which is both untenable and unnecessary. Change of habitat and local conditions account well enough for such divergent forms of primitive art-activity.

The descent of the Hottentots and Bushmen from a common stock is a view somewhat favored by Mr. Stow, although he ultimately styles the latter a race apart from all others. It may be mentioned here that, at the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science at Cape Town in 1905, Prof. F. von Luschan, the well-known German anthropologist, advanced the opinion that the Hottentots are the result of a Hamitic-Bushman intermixture. Hamitic, or, as some hold, Semitic blood may also be traceable in the Bantu, who are hardly a pure Negro race in the belief of many authorities. The Mongolian affinities suggested on page 16 may be ruled out of court. Primitive as are the Bushmen, in many respects, we are assured (p. 60) that "they had several modes of cooking, viz., boiling, roasting or broiling, and baking." The suggestion (p. 83) that the custom of representing deities with the heads and coverings of birds and animals goes back to the use of such disguises as the Bushmen employ in hunting, is worth noting. A tendency toward monogamy among the Bushmen is said to be due to the "extreme jealousy and passionate disposition of the women." Instances of Bushman influence upon other peoples are seen in the clicks of the Hottentots and the spread of the game known as "Bushman cards." The symbiosis of the Hottentots and the Bushmen in the seventeenth century is an interesting sociological phenomenon comparable to the similar state of affairs existing between some of the pygmy tribes farther north and their neighbors of larger stature and greater power. The Griquas, who bear the name of an ancient Hottentot clan, are really a race of mixed-bloods, the result of the intercourse of the old Dutch colonists with Hottentot (and also Bushman) women. To these half-breeds was attached the term "Bastaards," which did not carry in Africa the stigma it has in Europe. Very interesting indeed is the story of these Griquas and their semi-European chiefs, of whose lives and exploits some account is given. The Basuto and related tribes, who have a love for agriculture, and a certain social system enabling them to survive in considerable strength through the ages (a political combination in the early part of the nineteenth century laid the sure foundations of their later growth), are one of the virile elements in South Africa, and are, apparently (under the ægis of British protection), building up a state that may illustrate the virtues and capacities of the Bantu race in a permanent and convincing fashion. But one needs to add to the data in Mr. Stow's book the results of inquiry and investigation during the period 1880-1906, and then he has a tale of Bushmen-extermination and of Basuto development that must excite alike the pity and the admiration of mankind.

Sir Charles Eliot, the author of 'The East Africa Protectorate,' was H. M. Commissioner from January, 1901, to June, 1904 ("these were perhaps the happiest and most interesting years of my life"), re-

signing his office on account of disagreement with the policy of the Foreign Office. He took this step "because I was ordered to cancel grants made by me to private persons in conformity with my general instructions, and to cancel them in a way which seemed to me wholly unjust and liable to accusations of favoritism, for I was at the same time directed to give the East Africa Syndicate a grant of ten times the size of the others, and in the same district, on unusually favorable terms, which were in themselves disadvantageous to the general interests of the Protectorate." The excuse of the Government was that the area in question was intended as a native reserve, and private grants would interfere with the rights of the aborigines. But the East Africa Syndicate received its grant of 500 square miles, such rights notwithstanding. While Sir Charles does not make this book a personal polemic, he points out clearly some of the defects (and worse) of the British administration of this region. The disproportionate expenditure on the Uganda railway contrasts sharply with the parsimony exercised in all other departments. The "absolute lack of administrative organization" makes the land question (the part of the country best adapted for Europeans has been declared a native reserve) a matter of the gravest concern. To this part of the world, indeed, may betake themselves some of the American criminals whom a recent treaty excludes from San Marino, for we are told (p. 185) that "it is held that the sovereign rights of the Crown over a Protectorate are not sufficient to justify extradition." The arrangement with the Sultan of Zanzibar shows that the British negotiators were less cunning, or less worldly-wise, than the Germans.

Besides geographical and historical information and a discussion of the administration of the Protectorate (past, present, and to come), there are several chapters devoted to "East Africa as a European Colony," and to the various native tribes (Swahilis, Somalis, and other Bantu-speaking peoples, Masai Suk, Nandi, etc.). Sir Charles Eliot is of opinion that there is "no considerable difference between pure negroes and the Bantu races," and there is certainly ground for the belief that such differences have been exaggerated by some authorities. Less tenable, however, is his dictum (p. 101) as to "the absence of any feeling for art in the African." The religiosity of some of these African peoples is probably underestimated, and the author is rather unduly exercised about their nudity. Some of the statements concerning the native tribes of East Africa are of more than usual interest. Of the Baganda, whom Sir Charles considers "incomparably the most intelligent and progressive of the natives of Eastern Africa," we are informed further (p. 99): "If they continue to advance at their present rate, they will rival the Japanese in their power of assimilating European culture, and become a factor of the highest importance in the future history of the African continent." This statement ought to give some of our American negrophobes pause. The possibility of an overwhelming of the nascent intellect in adult (racial) arrest is suggested for these negroes, as it has also been put forward for the Japanese, with no proofs as yet forthcoming. The Somalis are very intelligent, but lack some of the good qualities of the Baganda. The Masai have long been "perhaps the most interesting and important race in the country"; they are mostly warlike nomads, with a social system based on military ideals, and behind them a history of raids and depredations. The L-Oikop, however, are a section of the Masai who have settled down and become agriculturists. The future of the Masai proper is one of the great difficulties of the situation in East Africa; the author remarks (p. 143): "They resemble the lion and the leopard, strong and beautiful beasts of prey, that please the artistic sense, but are never of any use, and often a serious danger." The hope is that they may ultimately imitate their less warlike and nomadic kinsmen and take to agriculture. The Akikuyu have been influenced by Masai blood, but the adoption of their language by the incomers proves once more the remarkable power of expansion and survival evidenced by Bantu speech. The Wakamba are said to lag behind the Kikuyu people in vigor and intelligence, although one of the largest and most important tribes of East Africa.

As a matter of general principle, Sir Charles Eliot is "opposed to the creation in this Protectorate of native reserves, meaning by that name not plots of land kept here and there to meet the needs of natives, but territories in which natives are segregated and left to themselves." Such reserves "tend to perpetuate bad customs and to retard civilization and missionary work." Improvement of the East African races, according to the author, will come best from "encouraging mixed breeds —not, of course, between Europeans and natives, but between the various tribes." A good blend may be obtained from the Masai-Somali and the Wanyika-Wakamba. Unlike Uganda, which is thickly populated by black men, the thinly inhabited East Africa Protectorate, with much of its territory suitable for European colonization, is destined to be "a white man's country," or, rather, if the ideas of Sir Charles (he deprecates the establishment of both Jewish and East Indian colonists) be adopted, an Anglo-Saxon's country. This view, in an extreme form, is advocated by A. Johnston, in a recent article in the *Journal* of the African Society, where the demand is made for "a 'British first' policy for this healthy territory," with "administration for a time in water-tight compartments" for the rest of the population. The Englishman and the Babu get along together no better in East Africa than in Hindustan, and Sir Charles Eliot is unable to agree with Sir Harry Johnston's declaration that "East Africa ought to be the America of India." The Jews, he argues, have no real agricultural sense, and East Africa "would seem to be a country rather for those who have hereditary and personal experiences of agriculture than for those who are new to the pursuit" (p. 178). So much for the country in general, but in a cosmopolitan seaport like Mombasa, the point of customs-levy for East Africa, "the intermixture of races does not much matter." The trolley-system of this city consisted of "small carriages running on rails and pushed by native boys." Mombasa has at least three racial and social strata, "the Arab-Swahili, the Indian, and the European," and it has had, indeed, a checkered history. Cosmopolitan Mombasa and East Africa as a "white man's land" will be fertile subjects for the future student of the race-problems of the Dark Continent.

Mr. Hollis, whose volume on the language and folk-lore of the Masai is a very creditable performance, was Chief Secretary to the Administration of the East Africa Protectorate, and, like Sir Charles Eliot, his superior, a good friend of the missionaries, to whose labors both give unstinted praise. The author had at his services a Christian convert, one Olomeni, an Oikop, or Lumbwa Masai, from whom was obtained a good deal of the material here published. This consists of a sketch of the grammar of the language (pages 1-102) and collection of Masai stories, proverbs and legends, enigmas, myths and traditions, with interlinear and free translations, besides the description in Masai and English (parallel columns) of a large number of native customs, etc. (pp. 282-356). This mass of authoritative data will be welcomed heartily by the philologist and the folk-lorist, who so rarely get material as well suited to their common needs. The closest affinities of the Masai language appear to be with Latuka, then with Bari, and more remotely with Dinka, the Nandi-Lumbwa and Suk-Turkana groups, etc. The animal tales of the Masai include many of the "Uncle Remus" type, the cunning and mischievous hare corresponding often to "Br'er Rabbit"; the story of the hare and the elephants (p. 107) is characteristic. As an example of African humor may serve the tale of the caterpillar and the wild animals (p. 184). The proverbs and sayings, of which seventy-five are given, reflect, in interesting fashion, the environment and experiences of the Masai. To our "Don't count your chickens before they are hatched," corresponds "Don't make a cloth for carrying a child in before the child is born"; to our "The last shall be first, and the first last," corresponds, quite in line with the warlike history of the Masai, "The slayer of the enemy has become a coward, and the poltroon has become a brave man." Very expressive also are the following: "The night has ears," "A bull cannot bellow in two places at once," "Do not repair another man's fence until you have seen to your own." The myths and legends of the Masai are consistent with long residence in East Africa, and there is no real proof for the theory advocated by Merker, in his 'Die Masai' (Berlin, 1904), that the cosmogonic traditions, religious ideas, etc., of this people belong to the primitive *fond* of the ancient Hebrews and Babylonians, and are as old as these. But such close resemblances as may exist are rather to be accounted for by more recent Arab and Christian sources.

The following story, included among the "myths and traditions" (p. 278), deserves citation in its entirety, as an example of primitive statement of the relativity of things as they are: "When it rains, the goats say, 'The enemy have beaten us,' and they run away and hide themselves; but the sheep say, 'Mother has oiled us,' and they remain out in the rain. When the sun burns fiercely, the sheep say, 'The enemy have beaten us,' and go and hide themselves in the shade; but the goats say, 'Mother has oiled us,' and stay in the sun." The love of the Masai for their cattle, and the important part these animals

play in the life of the people, are fully illustrated in the customs recorded. Their saying runs, "God gave us cattle and grass; we do not separate the things which God has given us." The Masai are said to possess the most definite religious beliefs of all the tribes of the East Africa Protectorate, and a point of comparison with even Anglo-Saxon practices is revealed by the observation on page 344: "The Masai women often pray twice daily. Men and children usually only pray in time of drought, or when a cattle plague is raging." Woman, therefore, has had poetic justice done to her when the commonest word for "God" in the language, *Eng-aï*, is a substantive with a *feminine* article.

If one reads together the books of Sir Charles Eliot and Mr. Hollis, one will get a good general and scientific account of a people as interesting, perhaps, as any in all Africa, and be informed to protest against the inhuman spirit of militarism, which seeks to drive the native to the wall all over the globe, instead of preparing him to enjoy more fully the land that has been his from time immemorial.

DE GUERVILLE'S NEW EGYPT.

New Egypt. By A. B. De Guerville. E. P. Dutton & Co.

A Frenchman's story of English rule in Egypt, for such is the Egypt of to-day, attracts us, and as we proceed to read it, De Guerville's treatment of the delicate subject excites our admiration for his candor. His book is not conspicuously interesting as a description of the scenery or the antiquities of the Nile, but these can be read in any Guide and in a host of treatises by Egyptologists, or in innumerable sketches by casual travellers. Its shortcomings, therefore, in these respects can be forgiven in consideration of the statements and opinions from rulers, statesmen, and leading financiers which he professes to give at first hand, on all the intricate political and industrial subjects which have made the Egyptian question one of the puzzles of modern diplomacy. Appearing, as it did, just when the Morocco Conference was trying to decide one of the side issues of the Egyptian problem, it helps us to appreciate the tenacity with which France is fighting for supremacy in Northwestern Africa. Through vacillation and timidity during the Arabi rebellion she lost her position in Egypt, which England assumed, and which subsequently, through a chain of circumstances that no one could possibly have foreseen, England was obliged, at first against her honest intentions, but now most willingly, to maintain. By the recent treaty between England and France, which was intended to settle the Newfoundland, the Egyptian, and other of their international complications, France recognized England's rights in Egypt, and England agreed that, as far as she was concerned, France should control Morocco.

Following the graphic story of the suicidal extravagance of Ismail Pasha, which plunged Egypt into bankruptcy and made her the slave of the financiers of Europe, and our author's views of the mistaken attitude of France during and after the Arabi rebellion, one of the most interesting chapters describes the simple domestic and the busy official life of the young Khedive, Abbas Halmi. He is fostering, by his own exertions and with his own capital, the agricultural and industrial interests of Egypt, and actually governing his country wisely and with a certain degree of initiative, under the suggestion and the protection of England, which really thwarts him less arbitrarily than a refractory legislative body sometimes hampers a restless and independent constitutional ruler or president. Abbas Halmi, when he ascended the throne in 1892 as a youth of eighteen, on the abdication of his extravagant grandfather, was impelled by his own inclinations and the advice of officious friends to cross swords with the English representative. M. de Guerville tells the result in his own explicit manner.

"A certain number of the *entourage*, along with several foreigners, more or less connected with friendly governments, all fishers in troubled waters, took advantage of this state of affairs to urge the young sovereign, then without experience, to a complete rupture with England, assuring him that, on the day of the struggle, French bayonets and Russian Cossacks would be there to back him up. Very brave, very sure of himself, the Khedive one day took the great step and showed England the door; then, looking round for his backers, he found . . . space. Those even who had most strongly persuaded him had quietly disappeared."

He soon came to appreciate England's sincere desire to help him to regenerate his country, and since that youthful ebullition he has recognized in Lord Cromer his best friend and his stanchest ally.

Unlike his forefathers, he is satisfied and happy with one wife, whose five children make a charming group of chubby boys and girls. In addition to punctual attention to the duties of state, he has reclaimed from the desert a large tract on the Ismailia Canal, whose cultivation he himself superintends; and out of his own resources he is building a shore line, the Mariut Railroad, from Alexandria to the border of Tripoli. Our author had the pleasure of accompanying the Khedive on a tour of inspection over this railroad, where

"charming little villages, constructed by his Highness, replace here and there the wretched tents in which the Bedouins lived; there is no doubt that the inhabitants of this lost and forgotten land are only too pleased that the Khedive has come to call them to another and a better existence. If at first they were somewhat shy, to-day they have become quite friendly, and they await with impatience the time when the line shall be completed, and a regular and paying trade established between the rich country of Tripoli and the markets of Alexandria and Cairo."

He adds:

"We had our refreshment at the actual terminus, in the doorway of a small house, simple as the tent of a soldier, in which the Khedive resides occasionally when inspecting the works, and from which we could hear the Bedouins, under the direction of his Highness's officers, singing at their task of completing the two hundred miles which still separates them from the frontier of Tripoli."

The glimpses of the Khedival activity certainly falsify the popular impressions of the home life and the occupations of an Oriental ruler, but it may be doubted whether they are duplicated in any Eastern court between the Mediterranean and the Sea of Japan.

All through the book the presence of England is almost obtrusively forced upon the reader. When the author first arrives in Alexandria in the Grand Square, he admires, "superb on his horse of bronze, the statue of Mohammed Ali Pasha, the founder of the reigning house."

"Some few steps further on," he says, "another statue, this time a living one, caught my eye. On a beautiful well-groomed half-bred, an Egyptian cavalryman, erect and unmoving, stiff in his sombre uniform, mounted guard. A finer soldier one could not wish to see. His bronzed skin, black moustache, dark eyes, slender body, straight and supple, made up the ideal of a cavalry soldier. It was with men such as these that the great Pasha made of Egypt a Power. My thoughts are quickly disturbed. Across the square, with the dull tread of marching feet, comes a company of English soldiers. They are boys, beardless boys, almost delicate-looking, clad in unbecoming khaki, and their childish faces almost swallowed up in immense helmets. Can it be that these youths are the conquerors of this dark and warlike figure seated unmoved on his lovely steed?"

When our author reaches the end of his travels in the Sudan, the English are still in evidence, and though his regret that the French do not occupy their place can hardly be disguised, the regret does not degenerate into acrid jealousy or into unfair criticism. He tells in this connection that

"Lord Kitchener, who, seventeen years later, was to vanquish the Dervishes and reconquer the Sudan, was on board Admiral Seymour's flagship during the bombardment of Alexandria as a simple spectator. Immediately after the bombardment, which opened Egypt to the English, he landed with Mr. John Ross, and, going to his house, indulged in a brandy and soda, just as he drank another with Capt. Marchand at Fashoda on the morrow of the events which definitely assured the supremacy of England in the valley of the Nile. The bombardment was the first act, as Fashoda was the last, marking the decline of French influence, the decline which began on that memorable day when the French fleet disappeared on the horizon, and, abandoning Alexandria to the English cannon, carried with it the last hope of those who dreamt of an Egypt, great, strong, and prosperous, under the guiding hand of France."

For what happened during these seventeen years and in the Sudan during the subsequent seven years, he gives the English full credit, but he does not arrogate too much for the French when he claims that the most important works lately executed in Egypt were suggested and often begun by Frenchmen. The *barrage*, for instance, the first dam thrown across the Nile at the head of the Delta, was actually built by French engineers. And he approves the stricture of a correspondent who claims that Cromer, in his reports, "would not have detracted a whit from the glory of England if he had stated that the work already accomplished by the French had served as a point of departure for all the important improvements which they have been able to accomplish." Still, he does not flatter himself or his countrymen with any hope of the renewal of French influence, and he reproves M. de Freycinet for unjustly interpreting England's motives at the time of the occupation.

"She had," he admits, "no desire to enter, *manu militari*, into Egypt, she did everything which lay in her power to avoid doing so, but, forced to do so, she sought to have France with her. I will add that the same 'combination of unheard-of circumstances' which led to the decline of French influence forced England to remain in Egypt. Neither this French decline nor this English ascendancy is 'temporary.' The

time of dreams is passed. It must now be recognized that English influence in Egypt is so deeply rooted that she has nothing to fear, and that, politically speaking, French influence has ceased to exist. I say politically, for the Egyptian, who formerly had two countries, 'his own and Paris,' will always have for France feelings of friendship and affection such as he will never have for any other people. In his character, his tastes, his ideas, and his inclinations, he approaches much nearer to the French than to the English. He can become a sincere and devoted friend to the former, *who treats him as an equal*, but never to the latter, who, on every occasion, asserts his superiority and treats him as an inferior. The Egyptian appreciates what England has done for his country; he is grateful, but coldly, and without enthusiasm. Lord Cromer is feared, respected, admired, but not loved; he is the savior and the judge in whom he has absolute confidence, but he is also the man who, while saving him, has left on his skin the marks of a strong hand."

The Fashoda incident is as inexplicable to De Guerville in its motive as it is to other spectators with fewer means of information. He absolves Marchand from the charge of cowardice or pusillanimity, and accords him all the praise due him for his wonderful march across the Bahr-el-Ghazal to the Nile; nor does he blame the Government of France for rectifying some one's grievous mistake by the only retreat possible, that of accepting England's offer to extend every hospitality to Capt. Marchand and his brave companions. The resurrection of the Sudan, and its new life, which M. de Guerville grows eloquent in describing, would have been arrested had the two great Powers which are, each in its own way, trying to civilize northern Africa, gone to war instead of exchanging compliments over the incident. Only on two remote and improbable contingencies can the Marchand adventure be feebly justified.

"Supposing Kitchener, instead of being victorious over the Dervishes, had been beaten, as Hicks, Gordon, and others had been. The thing was not impossible. Now, supposing again that a large Abyssinian army had joined Marchand, and that under his leadership they had fallen on the Dervishes from the rear and crushed them, he would have reconquered Khartum. The situation in that case would have been different, and France would have been in reality mistress of the Sudan."

With this quotation we must close a book as readable by reason of its style as by its intrinsic merit.

The Story of My Life. By Father George Gapon. With illustrations. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906.

This autobiography of the Russian priest who for a short time filled the public eye as leader of the demonstration ending in "Bloody Sunday" (January 26, 1905), in St. Petersburg, is now accessible in book form, having originally appeared as a serial. The opportunity thus furnished for the study of a curious character has considerable value, from a psychological point of view. A creature of moods, earnest, enthusiastic, fickle, illogical, critical of others, convinced that he is a grand exception to the ordinary rule of mankind, he ingenuously writes himself down as fast-bound within the limits of that rule in virtue of the narrowness of his experience, which seemed to him original. He is not universal, in the sense applied to the great writers of the world; but he is commonplace, in a variation of that sense. For example, his generalizations about the "ignorant and greedy clergy" of Russia in all probability have been uttered with equal justice and injustice of the clergy in every land, Christian or heathen, where ecclesiastics have existed. The same is true regarding the accusation of Pharisaism, neglect of opportunities, and so forth. Had he, as a schoolboy in any other land, neglected his studies and indulged in outspoken criticism of things and people, he would equally have been reprimanded. When he records the "sad fact" that all the best pupils of the Ecclesiastical Seminary became laymen, leaving only the "ignorant, incapable, or depraved" for the Church, he forgets to mention that such seminaries do not aim to educate exclusively for the priesthood (any more than does Trinity School); and is, evidently, unaware of that familiar English saying, "The fool of the family is put into the Church," which brilliant and noble ecclesiastics have proven false, as abundant similar examples in his own land have falsified his rash condemnation. Had he known of the existence of the whipping-post in Delaware, a fine paragraph would have been spoiled; and had he ever been present at great devotional gatherings (such as camp-meetings) in other lands, he might have collected instances of practical solicitude as to material things which would have paralleled his mother's wide-awakeness to the pigs in the garden during her prayers (compare George Sand's 'Winter in Majorca'), and, incidentally, established the disconcerting fact that devoutness is a question of individuals, not of ecclesiastical organizations. He criticises the monks and clergy at a monastery for "mimicking the Metropolitan." All present, including himself, were, undoubtedly, following the prescribed forms.

His description of certain police and factory methods which he regards as unusual will not appear so here, after our own experiences; neither will his account of the Russian equivalent of our friend the "walking delegate," who, himself formerly a workman, lived in luxurious apartments and kept Father Gapon waiting long for an audience.

That Father Gapon must be a man of parts and of attractive personality is evident from the favors he received at the hands of highly-placed persons, and from his career in general. But his instability of mind, the regularity of his oscillations between extremes (in his views of his priestly office, for instance) eventually weary the reader, as do his constant attribution of jealous motives to every one who opposes him, and his self-laudation as to motives and preaching. He announces as his original programme the diversion of the workingman's mind from political ideas; then reprobates it as an invention of the secret police, and brands it as "a pretence of a struggle for economic concessions." When he preaches honest labor, sobriety, and mutual help to the workmen, they go wild with enthusiasm, while the same doctrine from the lips of the rector of the academy produces "disgust," if we are to trust his statements. He acknowledges that he added political aims to his teaching; a little later on denies it; later still, in marshalling the famous procession to see the Emperor at the Winter Palace, he narrates that he ordered religious banners, crosses, and holy pictures to be borne in order to impart the aspect of a religious movement, chronicles the initial reverence of the police for these emblems, and seems surprised that the authorities should, later in the day, have been so mean as to suspect the manifestants of guile, even after his imperious epistle to the Emperor and his admission of having advised the presence of women and children as shields. In fact, the history of that famous demonstration and the incidents which led up to and accompanied it, is manifestly not to be accepted from this book as truthful without collating it with accounts from other sources.

The author relates one amusing and characteristic story of Mr. (now Count) Witte's acumen. Zubatoff, the *agent provocateur* of the police, asked Father Gapon to write a certain report for presentation to Mr. Witte, about labor organizations, and as if emanating from the men themselves. Father Gapon, with the aim of making a tool of Zubatoff, agreed, wrote the report, and a delegation of the workmen presented it to Mr. Witte. The latter read the report through, then calmly asked: "Did you write this, gentlemen?" "Yes," they answered. "Then you ought to become journalists," Mr. Witte replied; and with these words he dismissed them. The illustrations of Father Gapon's parents and comfortable village home, and of himself at different periods of his life, add much to the interest of the book.

Euripides and the Spirit of his Dramas. By Paul Decharme. Translated by James Loeb. The Macmillan Co. 1906.

The late Prof. Paul Decharme's 'Euripide et l'Esprit de son Théâtre,' published in 1893, is on the whole the most satisfactory and the most useful book on Euripides that has so far been produced for the general reader. The scholar will, of course, find what is more peculiarly to his address in Wilamowitz-Moellendorff's long and illuminating introduction to his edition of the "Heracles," and there will be those to soothe their souls with Mr. Gilbert Murray's emotional handling of Euripides, regarded as the Greek Ibsen; or Mr. Verrall's airy conjectures may stimulate those who think that the plays are a series of enigmas, in which the poet's meaning is anything you please, only decidedly not what he seems to say. But it is usually a Frenchman who, in the end, takes the middle road, and, neither yielding to caprice nor plunging aside into the dusty depths of speculative philology, draws after him those who yearn for the safe, the settled, and, above all, the comprehensive view.

This study of Euripides does, then, for the Greek dramatist what Couat did for Aristophanes, and Hauvette for Herodotus and Archilochus. This is precisely the sort of book that should be translated for the sake of the many who do not read Greek at all now, whatever they may have done at college, and who might be balked if not put off altogether by the French of the original work, even assuming that, untranslated, it ever comes under their notice. Mr. Loeb has reduced the number

of pages from 555 to 378, not, of course, by omissions, but by the use of a type which is fully as legible as, though smaller than, that of the original. He has replaced the numerous translations from the plays in French prose by the metrical translations of Mr. Way, whose version of the plays of Euripides is not likely to be surpassed, at any rate in our day, though no doubt Euripides, like Homer, will need to be retranslated every century or so, and readapted to the changing fashions of the English language. As M. Decharme wrote hardly a page without quoting from the plays, the reader profits vastly by Mr. Loeb's judicious inclusion of Mr. Way.

To Decharme's foot-notes the translator has added several which will be of use to the English reader. Mr. Loeb's style is good, and, though it is almost impossible to make such a translation without letting the original idiom show through, Mr. Loeb has escaped the danger of over-literalness, and has lost nothing of the lucidity of Decharme's French. The illustrations are few, as in the original work. The bust of Euripides (from that in the Brunswick Museum) deserves special notice because it has been specially engraved for Mr. Loeb's volume by Kruell. The book, we need not say, is attractively got up. It should be in the hands of all students of the drama.

The England and Holland of the Puritans. By the late Henry Martyn Dexter, D.D., LL.D., and his son, Morton Dexter. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

This detailed and learned work represents effort put forth by three members of the Dexter family, for, besides those whose names stand on the title-page, Dr. Franklin B. Dexter of Yale has had a certain share in the preparation of the text. Most of the materials were collected by Dr. H. M. Dexter, who, having exhausted the sources of information available in America, pursued his studies among the archives of England and Holland. Not only did he gather the data, but nearly completed the first rough draft of the volume. The task of revision has fallen chiefly to Mr. Morton Dexter, who, like his father, supplemented his studies by travel before issuing the narrative in its present form. Every chapter abounds with proofs of exhaustive research, and we doubt whether any resources of real moment have been overlooked by the three writers concerned.

The six books under which the contents are arranged may most fitly be grouped under two main sections. The first of these is occupied with an account of general conditions, embracing also an historical sketch of Scrooby; the second follows the fortunes of the Scrooby congregation from the days when William Brewster first became prominent until the moment when Robinson preached his farewell sermon to the Pilgrim Fathers. For most readers, in New England at least, the second section, with its minute analysis of the Scrooby church members, may well seem the essential part of the work. The first two books, however, are indispensable to a right understanding of the Calvinistic exodus, and contain much rare information digested in systematic form. They are entitled "The England of Our Fathers" and "The Protestantism of Our Fathers." The nature of the environment having first been described, the Scrooby congregation is treated as an organism, whether resident in Notts, in Amsterdam, or in Leyden.

The idea that God sifted a whole nation to send choice grain into the American wilderness, was seldom absent from the consciousness of those who founded the New England colonies; and the same notion seems to have been well grasped by the authors of the present work. The unregenerate condition of England on the eve of the breach with Rome, the incompleteness of the prelatical Reformation, the intolerance of the bishops in their dealing with sectaries—all these are motives which, though not unduly obtruded, never disappear from view. At the close of a chapter entitled "The Shadows in the Picture" may be found the following passage:

"It is not to be inferred that England was given over wholly to rudeness, ignorance, superstition, and even vice. There were many earnest men and women, and doubtless among all classes, of right life, fine character, and ennobling influence. . . . There had been before, and there was to be again, conscientious, determined effort towards a nobler life, alike personal and national. But, nevertheless, it was a time of mental and moral darkness. To such changes from this old order of things as already had begun to be wrought by Nonconformity and Separation, allusion will be made more particularly hereafter."

Here, for example, it is pretty clearly indicated that in Nonconformity or Separation rather than in the Establishment will be found the uplifting, transforming force. Cartwright and Browne, not Parker and Hooker, are looked upon in this volume as the evangelists who possessed the true light.

The topography and annals of Scrooby are discussed with much fulness, and no consideration is left untouched which can help to explain why men like Brewster, Bradford, and Robinson are made to stand out with especial clearness from the plain and sober background of these recalcitrants; but, with the exception of a few leaders, the details of personal development are held in strict subordination to the religious issues around which the lives of the Scrooby people turned. For them the controversy over the nature of the true Church obliterated all professional and selfish interests. The individual withers in the presence of an overshadowing cause.

While the English portion of the subject bulks more largely than the portion which is devoted to Holland, we have found greater novelty in the chapters devoted to the life of the Pilgrims at Amsterdam and Leyden. At this stage the personal element grows more intimate than before, and we are enabled to see how, by a process of natural selection, the emigrants of the *Mayflower* were singled out from the rank and file of the English refugees in the Low Countries. The relations of the exiles with their Dutch co-religionaries are brought out in strong relief, to incidental demonstration of the fact that, even in the seventeenth century, the sympathy kindled by a common Calvinism could not obliterate national prejudices and the business instinct altogether.

Lightness of touch this volume does not possess in an eminent degree, but it contains a large amount of information which has been digested with affectionate and conscientious care.

Burma: Painted and Described by R. Talbot Kelly, R.B.A., F.R.G.S., Commander of the Medjidieh. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

A People at School. By H. Fielding Hall. Macmillan. 1906.

'Burma' is a book of paintings first and text last, as the title indicates. There are seventy-five colored plates, presumably reproductions of Mr. Kelly's pictures, against two hundred and fifty pages of description. But the palm goes to the paintings. They are faithful counterparts of marvellous colors, such as only Burmese forests and costumes can show; delicately blended, despite the gorgeousness of the whole. Only an art critic could essay the task of passing judgment on this, the more fascinating side, of Mr. Kelly's book, which is, in sum, a fit companion to the same author-artist's 'Egypt.' To the lay reader it is a sensuous delight to wander here from one gay scene to another, from the glowing shrine of the Shwe Dagon to the banks of the Irrawaddy, the tangled glade, the street in Nyaung-u, vivid with green, pink, and purple of gown and foliage alike, and so to close the book without reading anything! But this is scarcely fair to the author, who shares honors with the artist. Only, in writing, Mr. Kelly has more competitors and is perhaps not unrivalled. So personally we prefer his colors to his black and white.

Nevertheless, there are passages in the rambling account of personal experiences which attract attention, and one learns much of the Burmese themselves, that happy, lazy folk, whose women are so much better than the men that they have taken to marrying only foreigners, in disgust at the apathy of their own males. The latter sit at home (while the women keep shop) and tend the babies, but still have the hardihood to pray for "health, more money, and lots of children." The description of native drama is interesting. The stage has no scenery, and when the actors are not busy with their part they sit down (still on the stage) and smoke. Mr. Kelly had some excitements in travelling and some amusing adventures. At one station, being unable to buy any food, he hired a policeman to steal it for him, which pacified the natives, who seemed quite content to be robbed first and paid afterwards. The spontaneous ignition of the forests is attributed to the "rubbing together of the silica-coated bamboo-stems as they sway in the breeze." This is certainly the explanation given by the ancient Hindus, who assert that the bamboo ignites itself.

The promise contained in Mr. Hall's 'Soul of a People' is not quite fulfilled in his latest work, but it is difficult to keep the day-school at the same spiritual level as the Sunday-school, or to discuss the body as airily as the soul. We said, in discussing Mr. Hall's former book, that it contained gross historical errors, while it fascinated by style and subject. In 'A People at School' we have a sketch partly biographical (Mr. Hall is a Burmese

official of twenty years' standing), partly historical, and partly descriptive of present-day conditions. Here and there the author repeats himself, as on pages 29 and 262, but most of the matter is well ordered. It is divided into two parts, the chief divisions being the author's experience and the results of his experience (as interpretation). The "Oriental Mind," he thinks, does not exist, the mental difference between West and East is all humbug; and he is inclined to ascribe Burmese endurance of petty ills and great calamities to the religion, rather than the endurance of their religion to their (Oriental) nature. This is a too sweeping denial, and could easily be disproved if it were worth while. So strong is the influence of this "feminine religion" on the author himself that he talks of a she Fate. Even "Providence" appears as *she:* "Providence has her own ways, she acts," etc. (p. 10). Strangely enough, Mr. Hall, in 'The People at School,' comes out as a veritable Jingo. Buddhism, with its "feminine ideals," prohibits war, but it is well for the Burmese that they were conquered by a better people, who know that formal religion must step back and take a second place, as compared with the religion of Necessity and war. "Religion was made for man, not man for religion." Apparently there will be no religion left in Burma shortly, for the monks and laity are repudiating their own spiritual discipline and—listen, all missionary societies—"there have been no conversions" (to Christianity). "Amongst the Burmese, Christianity makes no headway at all. It has, in fact, in many places actually declined. To the Burman the Christian theory and the Christian priest has [*sic*] no attraction" (p. 255).

Mr. Hall's English is not impeccable. "Never before have we taken over a complete people like we did in Upper Burma, never before have we had to subdue a country as we had it"—is incorrect in more ways than one; but, despite such slips, and even despite graver errors of fact and judgment and the decline in style as compared with the previous volume, there is an honesty in Mr. Hall which makes his studies attractive, and it is always refreshing to get a first-hand impression. Sometimes the author puts historical changes in a single clear statement that could not be surpassed, as when he closes his discussion of the position of the village headman with these words: "He is no longer the representative of the village to the Government, but the representative of Government to the village." His pet idea seems to be that the Burmese people are all children, a young nation, as exemplified by the fact that men and women are almost indistinguishable in dress (!) and figure up to the age of twenty. It will be news to most people that these Burmese Buddhists all eat meat, even the monks—a good sign, in the author's opinion, that they are giving up religion for real life, *à la* the English, who are too virile to forego meat, hunting, and war.

Shelburne Essays. By Paul Elmer More. Third Series. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1906.

In the ceaseless procession of books about books that files and must forever file before the reviewer, there are those, the majority, whose eye, as it were, he had rather not catch, because he knows without a second glance that they will merely irritate him with their superficial æstheticism. But then, again, there are for his consolation the true and tried, the friends who have blood in them while the rest flit like shadows. Such are the collected essays of Mr. Churton Collins, or the late R. H. Hutton, which, though usually in form reviews of some reprint or new edition of an author, are genuine guides, written at leisure, and always adding fresh information or a fresh point of view. The "Shelburne Essays" have proved their right to be placed in the same category. In this the latest volume, Mr. More has collected ten Essays and a "Note" on Don Juan, which are fully up to the standard of the two earlier books. About half of these studies were inspired by the appearance of a new edition of the works of the author discussed, Swinburne, Christina Rossetti, Sterne, Mr. Thomas Wright's 'Correspondence of Cowper,' and the 'Life and Letters of J. Henry Shorthouse.' Others, like that on "The Centenary of Sainte-Beuve," perhaps the best in the volume, are independent essays. But none of them has the characteristics of the mere book review. They all range far beyond the immediate theme.

In the Shorthouse essay, for example, we have no mere description of the obscure career of the writer of 'John Inglesant,' that fascinating and too little read romance of the life of discipline, but a lucid account of the state of the religious parties in England at the time when Shorthouse was slowly composing the work in the hard-earned leisure of his profession as a manufacturing chemist; a born mystic for whom the sunshine on the grass was a sacrament and the whole of life to be envisaged as a divine drama. Two great visionaries, Newman and Shorthouse, if we may bracket them for the moment, ended their days in Birmingham, that most prosaic of modern cities. But the incongruity of this setting surprises the more in the novelist's case, because he had known no other, and never even visited the Italy of which he gives so vivid an impression in 'John Inglesant.' Shorthouse was a Neo-Platonist in soul, made of the same stuff as Plotinus, a curious and isolated figure that defied its environment. Mr. More does not speak of a paper contributed to *Macmillan's Magazine* after he had become "John Inglesant" to the English world of letters, but it is interesting because it shows the preoccupation of the man. The paper was called "The Humorous in Literature," and in it Shorthouse maintained that for humor, since it touches the deepest springs of human nature, one must necessarily turn to the Gospels, to such a parable as the Prodigal Son, which will furnish the most striking transitions from joy to sorrow and back to joy. This was indeed a visionary's conception of humor.

The last essay in the volume is purely philosophical, and was written some years ago, we are told, by Mr. More's brother. It is an interesting historical sketch of that attempt to find a resting-place in the flux of things which has occupied all philosophers and many scientific men since the day of Heracleitus of Ephesus. It is aimed, like M. Poincaré's 'La Valeur de la Science' or his 'La Science et l'Hypothèse,' at the intelligent reader who is not an expert though his general training gives him a right to judge—a type of mind first recognized and respected by Aristotle. In his essay on Swinburne Mr. More has analyzed acutely the causes of the weariness, chiefly of the ear, that besets in the end the most ardent of Swinburne's admirers—provided, of course, that he has an ear to be wearied.

International Law; A Treatise. By L. Oppenheim. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

These volumes, the author modestly says in his preface, are intended to be an elementary treatise for beginners in International Law. The author has taught the subject, both on the Continent, as a Continental, and in England—a rare qualification—and we are inclined to think that others than beginners will find his survey of the field useful. The lists of treatises and monographs printed at the commencement of each topic give a bibliography probably not accessible in any other English treatise. The only recent work with which it can be compared is Hall's 'International Law,' a book not elementary, and, from want of proper editing since the author's death, not quite as useful as formerly.

Of course, any book designed as a compendium of International Law must, in the main, be a repetition of what is to be found in other books. Even the general basis of treatment—Questions Arising in a State of Peace, Questions Arising or Resulting in a State of War, Neutrality, Prize—is essentially fixed. Mr. Oppenheim, however, has managed to give a new turn to the enquiry, by making a separate title, though too short a one, of the Responsibility of States. The idea of responsibility runs through the whole subject, but generally this is rather assumed than explicitly taught. It is an idea which might be found capable of great development in aid of exposition.

The author has a system which underlies his analysis; the best and most important part of his system is his rule of giving his readers the law as it is, and not as it ought to be. This, combined with his natural international impartiality, makes his book an extremely fair and rational one. The national or patriotic bias which runs through most writing on this subject, he has escaped. He seems even capable of keeping the scales balanced as between neutrals and belligerents. The "three rules" of the Treaty of Washington, though not yet International Law, he recognizes as embodying an important principle, while on the other hand he inclines to think that the *Bundesrath* case in the South African war has settled the rule that the old doctrine of continuous voyage can be applied to contraband, though shipped from one neutral port to another; from the Russo-Japanese war he thinks the rule established that belligerent men-of-war seeking asylum in neutral ports must be dismantled and detained with their crews until the termination of the war, if more than a temporary asylum is requisite. The *Reshitelni* cutting-out case, about which so much has been written, he dismisses in a few words

as an obvious violation of neutral territory.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addison's Essays. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Bibliography of the Sanskrit Drama. Edited by Montgomery Schuyler. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Cambridge Modern History. Planned by Lord Acton. Vol. IX.: Napoleon. Macmillan Co. $4 net.
Downey, Edmund. Charles Lever: His Life and his Letters. 2 vols. Scribners. $5 net.
Ewald, Carl. My Little Boy. Translated by Alexander T. De Mattos. Scribners. $1 net.
Fanshawe, Reginald. Corydon: An Elegy. Henry Frowde. 4s. 6d. net.
Hill, Janet McKenzie. The Up-to-Date Waitress. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Holyoake, George Jacob. The History of Co-operation. 2 vols. Appleton. $5 net.
Karasowski, Moritz. Frederic Chopin: His Life and Letters. 2 vols. Imported by Scribners.
Lane, Elinor Macartney. All for the Love of a Lady. Appleton. $1.25.
Mansion, J. E. First-Year French. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Mitchell, S. Weir. A Diplomatic Adventure. Century Co. $1.
Palmer, Frederick. Lucy of the Stars. Scribners. $1.50.
Reynolds, John S. Reconstruction in South Carolina. Columbia, S. C.: State Company.
Richards, Thomas C. Samuel J. Mills. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25 net.
Sabatier, Paul. Disestablishment in France. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Sewell, Cornelius V. V. Common Sense Gardens. The Grafton Press. $2 net.
Storm's Im Sonnenschein. Edited by G. L. Swiggett. American Book Co.
Taylor, Edward Robeson. Into the Light. San Francisco: The Stanley-Taylor Co. $1.25 net.
Tracy, Wm. P. Old Catholic Maryland. Swedesboro, N. J.: St. Joseph's Rectory.
Vance, Louis Joseph. The Private War. Appleton. $1.50.
Von Suttner, Bertha. "Ground Arms!" Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Walker, Dawson. The Gift of Tongues. Imported by Scribners. $1.75 net.
Webster's Standard Pocket Dictionary. Compiled by A. B. Chambers. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Weltwirtschaft. Edited by E. von Halle. I. Teil. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Williams, H. Noel. Later Queens of the French Stage. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Windle, Bertram C. A. The Wessex of Thomas Hardy. John Lane Co.
Wisconsin Historical Collections. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. XVII. Madison: Published by the Society.
Young O'Briens. John Lane Co.

Henry Holt and Company have just published a delightful, humorous novel by *Sydney Preston*, author of "*The Abandoned Farmer*," entitled ON COMMON GROUND. An idyll in both treatment and subject, it is the story of a gentle bachelor who retires to a small farm to raise chickens. The chickens wander into a neighbor's garden and the idyll begins. It is all told with Mr. Preston's characteristic charm and humor. $1.50.

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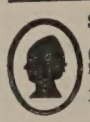

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 10, 1906.

The Week.

"No coal strike" is good news to every man, woman, and child in the region where anthracite is the common fuel, as well as to the country at large. The decision of the miners to continue work under the award of the Strike Commission is evidently prompted by a desire to let well alone. Throughout the negotiations John Mitchell and his committee have been desirous of avoiding a strike. Very early they receded from one or two demands which were manifestly absurd; and then they made a plausible offer to submit the whole controversy to the original Strike Commission. Whatever be the facts as to the relative increase in cost of living and in wages, the miners must be fairly well off. Mitchell admits that his reason for yielding was fear that the miners would not back him up. That means, of course, that under present conditions the miners are so comfortable that by a strike they would lose far more than they would gain. Had the operators acceded to the blanket request for arbitration, and had the Commission discovered that the former award was still fair and that the miners had no grievance, popular sympathy would have been with the operators, on the general ground that the miners had kicked up a row about nothing.

Eighty per cent. of the tonnage on the Great Lakes is tied up by the strike ordered by the Lake Pilots' Protective Association for recognition by the vessel owners. No question of wages or of hours is involved. The issue is single: Shall the union or the owners control the pilots? The strike is almost exactly a repetition of the unsuccessful one of two years ago, when the lake captains went out because their affiliation with a union was regarded by the owners as inimical to the success of the fleet. Now, the owners say that the captains and the pilots, who are really mates, are the only representatives they have on the vessels who are not subject to the orders of a labor union. They see no reason why these men should not continue to look out first for their employers' interests. They declare that not more than 10 per cent. of the mates are in the union, and that they are not the real instigators of the strike. Back of the pilots' union stands the International 'Longshoremen, Marine, and Transport Workers' Association, whose members, as well as the ore and freight-handlers and grain scoopers, are out on a sympathetic strike. The settlement of the dispute seems to depend mainly upon the urgency of the Steel Trust's need for keeping its ore boats going, since its fleet is the largest on the lakes, and any agreement it made would be likely to govern.

The message of President Roosevelt and the report of Commissioner Garfield on the relations between the Standard Oil Company and the railways are documents which may well have an important effect upon politics. As the President and the Commissioner of Corporations sum it up, "the Standard Oil Company has benefited enormously up almost to the present moment by secret rates"; the shipments of the Standard Oil have been "falsely way-billed" and "blind-billed"; many of the discriminations have been "clearly in violation of the Interstate Commerce law"; and most of the railroads, when discovered, have promptly stopped their illegal practices. The President urges that, in view of this notable case, "the only way by which the discriminations can be cured is by conferring upon the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to take quick and effective action in regulating the rates." We cannot see, however, that Mr. Garfield's report, or fifty like it, however much they may inflame popular feeling, could alter the necessity for a carefully drawn clause under which the rate-making power of the Commission shall be subject to full review by the courts. In the meantime, the President has a strong weapon in the existing statute. The penalty for violation of the Interstate Commerce law can be enforced against both railway and shipper—a fine of $5,000 for each offence and imprisonment for two years. If prosecution of the law-breakers against whom the President declaims with such fervor were pressed to the bitter end by the Department of Justice, we should have a wholesome recognition of the rights of the small shipper, even without new legal machinery.

The debate as to whether the President has "surrendered" in accepting the so-called Allison amendment to the Railway-rate bill, is purely academic. Consistency has never been President Roosevelt's ruling passion. His motto has always been that a wise man changes his mind as often as may be desirable. To-day he declares roundly, "I am standing in my original position." In that case his original plan was to give the courts broad powers in reviewing the decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission; and those spokesmen who thought he was for "limited review" have been mistaken. They took his words in a narrow, literal sense, whereas he, like certain theologians, has been using language in a large, spiritual, or even allegorical signification. The main thing is that the Allison amendment removes the last doubt as to the constitutionality of the Rate bill. The advocates of "limited review" have obviously been trying to come as near as they could to beating the Constitution in order to "soak it to the railroads"; but this amusing enterprise they have finally abandoned as impracticable. The President heartily applauds. "No genuine friend of the bill," he writes, "can object to it [the Allison amendment] without stultifying himself." And, we may add, no genuine friend of Constitutional government can object to it without stultifying himself.

The amendment upon which the Republican Senators have come together reads as follows:

> "The venue of suits brought in any of the circuit courts of the United States against the Interstate Commerce Commission to enjoin, set aside, annul, or suspend any order or requirement of the Commission shall be in the district where the carrier against whom such order or requirement may have been made has its principal operating office; and jurisdiction to hear and determine such suit is hereby vested in such courts."

This clause, on the face of it, allows the court to suspend any ruling of the Interstate Commerce Commission until the reasonableness of such an order shall have been determined. This would seem to be a "broad review" in any proper sense of that term. "The power to take quick and effective action," which the President wishes to have conferred on the Interstate Commerce Commission, may be somewhat curtailed by the courts; but this very clause providing for a judicial review will in the long run be the protection of the small and independent shipper. In complex matters involving nice questions of law, the race is not always to the swift. A law which might prove unconstitutional and therefore impracticable in operation, could never be quick and effective. A provision which safeguards all interests, even those of an oppressive railway or an extortionate monopoly, is, after all, the strongest bulwark of the feeble and the downtrodden.

Whether Senator Tillman's remarks in Congress on the Federal judiciary on Thursday will or will not give to President Roosevelt a sense of gratification because his own angry denunciation of Judge Humphrey's decision is bearing fruit, we do not pretend to know. People at all familiar with American public affairs will not, however, be surprised to see the attack of the President on a

Federal judge so promptly echoed, with additional emphasis and broader application, by radical agitators. If assaults on the judiciary reappear later on, in the platforms of parties appealing to social unrest and class prejudice, there will be still less occasion for surprise. Mr. Tillman's speech appears to have been made up, for the most part, of country newspaper clippings telling of judges who travelled with railway lobbyists, shot game in defiance of State laws, and appeared on the bench in a state of intoxication. We do not happen to know whether these specific allegations are true or not, and we doubt if Senator Tillman does. If they are true, the Constitution and the law provide adequate means of dealing with them. But that a collection of alleged incidents of the sort should be brought forward in Congressional speeches, with the obvious inference that Federal courts cannot be relied upon for honesty, is something which, we imagine, sober-minded citizens will hardly enjoy. There are those who will say that, in the present state of the public mind, such insinuations are a spark in a powder-magazine. Who is responsible for it? Coming from Senator Tillman alone, whose attitude towards the Federal courts was familiar as far back as his Governorship of South Carolina, comment on his speech would probably be that he must not be taken too seriously. Following a formal message to Congress by the President of the United States, in which a Federal judge was accused of "making a farce of the law," with the added declaration that "I can hardly believe that the ruling of Judge Humphrey will be followed by other judges," the Tillman diatribe at once gets a very different sort of hearing.

If Senator Aldrich kills the bill admitting denaturized alcohol free of duty, he will rouse much resentment, and thus do not a little to strengthen the movement for general revision of the tariff. The correspondent of such an orthodox Republican paper as the *Tribune* asserts that, although a majority of the Senate Committee on Finance will vote for a favorable report, nevertheless the measure is to be referred to a sub-committee. This action is nominally intended to provide what Senator Aldrich calls "certain safeguards," but it may postpone the matter to another session. In the meantime, the members of the House of Representatives are much disturbed by the threats against a bill which they passed almost unanimously. The entire Illinois delegation has taken pains to go to the Senate and urge the extreme necessities of the case. Their arguments are substantially those which the editor of the *American Agriculturist* brings forward in an open letter to Senator Aldrich. The *Agriculturist* flatly asks the Senator from Rhode Island whether he fears that the proposed legislation "may interfere with the Standard Oil Company's monopoly of gasolene, naphtha, etc.," or may "destroy the wood-alcohol industry." Both the Standard Oil Company and the manufacturers of wood alcohol are, in the opinion of the *Agriculturist*, able to look out for themselves. On the other hand, the denaturized alcohol will supply farmers and all other classes of the community with cheap light, heat, and power.

The "Patent-Medicine bill" failed of passage this year by the action of some of its critical friends who insisted on amendments at a time when any amendments whatever meant the failure of the measure. The eleventh-hour amendments were "exemptions." That is to say, it was sought to permit the sale of certain specific drugs, regarded by the sponsors of the bill as dangerous, without giving any warning to the purchaser. It is urged that certain of the drugs named in the bill as first drawn, while poisonous, were not "habit-forming." This might be an excellent argument against a law that should seek to prohibit the sale of these ingredients entirely. But the Stevens-Wainwright bill did nothing of the sort. It merely insisted that the buyer of these patent remedies should know what he was buying. It may plausibly be argued that all ingredients of proprietary medicines, poisonous or not, should be honestly published. We retain our former confidence that the passage of this bill, or one like it, is only a question of time. Meanwhile, there is another year of grace for the nostrum-makers.

Reed Smoot was first brought before the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections in March, 1903. Now, in May, 1906, the committee resolves that he is not entitled to his seat as a Senator of the United States from the State of Utah. In the three years of his trial one Senator, Hoar of Massachusetts, has died; another, McComas of Maryland, has retired from the Senate; and a third, Clarke of Arkansas, has refused to serve and been displaced by Patterson of Colorado. It has been freely said that the committee was not at all anxious to come to any agreement during Smoot's term, but pressure from the anti-Mormon element in Utah, Idaho, and the Pacific slope has finally forced this 8-to-5 vote for expulsion. Three of the Senator's six years of service in Washington have passed, and the general feeling is that he has been a useful, hard-working member. His committee assignments have included membership in the Forest Reservations, Pensions, and Public Lands committees of the Senate. There has been no charge of polygamous practices brought against him. The case rested on the implication that his oath of allegiance to the Mormon Church prevented him from giving complete allegiance to the United States. In ten days the Senate will be asked to vote on the resolution of the committee proposed by Senator Heyburn.

The bulky 'Report on Inspection of United States Consulates in the Orient,' which has been sent by the President to Congress, embodies chiefly the confidential report of Herbert H. D. Peirce, who visited these Far Eastern consulates in 1904. Mr. Peirce found that there was no difficulty in locating the trans-Suez thirst. Consul-General McWade at Canton had been overcome by it. Vice-Consul-General Colegrove appears in the report as the Ulysses of a dipsomaniac Odyssey in the China Seas. The consular thirst, it appears, is not merely raised, but reasonably gratified. In perusing the records of Consul-General Williams of Singapore, McWade of Canton, and Goodnow of Shanghai—in considering the mass of accusation and recrimination between these corrupt officials and the commercial *canaille* with which they dwelt—one has a very striking commentary on Mr. Kipling's theory of the equivalence of the best and worst. O. F. Williams's case is a mild one. He merely carried on a debt-collecting business against the Sultan of Lingga and Rhio, to whom he was not accredited, in behalf of Chinese and other creditors. The dunning of the Sultan must count among the finer international pleasantries. Consul Williams "hesitates to take official action" (in the matter of a Chinese claim), but makes a "friendly request" for answer "by return mail." After allowing the Sultan three weeks, Williams writes, concerning the claim of $9,091.76, "in which I have an interest," that, since his Majesty is "a ruler of vast wealth, you must have failed to get my letter." Again Williams requests "reply by return mail," and concludes in the most amicable spirit: "It will be much pleasanter and better to settle the matter at once, as we are each busy men."

The charges against McWade are made by persons more or less suspect themselves, but this much is certain: that he employed as consular clerk an ex-convict, Tony de Silva, who had served three years at Hongkong for larceny, and that he was in correspondence with an agent, Charles E. Richardson, concerning the fraudulent issue of passports to Chinese laborers in transit for the Philippine Islands. Goodnow's foible was "unofficial fees"—petty items that could be tacked on, or, complaint arising, taken off from the legal schedule. Eighty-two charges against him were made in all, varying in seriousness from petty "unofficial" extortions and legal fees asked for services not

rendered, to issuing false passports and fraudulent registration of five Chinese steamers under the American flag. Characteristic of Goodnow's methods is the charge of $85.75 for probating the will of Frank Reid, deceased (Report, page 272). On complaint, the fees were reduced to $52.75. The reduced bill still contained about $17.50 of illegal charges, which indicated to Inspector Peirce that "the consul-general or some one in his office is acting as an attorney before his own court and collecting the fees as official court fees."

The belated attack of the "hyena politicians" on Gov. Hoch of Kansas made it certain that he would be renominated by the Republicans. It used to be understood in the West that an attack on the private character of a candidate, in order to have any effect, must be made on the very day of the convention. Twenty-four hours of reflection was judged to be sufficient time for a reaction against the "slanderers" to set in. The Marion editor is the logical choice of the party, and, with the exception of W. R. Stubbs, the strongest candidate that could have been named, yet his backers are undeniably nervous. The newspapers of Topeka and Kansas City have been pointing to the strong Democratic ticket headed by ex-Senator Harris, and suggesting that the Republicans come out with a platform as clear on State issues as that adopted by the Democrats. Two definite questions have been raised by the Democrats—strict enforcement of prohibition and the reform of the State Board of Railroad Commissioners. At Topeka last week the Republicans met these issues by denouncing the Steel Trust and agreeing that President Roosevelt should be encouraged in his fight for rate regulation. There is every prospect of an unusually lively campaign, with the Republicans, for the first time in years, on the defensive.

Our eight prize-winners at Athens deserve heartiest congratulations. To win is agreeable under any circumstances; to win under the shadow of the Acropolis must pass for the fine flower of athletic triumph. The victory of the American team is all the more welcome that its personnel was on the whole of a merely average sort. Only two or three of the strongest men were able to make the trip. Accordingly, the Olympian honors so easily won are really a tribute to the average excellence of our athletes. On the other hand, the difficulty of securing strong teams for games so remote makes the first place more or less a matter of chance. For example, the loss of Ewry or Sheridan, winners in such specialties as the standing jumps and the weights, would have pared down our victory by a third. An international honor, however, like a gift horse, should not be scrutinized too closely. The present one does very well. Considering the games more broadly, one is tempted, of course, to emphasize the fact that they are a revival—to imagine them as like the ancient meetings as possible. A very little study of the events provokes, on the contrary, a lively sense of the differences. What would the Greeks of the Olympiads have said to rowing—then the work of slaves—rifle and pistol shooting, shot-gun practice, and lawn tennis? That they would have regarded these unspectacular sports with keen curiosity at least is certain, but it is no wonder that the modern Athenians reserve the enthusiasm for the Marathon race—an event that, besides its historical association, goes back to the elemental conception of the hero athlete. The Canadian winner may not in the ancient fashion receive the award of a statue; the cable reports, however, that, if he desires a running mate for life, he may at least have his choice of Galateas.

The tendency of the Irishman to be "agin the government" is illustrated anew at Westminster in the case of the Education bill. John Redmond's Nationalists cannot and will not support it. The decision is surprising because Mr. Birrell's very contentious measure applies merely to England and Wales, and the natural attitude of the Irish members would have been one of complete disinterestedness. This is, however, a pose impossibly difficult for any Celt to maintain, and one may assume that Mr. Redmond's group is merely entering a protest in behalf of the few Roman Catholic "voluntary schools" that are to pass out of the hands of the Church or else lose their subsidies. There is a curious rumor afloat that some of Keir Hardie's Laborites will oppose the bill because it is still too favorable to the religious denominations. As an old-time Calvinist, Mr. Birrell is accustomed to face without wincing the formula, "You'll be damned if you do; you'll be damned if you don't." He will apparently have every opportunity to practise the resignation that should come from living under such an alternative. A defection of votes, which may roughly be estimated at one hundred, is fairly serious, because many of the Liberals are very shaky in their allegiance to non-sectarian public schools. Meantime, the wonder grows that the alignment on so important an educational measure should be made on issues that have next to nothing to do with the actualities of education.

The French election returns on May 6 may be somewhat affected by revoting next Sunday in *arrondissements* in which there was no choice; but the results indicate that the Ministry has made slight gains. Its estimated majority is 100. A curious habit of the discontented French voter—that of simple abstention from the polls—has prevented the Socialist protest against recent repression from becoming effective. Such abstention in most cases merely cuts down the Ministerial majority or postpones the election of the Government candidate. It is not a practical sort of opposition. The old personages—the Abbé Gayraud and Vicomte de Mun of the Right; Ribot and Bourgeois of the Moderate groups of the Centre; the present Ministers, Jaurès, Doumer, and Delcassé—are all to return to the Chamber. The country has spoken emphatically in favor of the Separation Act, and as clearly stands behind the paternalistic policies of the Sarrien Government. The virulence of Nationalism was spent some time ago, and it is no surprise that Habert and Marchand have failed in the first elections. Even the picturesque Déroulède must try the luck of a second ballot. Clearly, the times are hard for the "League of Patriots" that made such a stir in the piping Dreyfus days. The elections pretty well illustrate the absurdity of turning out Premier Rouvier at the culmination of his Moroccan triumph. All the policies that have prevailed are his, and it is doubly fortunate that Sarrien has much of his predecessor's judicial and conciliatory spirit. Since the "Red" Socialists have made so small a showing, it is probable that the composite Radical-Socialist majority may hold together for several sessions.

The reasons for M. Witte's retirement are still merely inferential, though something may be gathered from the character of his successor. M. Goremykin, some ten years ago, was Minister of the Interior, and made it his chief duty to keep all disagreeable news from the Czar. For such suppression of the truth he was exposed and virtually dismissed by M. Witte. Goremykin's revenge came in 1903, when the reactionary cabal of Plehve drove Witte out of office, only to suffer prompt shipwreck itself between the political uprising at home and the military disasters in the Far East. The new Premier, then, must be regarded as the firm friend of the reactionaries. It is most unfortunate that the Czar is put in an attitude of suspicion towards the Duma at the moment of changing prime ministers, thus playing into the hands of the radicals, and making doubly difficult the task of conciliation and compromise undertaken by the moderate reformers. Witte's sympathy with the new movement was defective, but he was at least an unprejudiced observer of the political situation, and willing to make any needful concession. The accession of Goremykin means, we fear, the opposite.

REPUBLICAN DANGER SIGNALS.

The announcement that E. Rosewater, editor of the Omaha *Bee*, is a candidate to succeed Millard in the United States Senate is merely a formal acknowledgment of a long-held ambition. It is taken seriously, however, and the Omaha journalist's career as a rabid enemy of the railroads is likely to give him a great advantage over the conservative Millard Whatever Nebraska Republicans may have said about Rosewater in the past as a peevish meddler in politics and an anti-railroad ranter, they must admit now that he comes nearer to representing party sentiment than any one else in the State. And yet, from his own point of view, the Democrats are stronger and more consistent in their opposition to corporate influences, whether in the form of railways or tariff-protected Trusts. As in Nebraska, so it is in Kansas and Minnesota, where in the coming State elections the railroads are to play important parts. The Republican leaders morning and afternoon are being admonished that their only hope lies in stealing Democratic anti-corporation thunder. In such widely separated States as Massachusetts and California the Congressional delegations are preparing to assure their constituents that, while they are strong for tariff revision and are deadly enemies of the Steel Trust, the Speaker is such a tyrannical old fogy that he won't tolerate this "Democratic doctrine" in the House.

The Minneapolis *Journal*, a Republican organ, notes an unusual apathy among the voters of Minnesota concerning the coming gubernatorial election. This apathy, it says, is "unfortunate for the party's prospects." Here is a State that has a normal Republican plurality of 100,000, that has a Democratic Governor, and is apparently not yearning to get back into the Republican fold. The *Journal* explains it in this way: "The army of Republicans who helped to elect Gov. Johnson got a taste of independence, and, unless they feel a personal interest in the Republican nominee this year, they will be hard to hold in line." Gov. Johnson and the Democratic platform, in fact, come nearer to pleasing the voters of Minnesota than any patchwork declaration likely to be put forward by Republicans. What is written of the party leaders in that State—"They recognize the danger, and for the most part are anxious to learn what the voters want, if they can only find out"—is more or less true in other States. The Republicans are trying to adjust their declarations and choose their candidates in accordance with the new demands.

How successfully the party which is commonly regarded as friendly to the hunted corporations has itself turned hunter, remains to be seen. Last week, at the Kansas Republican State convention, the chairman, William Roscoe Stubbs, called upon the party, not only to rescue the State from the grip of the railroads, but also to reach out and grapple with the Steel Trust. That, considering popular temper in Kansas, was good advice, but there is no general belief that it will be taken. The Kansas City *Star* declares that "it will suit the [Republican] machine crowd in Kansas a mighty lot better to see the Democrats capture the State with Harris than it would suit them to see Stubbs succeed in his movement to protect the Government of Kansas against the special interests that have laid out their plans to capture the next Administration at Topeka, with Hoch as its figurehead." William Allen White's paper, the Emporia *Gazette*, put the matter tersely the day before the convention met: "If the Lord doesn't send the Kansas Republicans a Moses, and send him by express prepaid, before to-morrow night, it will be a great day for the Democracy!"

As the conventions and primaries are held in the Congressional districts, this difficulty in bringing "Bourbonized" Republicans around to a successful advocacy of the old Democratic doctrines becomes more evident. We may recall Representative Mudd's promise to work for tariff revision if he is reëlected by the Republicans of the Fifth Maryland District. In Massachusetts, also, the Tariff Reform League, formed among the business men of the State, is sure to have something to say about the make-up of the delegation in the Sixtieth Congress. Ex-Gov. Douglas, who is active in the work of the League, promises the people of the State a change from a system under which "our industries have to pay duty on raw materials or buy them of domestic producers who will sell only at tariff-made prices." Moreover, just how the California delegation is to explain the burial of the Madden resolution to admit free of duty structural steel needed to rebuild San Francisco, we shall be interested to learn.

In the eyes of the standpatters of Iowa, Gov. Cummins is a radical. Some have called him a Populist. But in his campaign for control of the Republicans of the State against George D. Perkins, a Shaw standpatter, he has shown unexpected strength. The Governor's friends point to his success as a warning to the party to rouse itself to the fact that new issues are being raised that have to be met. This year, it must be remembered, there is no Roosevelt to head a national ticket and set a "tidal wave" of Republicanism in motion. In the Congressional districts, and in the score of States that are to choose Governors, the candidates will have to stand on their own merits. If they meet the issues of tariff revision and corporation control less skilfully than the Democrats, there will be some great "rescue" work for the Republican managers in 1908.

"THAT" TARIFF SPEECH.

"I think," said a Republican member of Congress after Mr. John Sharp Williams had concluded his speech of Saturday week, "I may justly congratulate the gentleman upon *that* speech, because in the last seven years that I have been a member of this House each and every time the gentleman has delivered *that* speech, I think I have been able to note a decided improvement. . . ." This sally, of course, elicited the customary "[Laughter.]". Whether it should be a serious reproach to a parliamentary leader to have a speech which, after seven years' use against adroit and resourceful opponents, is still in working order, may be open to question. But while it is true enough that the fundamental arguments against the protective principle and the existing tariff schedules remain substantially as unaltered as the Ten Commandments, nothing is clearer than that a new and abundant collection of illustrative examples and applications to details will be ready for use in this year's Congressional campaign. Particular duties which may have been only a little too high from the standpoint of the logical protectionist in 1897, can now be proved ridiculously unnecessary. The facts regarding the practice of American manufacturers who sell their goods at substantially lower prices abroad than at home, of which the Democrats found it so difficult to secure the categorical proof they wanted in the last off-year campaign, are now hardly to be disputed. If the speeches of Mr. Williams and other Democrats are to be taken as the "keynotes" which we expect about this time in the even-numbered years, the tariff discussion will be, of all things, concrete, and concerned with conditions as they are to-day.

The leading case, thus far, seems to be that of the reimported American watches sold on lower Broadway at prices below what other retailers were permitted to charge. After Mr. Rainey of Illinois had given the details of the transaction, including the story of the detention of 2,300 American watches in the custom-house on the plea that they had been "increased in value" abroad by the addition of Swiss dials costing 4 cents each, his Republican colleague, Mr. Boutell, made a speech in answer. By extensive use of affidavits, he undertook to show that certain of the watches offered on "lower Broadway" were not bargains, while others were of varieties of which the factory records showed that practically none had ever been bought "for export." Mr. Williams's reply, however, went directly to the heart of the matter. "The first fact is," he said, "that there were a lot of these

watches sent over to England, and a lot more of these watches were later contracted to be sent over to England, and the watches were not delivered; and when suit was brought to enforce delivery, the plea of the defence was that a man had bought the watches *to sell in France*, and that they, the defendants, had found out he wanted them really to sell in the United States. Horrible duplicity!"

This rejoinder by the minority leader itself brought out a fact hitherto unnoted in the discussion:

> "Mr. Rainey—Mr. Chairman, I should like to state that I neglected to say the other day in my argument that this suit was settled. It did not go to a conclusion. The Keystone company paid on behalf of the Elgin company and themselves £500 rather than keep this contract.
>
> "Mr. Williams—Yes; rather than keep this contract or continue their own suit, they paid £500—$2,500—and why? Oh, 'gentle shepherd, tell me why.' [Applause on the Democratic side.] Suppose I sell 300 bales of cotton to a man in Liverpool, and he tells me he wants to make goods out of it in England and send the goods to Bombay. I then find out afterwards, lo and behold! that he wants to ship the goods back to Charleston; that he finds it profitable to himself to do so. I should be arrested as a roving lunatic if I made any objection, because I am nothing but a cotton planter. . . . There was an interest somewhere involved in keeping up one price in the American market, regardless of the profit to the purchaser in other markets."

Now the conditions which may or may not prevail in the watch trade make relatively very little difference in the cost of living. Watches compose about one-twentieth of one per cent. of the product of our manufactures, a little more than flavoring extracts or matches, a little less than paper-bags or buttons. But if the same line of demonstration is extended to more and more important products, there is bound to come a critical time when it will no longer be possible from the sincere protectionist standpoint to make even a plausible defence of the tariff as it is. "I am wondering and sometimes dreaming," said Mr. Williams near his peroration, "what will happen to the gentleman from Iowa [Mr. Hepburn], the gentleman from Pennsylvania [Mr. Dalzell], the gentleman from New York [Mr. Payne], and the gentleman from Indiana [Mr. Charles B. Landis], and all the other leaders of the cohorts of 'standpattism,' when, toward the tail end of this session or during the next session of this Congress, the man in the White House—who carried your party to victory, rather than the party carried him—shall send a message to this House to revise and reduce the tariff! It is in the air that he wanted to do it before this. . . . Let me tell you something: You have got to revise this tariff. If you don't, we will. Because our common masters, the people of America, have made up their minds that it shall be revised."

THE STAMPING OUT OF PEONAGE.

The recent pardon by President Roosevelt of John W. Pace of Tallapoosa County, Ala., the chief offender in the Southern peonage cases uncovered by the authorities some three years ago, furnishes occasion for reviewing the results actually secured from the remarkable series of prosecutions then begun under a law of which some offenders had never even heard, and which had been passed to prevent a dissimilar practice in a far-distant part of the country. Pace, the so-called "father of peonage," made his defence substantially on the ground that, whatever might be the methods of obtaining compulsory labor from negro criminals, the word "peon" had never been current in Alabama, and that the local practices bore no relationship to the Mexican institution of peonage which the Federal statutes had long ago made a crime in order to keep it out of Arizona and New Mexico.

The change in Southern sentiment which has come about since the first denunciations of "Federal interference," may be shown by the statement of Judge Jones, himself a Southern man, who, after leading the unpopular fight against peonage in the State, and severely reprimanding a jury which had refused to convict in his court, joined in the recommendation of clemency for Pace, who was practically a dying man at the time of his sentence. "Public sentiment," said the judge, as quoted by a correspondent of the Boston *Transcript*, "temporarily misled at the outset, came to the support of the authorities, by outspoken approval of the prosecutions, as soon as the conditions which called for the enforcement of the law became known. The State press, the pulpit, the bar, and good citizens in all walks of life built up an aggressive public sentiment which, in a few weeks, crystallized into an earnest determination to prevent any future violations of the law. The sentiment thus aroused has continued in unbroken force, and there is not now a State in the Union where violations of this law are less likely to occur than in Alabama, and especially in Tallapoosa County, where Pace lives and whose people now ask his pardon."

The transplanted peonage system, this "new slavery," like all such elaborate systems of crime or oppression, was not a sudden invention, but a growth. It is even said by some that it grew out of the benevolent practice of the white men who would volunteer to pay the fines of negroes convicted of minor crimes, and thus get them out of jail. The next step was to assure, by physical restraint, the working out of the debts thus incurred. Lastly came the co-operation of justices, constables, and other officials in providing a supply of this forced labor. As the *Transcript* correspondent remarks, some of the whites had not outgrown "the idea that in some way they were entitled to the labor of the negro, and were justified in getting it at as small an outlay as possible." Planters even agreed to take the entire output of criminals from some minor rural courts. The laws of most States define a good many petty crimes which practically are never heard of. In Alabama, negroes were taken up in numbers for such offences as "swearing before females," shooting across a public road, carrying razors, stealing a ride on the train, letting a master's mule bite some other man's corn, and the like. Then it was a question of going to jail or working out the fine, which some interested white man stood ready to pay if the convicted person would "touch the pen" to a contract that was practically a consent to slavery.

While the cases in the Alabama back counties were the first to attract national attention, the test case in which the United States Supreme Court a year ago affirmed the application of the old peonage law to the Southern forcing of negro labor, was brought in Georgia. This was a case in which two negroes were brought from Florida to work for a turpentine manufacturer on alleged debts of $8 and $13 respectively, which the employer was perfectly willing to pay for them. On the decision in that case, as Attorney-General Moody said in his brief, hung "the liberty of thousands of persons . . . who are now being held in a condition of involuntary servitude, in many cases worse than slavery itself, by unlawful acts of individuals." As soon as the Supreme Court decided this Georgia case, Pace, in Alabama, admitted his guilt on all the eleven charges in his indictment of two years previous; and the hundred or more of similar prosecutions which the Government had begun in various parts of the South must have been greatly aided. Among these were some cases of white men, Italians, who were forced to labor in a phosphate mine in South Carolina. This instance furnishes another illustration of the old truth that, when unjust repressive measures have been applied to the negro, the white man himself is, on occasion, in danger of the same treatment.

CONSULS AND THE SENATE.

In spite of the Executive orders providing examinations, a man's chances of being appointed to the consular service unless he can get at least one Senator to work actively in his behalf, are in almost all cases slim indeed—how very small, regardless of the number or quality of disinterested recommendations from citizens not within the charmed circle of the Senate, the general public has little idea. This is especially true of the *best* posts of the consular service, for which the most influential Senators

are sure to apply. And again, the chances of promotion for a man already in the service, unless he has powerful and very active Senatorial and political backing at Washington, are likewise very slim. A great many promotions from lower to higher consulates have been made in the past few years; our pleasure in the fact is dulled if, on inquiry into the individual cases, it is discovered that in almost all of them the men promoted had this very sort of active political backing (as well as, in very many cases at least, a good record).

This is the natural result of the system which has grown up among us of so interpreting the phrase "by and with the consent of the Senate" as virtually to constitute the Senators referees of Federal appointments within their States. Now there is a seeming justification for this practice in the case of Federal offices, such as those of the revenue service, which lie within the territory of the several States, and the duties of which have to do chiefly or wholly with the citizens of a particular State in any given case. But what applicability has this rule of practice to offices abroad, of which the duties have no special concern with the citizens of any particular State of our Union, but are performed for the nation itself and, in a representative capacity, before the citizens and sometimes the governments of foreign countries? Why should the cry be raised that this or that State has a "claim" upon a given consular office, and, when one of its citizens withdraws, that its Senators should have the privilege of naming another for the place? Of course, a consular post abroad "belongs" to the nation as a whole, not to any particular State, but the practice has grown up of letting one State's Senators continue to name, year after year, the incumbents of a particular consular post, partly on the theory of an equitable distribution of these favors, and partly because it is thus made possible for the President to avoid some of the pressure exerted upon him by erecting against the Senators of one State the barrier of a "claim" to a vacancy by the Senators of another State. The practice has never been recognized as a fixed rule, by either Presidents or Senators, but it has gained considerable sanctity as usage; and among the more influential Senators "Senatorial courtesy" in a considerable degree prevails in this particular, keeping them off each other's "preserves."

The theory of "equitable distribution" certainly does not seem to work well in practice. There have been, until the slight reorganization brought about by the new law, 274 consular offices whose principals receive salaries and are not allowed to engage in business (except at Auckland and Vladivostok). Of these 274 principal officers (9 of the offices being vacant in the last official list), 72 were appointed from the four Middle States of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and West Virginia, as compared with 94 from that immense "yeomen's empire," the heart of our country, denominated the Middle West, and stretching from the Rockies to the Alleghenies between Canada and the Ohio River (including Missouri and Kansas). More striking as a comparison, though it will surprise no one who knows how consular appointments are made and reflects that the Republican party has been in power since 1897, there are 47 of these salaried officers from New England as against only 9 from the South (excluding Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri). Little West Virginia, with Elkins and Scott for Senators, has 6 posts, with an average salary of over $2,500, while the old commonwealth of Virginia supplies one man, and for a $1,500 post at Guadalupe, W. I. The States of Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi, and South Carolina are not represented at all. The Rocky Mountain States have but 8 of these principal salaried officers, nearly all from the two Dakotas, while Connecticut alone has 9, only one of whom is in a post paying less than $2,000. The entire Pacific Coast has but 4, the same number as little Rhode Island with its Senator Aldrich. New Hampshire has 6 and Vermont 5, and the latter State holds two of the best posts in the service. No one will deny the capacity of Massachusetts to furnish good men for the service, but, as one looks over the list of her 16 officers with an average salary of $2,275 (more men, and a better salary average, than all the consuls taken together from the States which have lately gone Democratic in the Presidential election), he is inclined to question their having been appointed solely because of merit.

Five States, with 33 per cent. of the total population, have 44 per cent. of these offices. These are New York, with 38 offices; Ohio, 29; Pennsylvania, 19; Illinois, 17; and Massachusetts, 16—States which had in the census of 1900 a total population of 25,355,450. The comparison with the sections of the country which are more barren in their production of consuls grows more striking if we add Indiana with 10 offices, Iowa and New Jersey with 9 each, West Virginia and New Hampshire with 6 each, Vermont with 5, and Rhode Island with 4; then twelve States having 44.6 per cent. of the population are found to have furnished 61 per cent. of the consuls sent abroad. But the personal influence of the Senators themselves enters into the equation, too, and there are other interesting indications of how partisan considerations have often governed. One is not surprised to learn, such is the tradition about their office-seeking qualities, that the Ohioans have "landed" one consular post for every 143,000 of their citizens, while New York has to be content with one per 191,000. These two States have been equally successful in picking higher posts, so that the average salary for Ohio and New York consuls is brought up to $2,375. Pennsylvania has managed to get only one consul for every 332,000 citizens, but her Senators have been nicely discriminating, and have so effectively gone for the good posts that their men's salaries average almost $2,600. The West Virginia Senators have had the same success in getting the higher-salaried places. Ohio has, it will be observed from the above figures, beaten Illinois almost as badly as she has Pennsylvania in the race for number of places. Iowa seems strangely modest with 9 posts, but their average salary is above $2,700. Indiana, which has been a doubtful State, does still better, with an average of $2,900 for her 10 posts. Michigan has been unfailingly loyal to the G. O. P., and has as her reward only 7 places, with a salary average of less than $1,800, not holding a single office of any importance. One wonders if possession of an influential Senator, or if party contests, give Wisconsin, less populous than Michigan, several of the best plums in the service and an average of $2,700 for her 8 officers. Poor unduly partisan Michigan has not even her *per capita* average of consuls as compared with the country as a whole, and makes a sorry showing in this political contest by the side of little Connecticut and West Virginia.

It is true that there are men accredited to particular States in whose appointment political considerations played little or no part, but they do not form any considerable proportion of the list analyzed above. It is true, also, that, among the consuls, quite a number are not credited to any particular State at all, but were appointed from a residence in the District of Columbia, often being newspaper men or men who had demonstrated capacity in the public service. Still, not a few of the District of Columbia residents are really "Senators' men" or men who had "acquired merit" by labors for the party organization.

The fact is, and no law will alter it, that the whole question of consular reform rests primarily with the President. Appointments and promotions are in his hands, under the Constitution, and he has had, and has, the power to effect the most thorough-going reform of the service without a line being written into the statutes. We insist that, while nomination may not become appointment until the advice and consent of the Senate is had upon it, neither the Constitution nor public opinion requires that this advice and consent, extended in the first instance solely by individual Senators and resting upon "Senatorial cour-

tesy" for the acquiescence therein of the whole body, shall, with regard to all appointments at least, *precede* the nomination of a given man. As regards consuls, there are many special reasons why this previous consultation should not be recognized as at all a rule; but no President has yet challenged the usage which makes it a rule.

CARACAS ON THE DAY OF THE INDEPENDENCIA.

CARACAS, April 19, 1906.

A turn of traveller's good fortune has brought me to the Venezuelan capital on the day which commemorates the founding of the republic. April 19, to use the words of the *Constitucional* of this morning, is *dia santo entre los dias del mundo*, and the municipal council has decreed its observance *con toda solemnidad* and in a manner befitting the traditions of a liberty-loving people. The "Proclamation of Caracas" and the field of Ayacucho are to be burned into history in a blaze of illumination, and the Plaza Bolívar will be fairy-land shortly after the setting of the sun. President Castro, having temporarily relinquished the cares of state to his lieutenant, Gómez, has withdrawn in seclusion to his favorite Los Teques, going to the railway station, as one of the journals remarks, unattended by either soldiery or servants, buying his own ticket, and taking a seat in the railway coach in the manner of his own loyal subjects.

The day is in itself sufficiently dreary. There is a fair exhibition of the brilliant Venezuelan bunting, but, apart from this and the stringers of colored globes and lanterns that have been drawn across the Plaza Bolívar, there is little to show that anything is being celebrated. A scattering of Venezolanos may be seen wandering about the Salón Elíptico of the national capitol, gazing wondrously at its vast ceiling-painting of booming cannon or into the framed *Acta de la Independencia* and the *proclama* of the "Paladín de los Andes" of December 9, 1902; but there is no display of military in the streets, and no martial music falls upon the ear. The deserted national palace of "Miraflores" looks silently over the dusty plain that runs out to the lofty Silla de Caracas, but its walls carry no decoration of any kind, and its extensive chambers are as silent as are the halls of the University. There are no student demonstrations and no processions of religious orders. In the cathedral a single devout spirit was seen to move about the illumined interior; and, in the national pantheon at the time of my visit, no native gazed upon the gilt sarcophagus that covers the remains of the illustrious Bolívar. This is Caracas shortly before the hour of noon on its Independence Day—untidy and unkempt, with a sufficiently large representation of the sterner sex occupying its dusty street-ways and narrow sidewalks, but with nothing beyond its own mountain sunshine to impart joyousness to a festive occasion. The city is undemonstrative and unsympathetic, making its strongest appeal, perhaps, to the turkey buzzards that wheel in great circles overhead.

The air may be full of rumors, but the stranger hears little of them. The nation is assumed to have emerged triumphantly from its latest foreign complication, and the journals are loud in extolling the virtues of the "Restaurador," and give free space to the publication of panegyrics extracted from other sections of the South American press. It may be that from this success has grown a spirit of magnanimity which has helped to remove some of the restrictions that have been imposed upon the stranger visiting the country. I had been told, on what appeared to be good authority, that as a traveller *in transitu* it would be impossible for me to obtain at this time the required permit to visit the capital city, and that I should even be barred the soil of La Guaira. This was everyday experience; it touched everybody of low and high degree alike, and there was no reason to hope for anything different. But the unexpected happened. My personal card, after a moment's introduction and without the formality of the presentation of a passport (which I lacked), brought out a prompt permit from the genial prefect of police, and before nine o'clock I was speeding up the remarkable railway which zigzags the wall of the outer Andes. La Guaira lay below me and a heavy bank of clouds above.

One formality, unique in my experience of travelling, has to be complied with before the passenger is permitted to take a seat in the railway coach: his name must be inscribed in the conductor's memorandum-book. A request for this inscription, however wanting in legibility it may be, is made three times in the course of the journey between La Guaira and Caracas. The attack upon the mountain buttress of the coast is daring in the extreme, and the traveller is charmed and bewildered by the abrupt views of mountain and ocean which the numerous turns and twists disclose. There are no such grandly inspiring views as one obtains from the Boca del Monte or across Maltrata and the gorge of the Infiernillo on the line connecting the City of Mexico with Vera Cruz; but where Nature asserts herself so forcibly as she does here it is perhaps unnecessary to seek for comparisons. There is enough to keep the traveller occupied. The mountain slopes are at this season of the year largely bared, and stand out to particular advantage in their brilliant coloring of reds and grays; but a few weeks hence the naked branches of the small trees and bushes which, with numerous acacias and a few palms, form their scattering vegetation, will be clothed with verdure, and a soft green, except where rugged crags intrude upon the flowing contours, will rise to the sky-line. The road traverses no forest, and there are but few patches of woodland to suggest the glories of the tropics.

My first impression of Caracas, which we reached after a journey of somewhat more than two hours, was a disappointing one, and this impression did not wear off. I had hoped, even in the present condition of the nation's unrest, to see a city of stately pretence, cared for in a way so as at least remotely to suggest that it may at one time have justified a claim to being considered one of the most attractive cities of the western world. The "Little Paris in the Andes," indeed, sounds very fine, and is well adapted for use in steamship folders; but, alas, how little is there to warrant this designation! There are many cities in the outer world that are or have been likened to Paris, but a goodly proportion of these have no more right to such a comparison than has Caracas, and some of them less. A few fine shops that surprise the stranger by their presence, at rather remote intervals, in the Venezuelan capital, are sufficient to suggest Paris; at other times it may be the sight alone of smartly groomed persons or of stately equipages, with or without a supporting background. The good Père Labat, who visited Barbados in the early part of the eighteenth century, speaks of the jewellers' and silversmiths' shops of Bridgetown as having the brilliancy of those of the Paris boulevards, and many Barbadians of to-day seem to believe in the continued existence of this similarity; but a historian so partial to almost everything British (except political conditions) in the West Indies as was Froude, and who, in place of this assumed Parisian splendor, saw "only *stores* on the American pattern, for the most part American goods, bad in quality and extravagantly dear," could not discover it. The spirit of this characterization might, indeed, almost be applied to the Venezuelan capital.

True, the city is not wholly devoid of stately buildings, and the square containing the famous equestrian statue of Bolívar might by some be considered to breathe an air of subdued grandeur; but there are no avenues to open up receding vistas, nothing to give perspective to the ill-sorted walls of stucco which bound the thoroughfares and give store-fronts of varied degrees of unattractiveness and color. Even the principal hotels are barely distinguishable by external characters. Some of the side streets, indeed, recall to mind the streets of Córdova, in Spain, and one hopes among the interior courts to obtain glimpses of the house-gardens of Seville; but the eye searches in vain for the flower-draped balconies, in vain for those bits of grilled scenery which are the sunshine of the Andalusian home. Dirt-heaps and dirt stare at one plentifully, but some say that this is a newly acquired characteristic. To have seen Caracas in the days of Blanco! This city, like most cities nowadays, is illumined by electric light, but it has not yet risen to the dignity of having electric tram cars. The mule-tram does its service as of old, and the type of construction adhered to is, I believe, the most primitive to be found anywhere, with the exception of that of Willemstad, the "spotless town" of the island of Curaçao.

I made my way over to the leading hotel, and was agreeably surprised to find that its promise of cleanliness and good attention was fully carried out. Cleanliness is certainly not a virtue of Venezuelan hostelries generally. A small drum-and-cornet corps came and placed itself in the vestibule and broke out into a dreary military reveille. There was a momentary flurry among those near by, for, *quien sabe?* something might be afoot. But assurance was given that the "call" had no significance, and what little life had suddenly been brought upon the scene made a rapid exit. Caracas has an efficient carriage service, and one may still enjoy long rides in and about town, and in good fiacres, for the

payment of a few *bolivares* (francs); but where, one asks one's self, are the places that should attract for such drives? Humboldt, in his 'Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne,' refers to Mexico as one of the most attractive cities in the world, and likens it to Philadelphia; and elsewhere, in a comparative study, he describes the site and beauty of Caracas. One may without much violence to his conscience concede to the modern Mexico this characterization of the illustrious traveller; but between Caracas and the Mexican capital there is a vast gulf. Time has widened it, and its borders are being removed further and further every day. In the one city progress and modernization are apparent everywhere; in the other, the eye sees hardly more than somnolence and decay.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

Notes.

Macmillan Co. will shortly put forth the first of four volumes of 'The Cyclopædia of American Agriculture,' edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell, and 'From the Cotton Field to the Cotton Mill: A Study of the Industrial Transition in North Carolina,' by J. Holland Thompson.

Dr. William Shaw's book on the 'Knights of England,' from the earliest times to the year 1904, will be printed and published immediately in two volumes for the Central Chancery of the Orders of Knighthood by Sherratt & Hughes, 60 Chandos Street, London, W. C. The want of an authentic register of English knighthood has long been felt. That it has not been met hitherto, has been owing partly to the difficulty of compilation, such records as have been available being notoriously confused and contradictory; and partly to the fact that the ultimate sources for large portions of the subject-matter have been jealously withheld. These obstacles have now been completely removed. Dr. Shaw has been granted access to each and every collection of official historical sources relating to Knights Bachelors and to the Orders of British Knighthood, the Garter, the Thistle, the Bath, the Star of India, etc. With his work is incorporated a list of Knights Bachelors dubbed in Ireland, compiled from the records in Dublin Castle by Mr. G. B. D. Burtchaell of the Office of Arms.

The late Augustus Hare's guide-books seem to hold their own, and the little volume for Sicily, brought up to date by St. Clair Baddeley, has been reissued by E. P. Dutton & Co., with illustrations, and an excellent map of the island, engraved under the direction of Heinrich Kiepert. The volume is of a convenient size and shape.

The taking little "New Pocket Library" of John Lane Co. proceeds with Trollope's 'The Small House at Allington,' in two volumes. Algar Thorold's brief introduction is but a bird's-eye view of the characters in the story.

The five-volume reprint of Swinburne's Tragedies (Harper's) is more showy than elegant. The blue binding is tasteful, but the print and paper are undistinguished—unless the want of sheen in the latter be a mark of distinction; it is certainly commendable. The letter-press, however, is very clear, and this is another virtue.

Ginn & Co. have brought out an abridged edition, in one volume, of Prof. J. H. Robinson's 'Readings in European History' (extracts from sources), originally in two volumes, as our readers will remember. The unavoidable method of reduction has been followed—by omission, cutting down (but sparingly), and a giving up of the more advanced bibliographical references.

A second edition of Mr. Aksel G. S. Josephson's 'Bibliography of Union Lists of Serials' issues from the John Crerar Library of Chicago. It has been both enlarged and rearranged—this time geographically, as is most fitting. There is an index, and a chronological table specifying the class of serials included in the joint list of the several library groups.

The appearance of 'The True Andrew Jackson,' by Cyrus Townsend Brady (Lippincott), enables us to congratulate the publishers on having presented to the public at least seven "true" biographies. A perusal of this volume leads one to the conclusion that there is, after all, something in a name; the series by another name would assuredly not sell so well. Mr. Brady's estimate of Jackson is, on the whole, fair enough; but if a true biography implies nothing more than his achievement leads us to suppose, there is no reason why the list should not be indefinitely and rapidly extended, the main requisites in the author being admiration for the subject, reasonable judgment, a pair of shears, and a complaisant disregard of any demand on the part of the reader for finished literary workmanship. Mr. Brady's 'Andrew Jackson' must rank neither as biography nor as history, but rather as a book simply—a book, the existence of which is justified, if at all, by the divine right of authors to write and of publishers to publish.

A handy little book is 'Elocution: Its First Principles,' by W. H. Breare (Putnams). The author talks familiarly, with much good sense, and gives advice as to breathing, demeanor, and the like. He does not lay down rules, but proffers advice. One who announces it as a fundamental principle that "the art of teaching is making the pupil do the right thing unconsciously," is on the right track; and the modest, well-printed volume which Mr. Breare submits will be found helpful to young men who aim to succeed as public speakers.

The sixth volume of newspaper extracts, being vol. xxv. of the 'Documents Relating to the Colonial History of the State of New Jersey,' edited by William Nelson, preserves much interesting material of the date of 1767-68. When Lazarus Pine, of Philadelphia, wants to sell a young, healthy negro wench, he mentions, as adding to her value, the fact that she "has had the small-pox and measles." It is rather late in the day to expect to overhaul James Morris and get thirty shillings therefor. James ran away from Change-water-forge, in Sussex County, in May, 1767. One way in which it becomes easy to recognize him is from the peculiar circumstance that "he has a pearl on one of his eyes, and a remarkable long nose, speaks good English, but seems always as if he had a cold." The volume has a full index of names.

There are many signs that the various churches in England are waking up to the need of improvement in the provision they themselves make for religious education. One of the most notable is the appearance of such a book as 'Reform in Sunday-School Teaching' (London: J. Clarke & Co.), by so distinguished a scholar as Mr. A. S. Peake, professor of Biblical Exegesis and dean of the faculty of Theology in the University of Manchester. The first half of the volume is occupied by a discussion of the scheme of study provided by the International Lessons Committee, which Professor Peake condemns as "educationally disastrous." As the work of this committee is, in origin and influence, as much American as English, it may be hoped that these careful criticisms will be widely read in this country. They are followed by a few chapters of valuable constructive suggestion for teachers and superintendents.

'A Bodleian Manuscript' of five of the minor poems ascribed to Virgil is the title of a paper lately read at Corpus Christi College by Prof. Robinson Ellis and now published in a small pamphlet (Henry Frowde). The manuscript is of no particular importance for the text of the poems themselves, but it has considerable interest on account of the numerous explanatory glosses, written in Latin, French, and a few in Early English. Professor Ellis treats these as in type fairly representative of mediæval commentaries on Latin poems, and, as such, subjects them to rather minute investigation in his usual thorough and learned manner.

Naval manuals are apt to be little more than collections of statistics, and opinions based on mere figures little better than paper judgments. Howard of Effingham, and Tegethoff, and Togo have demonstrated that an equal or even inferior force may, in defiance of figures, annihilate an opponent. It is the chief merit of Captain Abeille's 'Marine Française et Marines Étrangères (Paris: Armand Colin) that it recognizes this fact. Although he examines, figures in hand, all the great navies of the world, comparing them with that of his own country, he is never the victim of his figures, but sees beyond them those broad currents that count for even more. He has much that is suggestive to say on the relations between the economic, strategic, and naval situations of France, England, Germany, and the United States. He relates these questions to present-day tendencies in international law, and discusses their bearing in connection with the approaching Hague Conference. The book is a good one, and, although primarily intended as an appeal for the reform of the French navy, contains matter that should not be missed by students of international relations.

While waiting for the definitive census to be taken at the end of each decade, the Bureau of Statistics of the Imperial Cabinet of Japan sends forth two folio publications (pp. 303, 357) with introductions and letter-press in French accompanying the Arabic and Japanese figures. One of the monographs treats of the Movement of Population in the Empire of Japan in 1902, and the other of the State of Population in 1902. The brief text calls attention to the diversity of systems of record prevalent before 1868

in the various feudal fiefs, and to the unity that now prevails and makes accurate and exhaustive record possible. Four sorts of declarations are required of those who change their locality—of temporary emigration or immigration and of permanent departure or reëntrance. The legal and the resident population are carefully distinguished, the latter numbering, in 1903, 48,500,000 souls, or, in detail, 5,053 nobles, 2,168,058 gentry (old *samurai*), and 46,732,138 *heimin*, or commoners. In the second brochure, the vital statistics of births, marriage, diseases, and death, are minute and accurate, furnishing excellent data for the study of disease and health on a national scale. The figures concerning beri-beri, smallpox, etc., show marked contrast by diminution with those of previous years. These annual publications reflect high credit on the veteran Director, N. Hanabusa.

Mr. Carnegie's rectorial address at the University of St. Andrews, delivered last October, finds publication in America through the columns of the May *Popular Science Monthly*. The address is a remarkably vigorous and sensible plea for international peace as against "the foulest blot that has ever disgraced the earth, the killing of civilized men by men, like wild beasts, as a permissible mode of settling international disputes." The speaker enumerates the many mitigations of the evils of war adopted during recent decades, but sees a lamentable step in the opposite direction in the comparatively new idea that one nation may allowably strike another in the midst of negotiations, without waiting for any formal declaration of war. This new method, he says, "belongs to the infernal armory of assassins hired to kill or poison opposing generals, of forged dispatches, poisoned wells, agreements made to be broken, and all those diabolic weapons which for very shame men have been forced to abandon as too infamous even for the trade of man-slaying." In the difficulty of obtaining recruits, experienced in both England and America, he finds a very encouraging mark of progress, indicating "the influence of education upon the masses in evolving clearer ideas of responsibility for their actions." From John Jay he quotes the sentiment that "Our country, right or wrong" is "rebellion against God, and treason to the cause of civil and religious liberty, of justice and humanity."

"Peter Schoeffer at Work" is the title of an article contributed by Mr. Alfred W. Pollard to the latest number of the *Book-Lover's Magazine*. It is an attempt—and a successful and very interesting attempt—to show in a narrative form how it happened that so many curious discrepancies are to be found in copies of apparently the same editions of books from the earliest printing-presses. The British Museum possesses four copies of Schoeffer's edition, of 1471, of Valerius Maximus, three of which agree throughout, while the fourth shows, on a number of pages scattered through the book, several variations, in themselves insignificant, but proof that the type has been changed. By examining and comparing these four books, Mr. Pollard has found that the size of the edition must have been increased while the printing of the book was still in progress but after part of the type had already been distributed; further, that at the same time Schoeffer introduced a new kind of comma, slightly differing from the one he had hitherto been using. Mr. Pollard also discovers that not less than six presses were used simultaneously in printing the book, and that only one page was printed at a time, while in 1474, when Schoeffer printed an edition of Turrecremata's 'Exposition of the Psalms,' he had facilities for printing two pages at a time. The story of Peter Schoeffer in his printing-office is introduced by some remarks about the claims in favor of Schoeffer as the inventor of printing; but they lead nowhere.

Dr. Paul Trommsdorff, who, by the way, is travelling at present in this country in order to gain some personal familiarity with American library methods, contributes to the March number of the *Zeitschrift für Bücherfreunde* an interesting article describing the work of the Bureau of Information for German Libraries in Berlin. From its opening in April of last year up to the end of 1905 the Bureau received inquiries as to the whereabouts of 2,270 works, in regard to 1,330 of which it was able to transmit the desired information. Nearly 500 of the books inquired about were found to be in the Royal Library in Berlin, and 300 in one or other of the eleven university libraries in Prussia. Of books not found in any of these libraries, printed lists are issued from time to time and sent to all the libraries that coöperate through the Bureau. Dr. Trommsdorff gives the titles of a number of books of which not more than a single copy could be found. Among these *unica* we notice the *Athenæum* for 1831, the *Century* for 1892-93, *World's Work* for 1903, George Paston's (Miss E. M. Symond's) 'Little Memories of the Eighteenth Century' (New York, 1901), and Mr. Copper Curtice's 'Animal Parasites of Sheep,' published in 1890 by the United States Department of Agriculture. While the majority of the books about which information was sought were philological or historical, or of particular interest to the bibliophile or antiquarian, a large number of scientific and technical works, especially periodicals, were put in the hands of students through the medium of the Bureau. That the services which the Bureau renders the world of learning are duly appreciated, has been shown by the fact that the number of inquiries is steadily growing, and that in many cases a casual inquiry has led to a quite regular correspondence.

The Imperial Library in Tokio, having outgrown the brick building erected in 1889, is to be housed in a new edifice of modern style, in steel and stone, after the American method of construction. The illustrated pamphlet just issued shows the noble proportions of the final structure in Uyeno Park; it is to cover 5,760 square feet, and to be seven stories in height. The finished portion, covering 1,290 square feet, is imposing in outward form, and is inwardly arranged and equipped according to the best ideas of modern library economy. Besides the principal hall for readers, there are reception and office rooms, and abundant provision for the work of cataloguers, for special researchers and women students. One-third of the building is occupied by the stacks, seven feet high, to which the users of books are allowed to go directly. The finishing of the halls with fine woods, carpets, desks, chairs, and in Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian styles of columns and pilasters, with electric lights, steam heat, steel shelves and supports, elevator, etc., is on a par with the best in Europe and America. A general library law passed by the Diet gives encouragement to the formation of other libraries, and this collection of 444,646 volumes is both nourishment and stimulus. The artistic decoration has been done by the Tokio Art School.

In view of the fact that missionaries in China are so frequently accused of being the cause of uprisings against foreigners, an interview between the Chinese commissioners and representatives of eighteen different Protestant English missionary societies in London on April 7 is important. Sir T. Fowell Buxton presented an illuminated address, of which the object was to impress upon the commissioners the true motives and aims of the societies, so that they might on their return use their influence to dissipate misunderstandings in regard to them. They had no political or commercial interests, and they "expressly direct their missionaries not to interfere with the internal politics of China, carefully to respect the administration of civil law, and not to seek the conferment of social *status* for themselves or extra-territorial privilege for their converts. The missionaries have deplored and opposed all action which has fostered the spread of the opium habit, and all things which have been prejudicial to the best interests of China." The address closed with a grateful acknowledgment of the kindness and courtesy of many high officials, and especially of invaluable services rendered during the Boxer disturbances. Duke Tsaitse said in response that the interview to him was "a sign that the whole British nation is well disposed towards my country, and I can assure you that this good feeling is reciprocated on our side."

Capt. R. F. Scott, commander of the National Antarctic Expedition, was presented with the gold medal of the American Geographical Society at the April meeting of the Royal Geographical Society. In his presentation address our ambassador, Mr. Whitelaw Reid, spoke of the interest which America had always taken in Polar research and had shown especially in two Arctic expeditions; but, judging from the report in the London *Times*, he made no reference to the fact that one of the most successful Antarctic expeditions was that of Wilkes. In concluding, he said that those whom he represented would not be the young, daring people they were, if they did not take a special pleasure in the fact that this expedition was led by a man who was barely thirty years of age when the work was assigned to him. Capt. Scott expressed his appreciation of the gift, saying that his cup was brimming over with American honors, for it was the second time an American geographical society had awarded him a gold medal.

The treasurer of the Nobel foundation reports that the five prizes at the next distribution will amount to 138,536 kroner each, or an average increase of 453 kroner beyond the sums distributed last year. This is significant in view of the fact that the steady decrease in recent years had called forth considerable criticism in reference to the management of the funds.

—Richard Mansfield opens the May *Atlantic* with a paper on "Man and the Actor." He adds his voice to that of those who would have a National Theatre, free from the bad effects of the ordinary necessity for commercial profit, but it must be no scheme devised by a few individuals in behalf of some social or literary fad. As one of the accessories of such a theatre he suggests a board of literary directors, "composed of such men as William Winter, Howells, Edward Everett Hale, and Aldrich, and others equally fine, and the presidents of the great universities," to determine how the "American language" should be spoken in this theatre, and thus give an authoritative standard to people at large on debatable points of usage. Cannot some one persuade our eager spelling-reformers to simplify their task by waiting until this is done? Readers of President Roosevelt's recent book will remember its warm introductory tribute to John Burroughs. In an article on his camping trip with the President, the naturalist leaves no stone unturned to emphasize the fact that the admiration is mutual. The best of the story is in some of its amusing incidents of the President's career, such as an appeal from a Rough Rider in trouble for shooting a lady in the eye: "I didn't intend to hit the lady; I was shooting at my wife." Richard Washburn Child writes of the "Critic and the Law," but fails to draw any definite and intelligible limit beyond which the critic may not safely tread, for the very good reason that neither legislatures nor courts have as yet worked out any limit capable of definite statement. It is easy to say that criticism must confine itself to that which is of public interest, must be fair, and must represent the honest opinion of the critic, but, in spite of decisions which may be cited to that effect, one must not lose sight of the fact that critics may transgress upon matters of purely personal interest, may be grossly unfair and evidently insincere, and yet subject themselves to so little chance of successful prosecution as to make efforts in that direction practically useless. Just how far freedom *should* go in this direction is a problem; that it *does* go too far and fast for the halting gait of legal authorities to keep up, is a fact.

—*Scribner's* puts to the front this month a paper on vanishing Indian types, by E. S. Curtis, to which those who know anything of Mr. Curtis's work will turn at once for its reproductions of his famous Indian photographs. The text, however, is not to be slighted. Mr. Curtis succeeded because he learned the Indian as thoroughly as he learned his camera, and what he has to say of the Apaches and Navajos is of value on its own account. However true it is that the camera cannot rank with the brush in the realm of art, still one cannot compare Mr. Curtis's Indian faces with ordinary photographs and not realize that photography in the hands of really intelligent votaries can escape its usual narrow mechanical limits and occupy a wide and important field. In this connection we may mention the discussion of color prints by Russell Sturgis, in the "Field of Art," illustrated by a frontispiece reproduction from a color-printed etching by George Senseney, entitled "Moonrise." The second paper of the "Railways of the Future" series is by Sir Percy Girouard, and treats of the railways of Africa. The author is not immediately interested in such ideals as the "Cape to Cairo" project, which at one point would have to parallel 1,000 miles of free navigation on the Nile, and that, too, "through a country which any engineer would condemn as impassable." Africa's true railway policy will be in the future, he says, as it has been in the past, one of development toward her sea communications. Senator Culberson writes of Gen. Sam Houston and Secession, a very interesting picture of that oft-occurring tragedy of 1860-61, a strong nature torn by temporarily conflicting emotions of State and national attachment.

—We find nothing else in *Harper's* quite so attractive as the witty comment of the Easy Chair on the recently published Letters of Ibsen. Mr. Howells traces back to the Romanticists the conception of self-worship as not only a pleasure but a duty of the man of genius. This egoistic cult reached its extreme in Goethe, and left him the permanent type of heartless selfishness given up to the exploitation of supposed genius by any means available, fair or foul. In the letters of Ibsen the tradition appears again, "oddly zigzagging from the classic Goethe to the most mystical of the realists." No greater mind or more perfect art has revealed itself in our time, and yet his letters display this great mind "riveted to the little task of making the most of himself, to the pitiful business of getting the best there is in the narrow plot of ground where his poverty tethers him, like a fowl tied by the leg to a stake." By way of comparison, Dante did not go about consciously developing his powers, Shakspere was not subjectively an egoist, and Tolstoy occupied his mind with something other than "assisting the Creator in bringing the sovereign master of fiction to his supremacy." If a hen is too self-centred, the presumption is that it is only a porcelain egg that she is sitting on after all. Even in the matter of bringing one's own gifts to perfection, it is possible that a man's first duty is to others rather than to himself. After all his strictures, however, Mr. Howells expresses a doubt whether criticism has ever been able to advise creativism to its advantage, and asks the reader to remember that it is a more modest thing to advise a poet to make *himself* different than to advise him to make his work different. Yet if he had really made himself different, it is hardly in harmony with the Easy Chair's philosophy of literature to suppose that his works could have been the same. Does Mr. Howells mean rather that he should have kept himself to himself better in the matter of his ill-adjustment to his environment? With Ibsen's course he contrasts that of Björnson, "forgetting his own æsthetic development in the work of freeing his fellow-countrymen from themselves first and from their rulers afterwards, meanwhile writing the loveliest poetry and the truest and most beautiful stories, and the shapeliest and strongest plays, both real and mystical."

—'The Siege of the South Pole' (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), by Hugh R. Mill, D. Sc., as the title indicates, is simply the record of an incomplete episode in the history of geographical exploration. It does not attempt to describe the Antarctic regions nor to discuss the various problems connected with them. The author, who was for eight years librarian of the Royal Geographical Society, has made as readable a book as was possible, considering the mass of monotonous details of voyages in which the main incidents of ice and storm were so very similar. Of its substantial accuracy there can be no doubt. The introductory sketch of the early attempts to solve the mystery of the South Pole is interesting as showing the origin of the idea of a spherical earth and the part which the Antarctic problem played in the theological controversies of the early Christian ages. An Irish monk named Virgil was excommunicated by Pope Zacharias in 741 for teaching the heretical doctrine of Antipodes, "admitting the existence of souls who shared neither the sin of Adam nor the redemption of Christ." The three great expeditions of Cook, Wilkes, and Ross receive the most attention, but to the exploits of the American sealers in the South Seas during the first half of the last century a noteworthy chapter is devoted. The centre of this enterprise was Stonington, Conn. "Fleets of small vessels were fitted out there year after year, and the pluck of their skippers and crews led them often far into the Antarctic regions." In one of them, the 40-ton cutter *Hero*, Skipper Nathaniel B. Palmer, discovered land which still bears his name, given it by the Russian explorer, Admiral Bellinghausen, in token of his appreciation of the achievement. Much use is made in this account of the little known works of Edmund Fanning and Benjamin Morrell, and Dr. Mill records his satisfaction at learning that there is in preparation a history of American sealers in the far south which "cannot fail to be a fascinating work." From the time of Ross to the close of the century there is little to chronicle, the search for Franklin absorbing the attention of all interested in Polar research. After a brief description of the four great expeditions of the twentieth century, the author closes with a statement of what he regards as the best plan of operations for "the raising of the siege." He believes that it would not be wise to despatch a new expedition before 1909, and that it should be provided with light motor cars and a wireless telegraph equipment. The numerous illustrations, which add much to the interest and attractiveness of the work, are reproductions of drawings, photographs and maps, while Mr. J. G. Bartholomew contributes a large map in colors, exhibiting the geographical results of the latest expeditions.

—The official report of the Universal Congress of Lawyers and Jurists held at St. Louis in 1904, "under the auspices of the Universal Exposition and the American Bar Association," published at St. Louis (the Lakeside Press), and edited by the secretary of the Congress, Mr. V. Mott Porter, makes a stout octavo volume of some four hundred pages. It is interesting chiefly from the distinguished and representative nature of the membership; the papers read and proceedings had do not gain in weight by being produced under the "auspices" even of a Universal Exposition. The president of the Congress was Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court, and the members, nearly a thousand in number, were named by the various governments throughout the world to whom invitations

had been sent through the State Department—by bar associations, law faculties, and kindred associations. Many noted lawyers took part in the proceedings of the Congress, and there is every evidence that it was "a most enjoyable occasion"; but it was, on the whole, rather a parade of lawyers than a deliberative meeting with a definite end in view, and consequently it leaves behind it little more than one or two papers, some discussion, and a few resolutions of no very great importance. It should be observed, however, that the Congress was one of the agencies for the promotion of the second Hague Congress, yet to convene; and this lends interest to a paper by Mr. John W. Foster on the settlement of international controversies by resort to the Hague Tribunal or reference to special commissions. Mr. Foster insists, we are glad to see, that the assumed necessity of excluding from general arbitration treaties questions involving "honor" or "vital interests" rests on no substantial basis. The only question which cannot be submitted to arbitration is the Monroe Doctrine, but that is because we will not tolerate the insolence of any one but ourselves saying what it means—not because the questions which arise under it are inherently inarbitrable.

—Paper and type, printer and publisher, have all done their best for Mr. Charles J. Billson of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, in his new translation of the 'Æneid' (London: Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.), and the two quarto volumes have a stately and dignified air which seems to promise that, within, somewhat may be found worthy of "that Virgil, that fount which poureth forth so large a stream of speech." But alas! *quantum mutatus ab illo!* Again we find the woodenness and monotony which have so often characterized the modern attempt to render into blank verse the stately measure, the long roll, and the constant variation of rhythm which mark the great original. To diffusiveness Mr. Billson can indeed with truth plead not guilty; condensed he is (and Virgil has been called the most condensed of poets), for he renders the Æneid into exactly the same number of verses as the Latin. But in this process he is of course obliged to omit much of the thought which the longer hexameter line can convey. Thus—

"Now a mighty trunk
Lies headless on the shore, a corpse unnamed"

for

"Jacet ingens litore truncus
Avolsumque umeris caput, et sine nomine corpus,"

is one example of what we mean. Another is:

"Whence art thou come
Dear-hoped-for Hector?"

where the real meaning of *oris* (limbos), which adds so much to the bitter cry of Æneas, is wholly lost. Not that there are no good points in Mr. Billson's renderings; a faithful endeavor not to introduce into them ideas and thoughts foreign to the original, marks them throughout as the work of a scholar, but that a scholar's work they are, and not a poet's, is our principal quarrel with them.

—The veteran Gaston Boissier's 'Conjuration de Catilina' (Paris: Hachette) is another of those books in which his charm of style and sound common sense (gifts not too often attendant upon scholarship) have lent fresh life to a well-worn theme. As usual with M. Boissier, the title is a text upon which to base a general treatment of the *tempora et mores* of the event about which Cicero never tired of talking, and which led to the first Latin historical monograph in Sallust's tractate. It may be read with interest by the layman, and the philologian will find not a few pages that are worthy of his study. For instance, Boissier thinks that Sallust's 'Catiline' was a sort of literary manifesto against Cicero—not as man or politician, but as writer. Thus, to take a small detail: everybody knows that the intercepted letter from Catiline to one of his friends is preserved to us in two versions, Cicero's and Sallust's. Boissier holds that the former is the genuine one, and that Sallust retouched it in parts to make it conform to his own ideas of style. On the other hand, those who have read Zielinski's recent treatise on the *clausulæ* of Cicero will remember that he believes that Sallust's is the authentic version, and that Cicero recast the original in order to make it rhythmical. *Quis hos inter doctos dijudicabit?*

LEA'S SPANISH INQUISITION.

A History of the Inquisition of Spain. By Henry Charles Lea, LL.D. In four volumes. Volume I. The Macmillan Co. 1906. Pp. xii., 620.

For nearly twenty years Mr. Lea has been the acknowledged master in the study of the Inquisition. Appearing in 1887, when serious investigation had just begun to penetrate a territory long reserved to the controversialist and the pamphleteer, his 'History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages' at once took rank as an accepted authority; and with such correction in detail as has been made in the recent French and German translations, it still maintains its position as the only comprehensive account of the subject which rests upon an independent examination of the sources. For the most significant modern phase of the Inquisition Mr. Lea now promises to render an equally important service to historical scholarship in the elaborate work on the Inquisition of Spain, of which the first volume, dealing with the origin and establishment of the Holy Office and its relations with the State, is now at hand, while the other three are ready for the press.

It is, of course, not to be expected that a subject of such controversial possibilities should have been wholly neglected by others. First and last, a good deal has been written about the Spanish Inquisition, but usually in a spirit of rancorous attack or disingenuous apology which has served to obscure rather than to elucidate the real nature of the institution. The most important treatise on the subject, the 'Histoire Critique de l'Inquisition d'Espagne,' published early in the last century by a former secretary of the tribunal, Llorente, made large use of documentary sources, and possesses more merit than Catholic writers have generally been willing to allow, but it bears evident signs of haste and prejudice, and could not escape the taint of its author's apostasy. There is abundant room for new treatment of the whole matter, but the task is not to be undertaken lightly. The subject is intricate and thorny, and the materials for its study lie for the most part unpublished and uncalendared in the archives and libraries of Spain and other European countries, while very little has been done in the way of preliminary exploration or monographic investigation. In this case the historian must be quarryman as well as architect—indeed, he must be quarryman first of all, lest he be tempted to treat his materials in accordance with some preconceived idea, ecclesiastical or anti-ecclesiastical—and must have that combination of patient research and sound historical judgment which Mr. Lea possesses in an exceptional degree.

The *inquisitio hereticæ pravitatis* of the Middle Ages never became important in Spain, for the reason that the heresies of this period—the doctrines of the Waldenses and Albigenses—never acquired a firm foothold south of the Pyrenees. There was no Inquisition in Castile before the days of Ferdinand and Isabella; it was not effectively organized in Portugal; and even in Aragon, where the spread of heretical movements from Languedoc had led to the appointment of inquisitors in the thirteenth century, the institution was never vigorously active. The origin of the new Inquisition established toward the close of the fifteenth century is to be sought in a quite different quarter, namely, in the peculiar conditions surrounding the Jewish population of the Peninsula. Jews there had been in Spain since Roman days, and the Visigothic kings and bishops adopted a harsh policy of persecution which brought them as near the Inquisition "as the rudeness of the age and the looseness of their tottering political organization would permit"; but under Mohammedan rule the Spanish Jews enjoyed the freedom and large opportunities which were open to them throughout Islam, and, curiously enough, the long wars of the *reconquista* served to soften rather than to embitter the relations between the different races and faiths. As in Syria, in the days of the Latin kingdom, so in Spain, "mutual attrition, so far from inflaming prejudices, led to mutual toleration, so that fanaticism became reduced to a minimum precisely in that corner of Christendom where *a-priori* reasoners have been tempted to regard it as especially violent." On the whole, the Spaniards of the Middle Ages, ecclesiastics as well as laymen, appear to have been remarkably tolerant, and the hatred for Jew and infidel which has been so notable a trait of Spanish character in modern times, far from being an inborn quality of the race, a *cosa de España* which requires no explanation, dates only from the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The change of attitude with regard to the Jews arose from the gradual introduction into the Spanish church of the spirit of oppression and persecution which prevailed in other parts of Latin Christendom; the terrible massacres of 1391 formed the turning-point, and the religious bigotry thenceforth so assiduously fostered culminated a century later in the inhuman decree which drove all adherents of the Hebrew faith from the Peninsula.

Under the fear of death or the threat of persecution, large numbers of Jews sought immunity by professing Christianity, and, with the barrier of religion removed, these

new Christians accumulated still greater wealth, rose to the highest positions in Church and State, and intermarried with the oldest families. "The time soon came when there were few of the ancient nobility of Spain who were not connected, closely or remotely, with the Jew"; the first inquisitor-general, Torquemada, was of Jewish descent, and so was his successor, Diego Deza. But hatred of the Jew, once it had been aroused against his religion, easily extended to his race, and the prosperity of the *conversos* served only to increase the popular detestation. Moreover, in one respect they were now at a serious disadvantage:

"As Jews they might be despoiled and humiliated, confined in narrow Jewries, and restricted as to their careers and means of livelihood, but withal they enjoyed complete freedom of faith, in which they were subjected only to their own rabbis. They were outside of the Church, and the Church claimed no jurisdiction over them in matters of religion, so long as they did not openly blaspheme Christianity or seek to make proselytes. As soon, however, as the convert was baptized, he became a member of the Church, and for any aberration from orthodoxy he was amenable to its laws. . . . The circumstances under which the mass of conversions was effected —threats of massacre or the wearing pressure of inhuman laws—were not such as to justify confidence in the sincerity of the neophytes, nor, when baptism was administered indiscriminately to multitudes, was there a possibility of detailed instruction in the complicated theology of their new faith. Rabbinical Judaism, moreover, so entwines itself with every detail of the believer's daily life, and attaches so much importance to the observances which it enjoins, that it was impossible for whole communities, thus suddenly Christianized, to abandon the rites and usages which, through so many generations, had become a part of existence itself. Earnest converts might have brought up their children as Christians and the grandchildren might have outgrown the old customs, but the *conversos* could not be earnest converts, and the sacred traditions, handed down by father to son from the days of the Sanhedrin, were too precious to be set aside. . . .

"The insincerity of the conversion of a large portion of the Marranos was incontestable; according to the principles universally accepted at the period, it was the duty of the sovereigns to reduce them to conformity; with the pacification of the land the time had come to attempt this resolutely and comprehensively, and the only question was as to the method."

Nevertheless, some years elapsed between the accession of Ferdinand and Isabella in 1474 and the actual organization of the Inquisition in Castile. Not only did the rich and powerful *conversos* throughout the kingdom bring all their influence to bear at the court and at Rome, but the arrangements between the Catholic sovereigns and the Pope were a matter of some difficulty, for "Ferdinand and Isabella desired, not the ordinary papal Inquisition, but one which should be under the royal control and should pour into the royal treasury the resultant confiscations." The bull of Sixtus IV., authorizing the appointment of inquisitors by the crown, was granted in 1478, but no commissions under it were issued until 1480, and it was not till the following year that the fires of the first *auto da fe* were lighted at Seville. In 1483 Torquemada was made inquisitor-general for Castile, and a special council, the Suprema, created, with jurisdiction over all matters connected with the faith; but the Pope had likewise appointed inquisitors, holding faculties immediately from the Holy See, and it was some years before the relations of the ecclesiastical and secular authorities reached a fairly permanent adjustment. "There was a constant struggle on the one hand to render the Spanish Holy Office national and independent, and on the other to keep it subject to papal control"; and there were special difficulties in extending the new organization to the Aragonese kingdoms, where the Dominican Inquisition still survived, and where the people were fiercely jealous of royal authority.

It will thus be seen that, from its very beginning, the Spanish Inquisition was a peculiar institution, differing from the episcopal and Dominican tribunals of the Middle Ages by reason of its close connection with the State; and the question of its exact relation to the public authorities constitutes one of the most important problems in its history. The view that the Holy Office in Spain was not an ecclesiastical institution at all, but a part of the civil government, can claim so high an authority as Ranke in its support, and has been widely circulated by two generations of Catholic apologists, eager to relieve the Church from so heavy a burden of responsibility. More recently there has been a movement in the opposite direction, and Pastor, perhaps the most eminent Catholic historian of the present day, has abandoned the apologetic attitude and declared frankly that the Spanish Inquisition was "a mixed institution of a predominantly ecclesiastical character." With this view Mr. Lea is in essential agreement; but, instead of treating the relations of the two elements as the fixed and unchanging results of certain principles of law, he makes it clear that they varied considerably from reign to reign. To quote his language:

"What gave to the Spanish Inquisition its peculiar and terrible efficiency was the completeness of its organization and its combination of the mysterious authority of the Church with the secular power of the crown. The old Inquisition was purely an ecclesiastical institution, empowered, it is true, to call upon the State for aid and for the execution of its sentences, but throughout Christendom the relations between Church and State were too often antagonistic for its commands always to receive obedience. In Spain, however, the Inquisition represented not only the Pope, but the King; it practically wielded the two swords—the spiritual and the temporal—and the combination produced a tyranny similar in character, but far more minute and all-pervading, to that which England suffered during the closing years of Henry VIII. as Supreme Head of the Church.

"While thus its domination over the people was secure and unvarying, its relations with the royal power varied with the temperament of the sovereign. At times it was the instrument of his will; at others it seemed as though it might almost supplant the monarchy; it was constantly seeking to extend its awful authority over the other departments of state, which struggled with varying success to resist its encroachments, while successive kings, autocratic in theory, sometimes posed as arbitrators, sometimes vainly endeavored to enforce their pacificatory commands, but more generally yielded to its domineering spirit."

As might be expected, the control of the crown was at its maximum under Ferdinand the Catholic. He made the power of appointing and dismissing the officials of the Inquisition an indispensable condition of its introduction, and, in spite of the manifold cares of domestic and foreign policy, found time to keep every detail of its organization and working under his constant supervision. Moreover, as the Inquisition had no revenues apart from the expenses and salaries which the King allowed it out of the proceeds of its confiscations, it was in no position to assert its independence. "It was inevitable that, when this powerful personality was withdrawn, the royal control over the Inquisition should diminish." The crown never lost the right of appointing the heads of the Holy Office, but they were not responsible to any other body in the State; and with the growth of the cumbersome bureaucracy of the seventeenth century the Suprema succeeded in interposing itself between the crown and its subordinates in such a way as seriously to limit the real authority of the sovereign. The Holy Office also gained control over its own finances, and it was not till the days of the Bourbons that its independence was seriously restricted.

In spite, however, of its close relations with the State, the Inquisition remained a strictly ecclesiastical tribunal. If its sentences of death were executed by the secular power, this had also been true of the condemnations for heresy in the Middle Ages, and only served to demonstrate more clearly the ecclesiastical character of a jurisdiction which observed the precepts of the canon law with regard to the participation of clerks in capital sentences. Though nominated by the King, the inquisitor-general was invested with the powers of his office by *motu proprio* of the Pope, and the members of the Suprema received by delegation from him the faculties which gave them jurisdiction over heresy. Even Ferdinand, as appears from his correspondence, abstained from interference with their spiritual jurisdiction. As a body charged with the maintenance of the faith, the Holy Office asserted its superiority over all other bodies in the State, and insisted with truly Spanish punctiliousness upon the precedence of its officers and agents on public occasions. It claimed exemption from taxation and customs dues, and demanded for its officials and servants the right to bear arms and the right to refuse military service, as well as the right to hold secular office and to decline it. Moreover, this *imperium in imperio* did not limit its jurisdiction to matters of faith. *Boni judicis est ampliare jurisdictionem*, and, by a natural application of the principle of benefit of clergy, the Inquisition asserted its exclusive competence in cases involving its subordinates, and maintained its claims in the face of continued resistance on the part of the various secular and spiritual courts. Multiplication of unsalaried officials subject to its jurisdiction was a natural consequence, so that it might easily arise that "unprofitable business was neglected for profitable, and the suppression of heresy was postponed to the trial of civil and criminal cases which yielded fees."

No summary of Mr. Lea's conclusions can give an idea of the extent of his research or the skill with which he unravels the threads of a tangled subject. Although only a few of the more notable documents are reproduced, the volume rests throughout on original materials, carefully examined and sifted and scrupulously cited. The author's method is that of the sober

and objective historian. There is no moralizing and no striving for dramatic effect; the purpose is simply to trace and explain the development and character of a very remarkable institution, whose real nature is to be seen in its normal operations rather than in the sensational episodes of its history, and whose significance lies "not so much in the awful solemnities of the *auto da fe*, or in the cases of a few celebrated victims, as in the silent influence exercised by its incessant and secret labors among the mass of the people and in the limitations which it placed upon the Spanish intellect."

The amount of detail which this method of treatment involves will to some appear excessive, but it is only in concrete detail that the actual workings of institutions can be understood, and it is refreshing to have at hand a substantial amount of definite fact in a field where previous writers have given us so much passionate and unsupported generalization. Moreover, it is impossible to cut deep into a subject like the Inquisition without throwing light on many other sides of Spanish history. Thus, a careful examination of the correspondence of Ferdinand the Catholic with the officials of the Inquisition not only shows his minute control of every department of the Government and his anxiety to lose nothing of the confiscated property of the condemned, but also reveals "an innate sense of justice wholly unexpected in a monarch who ranked next to Cesar Borgia in the estimation of Machiavelli." The rare appearance of Isabella's name in this correspondence leads Mr. Lea to "the conviction that her share in the administration of her kingdom has been exaggerated." There are also interesting illustrations of the anarchy of mediæval Castile, the struggles of Crown and Cortes, the character of the bureaucracy, and the system of taxation. The appendix contains a list of tribunals and inquisitors-general, and a brief account of the intricacies of Spanish coinage, as well as a number of interesting documents.

AN ENLIGHTENED SPIRIT.

The Journal of Latrobe: Being the Notes and Sketches of an Architect, Naturalist, and Traveller in the United States from 1796 to 1820. By Benjamin Henry Latrobe, Architect of the Capitol at Washington. With an introduction by J. H. B. Latrobe. D. Appleton & Co. 1905.

This is a remarkably comely and restrained filial memorial to a man who deserves to be remembered professionally and for his own high qualities. Latrobe was born, presumably in England, about 1767; there is no precise statement of place or date, and the particulars of his transatlantic life are very meagre. His father, of Huguenot stock, was a Moravian clergyman; his mother was a Pennsylvanian of a family well known to Gen. Washington. He himself was educated in Yorkshire and at Leipzig on the eve of the French Revolution, whose generous principles he imbibed without fanaticism. His draughtsmanship was precocious, and he was well advanced in the practice of architecture when the death of his first wife depressed his spirits and determined him to remove to America. There is no certain knowledge of the works he left behind him.

He landed in Norfolk, Va., and it would appear that he never visited the country east of the Delaware. He resided by turns in Richmond, Philadelphia, Washington, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, and finally New Orleans, where he died in 1820. In the twenty-four years thus occupied he had built a penitentiary for Richmond, the Bank of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia, the Baltimore Exchange and Cathedral (this still unfinished, except as regards the interior), with many other minor edifices, and had furnished Philadelphia and New Orleans with water works. Above all, having been in 1803 made Surveyor of Public Buildings in Washington, he had rescued the new Capitol from its deplorable beginnings and reared the best-known monument to himself. Of architecture, nevertheless, there is all too little in this volume. He says of his craft (p. 147):

"The architect, indeed, requires all the imagination of the painter. The building exists in his mind before it is sketched upon paper; and if the operation of design is the same in other heads as mine, arrangement, construction, and decoration are attained so simultaneously that I seldom materially change the design first elaborated."

Other personal indications are his preference for the French arrangement of domestic interiors by which rooms freely become thoroughfares, as contrasted with "the detestable, lopsided London house, in which a common passage and stairs acts as a common sewer to all the necessities of the dwelling" and forbids equable heating (p. 187). And again (p. 140): "I would never put a cupola on any spherical dome. It is not the *ornament*, it is the *use* that I want." He says (p. 54) of Mrs. Radcliffe that she is particularly successful in descriptions of buildings, "though I once endeavored to plan the Castle of Udolpho from her account of it and found it impossible." Robert Morris's folly, the huge unfinished pile constructed upon L'Enfant's carefully secreted plans, equally baffled him. "It is impossible to decide which of the two is the madder, the architect or his employer. Both of them have been ruined by it" (p. 92). Eight years later, in Washington, "daily through the city stalks, the picture of famine, L'Enfant and his dog. The plan of the city is probably his, though others claim it" (p. 133). Latrobe's criticism of Thornton's plan for the national Capitol, of which no drawings existed, is (p. 115): "To speak plainly, the design was evidently the production of a man wholly ignorant of architecture, having brilliant ideas, but possessing neither the knowledge necessary for the execution nor the capacity to methodize and combine the various parts of a public work." His son tells us that when he had received the commission to build the Bank of Pennsylvania there was no book procurable in this country to which to refer for the proportions of the orders. The Journal fitly closes with his observation of two French officers looking at this building without saying a word. "After some time one of them exclaimed several times, 'C'est si beau, et si simple!' He said no more, and stood for a few minutes longer before he walked away with his companion. I do not recollect distinctly anything that has happened that has given me so much particular satisfaction."

The Journal is the production of a gentleman of breeding, liberal education, tone, humor, democratic instincts, and sobriety of living. He was, for example, a water-drinker, and had every reason to be shocked in his fastidiousness by the coarse manners prevalent in his day at the South; but he records it all without disgust. He discusses the question, raised by a cultivated Italian traveller, "Do you think the Virginians really hospitable?" quite philosophically and in extenuation of "us Virginians." He had a taste of Washington's hospitality on a visit to Mt. Vernon in 1797, a valuable record. The ex-President "laughed heartily several times in a very good-humored manner." Eleanor Custis was a dream of beauty (she is delineated as a figure on a Grecian vase); young Lafayette rather awkward in his build. Latrobe's being consulted as to the regulations and by-laws of the Charlestown (Va.) Academy draws from him an elaborate comment editorially mislabelled, "Thoughts on National System of Education." Noticeable here is his objection not to teaching the classics, but to giving them the preference over everything, and his humane protest against flogging.

New Orleans is the main rubric of the Journal, and it is hard to refrain from quoting Latrobe's many graphic "impressions" regarding the inhabitants and their ways (in 1818), and his broadminded observations on Sabbatarianism, cremation, yellow fever, etc. We shall, however, conclude this notice with his unpremeditated reflections on slavery, in which he speaks as an American or even as a Virginian. It is true, he wrote after ten days' acquaintance with the city and its exemplification of the "peculiar institution," though the Rev. Amasa Converse, D. D., a Northern man with Southern and secessionist principles, laid down the law to the Rev. Albert Barnes, D. D., that no one was qualified to write on slavery who had not lived at least five years in a slaveholding community. Still, here is what Latrobe sets down of the creoles and their reputation for extreme cruelty (p. 182):

"In going into Davis's ball-room and looking around the brilliant circle of ladies, it is impossible to imagine that any one of the fair, mild, and somewhat languid faces could express any feeling but of kindness and humanity. And yet several, I had almost said many, of these soft beauties had themselves handled the cowskin with a sort of savage pleasure, and those soft eyes had looked on the tortures of their slaves, inflicted by their orders, with satisfaction, while they had coolly prescribed the dose of infliction, the measure of which should stop short of the life of their property."

The contrast haunts him, for, after cataloguing some atrocious cases, one on the part of his own landlady—"Madame Tremoulet, why should I conceal the name of such a termagant?"—while he was a guest in her hotel, he recurs to that ballroom on Washington's birthday (p. 184):

"All pale, languid, and mild. I fancied that I saw a cowskin in every pretty hand, gracefully waved in the dance; and admired the comparative awkwardness of look and motion of my countrywomen, whose arms had never been rendered pliant by the exercise of the whip upon the bound and screaming slaves."

But Latrobe was, if not unjust to the creoles, too lenient to his adopted countrywomen. In 'American Slavery As It Is'

(1839), at page 23, one may read Miss Sarah M. Grimké's unimpeachable Southern aristocratic testimony to this effect:

"A punishment dreaded more by the slaves than whipping, unless it is unusually severe, is one which was invented by a female acquaintance of mine in Charleston—I heard her say so with much satisfaction. It is standing on one foot and holding the other in the hand. Afterwards it was improved upon, and a strap was contrived to fasten around the ankle and pass around the neck, so that the least weight of the foot resting on the strap would choke the person. . . . I heard this same woman say that she had the ears of her waiting-maid *slit* for some petty theft. This she told me in the presence of the girl, who was standing in the room. She often had the helpless victims of her cruelty severely whipped, not scrupling herself to wield the instrument of torture, and with her own hands inflict severe chastisement. Her husband was less inhuman than his wife, but he was often goaded on by her to acts of great severity."

In the following acute generalization Latrobe is again too narrow in confining its application to creoles (p. 204):

"Servants who are slaves are always treated with more familiarity than hirelings; probably because if you indulge and behave familiarly to a hireling, you cannot, if he presume upon it, correct him as you correct a slave, and make him feel his inferiority by corporal punishment. Therefore we find cruelty and confidence, cowhiding and caressing, perfectly in accord with one another among the creoles of this place and their slaves."

If we needed any excuse for these extracts it would be found in the old taunt (still echoing), "Why don't you go South and see for yourself?" We know what condition is suppressed: "but [in the parlance of the photographer's studio] 'look pleasant.'" Latrobe went unbidden to the South, lived in the South, without bias. He did not "look pleasant" at slavery. What weight will the Southern mind attach to his testimony?

The numerous charming sketches from Latrobe's brush sprinkled through his Journal are the best sort of historical annals, and illustrate natural scenery and the works of man from the Wissahickon to the Balize. A few thumb-nail pen-and-ink portraits, of marked felicity—Edmund Randolph, Patrick Henry, Washington—make us long for more. On the other hand, a book so beautifully and generously made, with large type and unglazed paper, is painfully marred by faulty proofreading. The worst instance (p. 247) results in this unintelligible characterization: "Chateaubriand, the *disgrace* of eloquence and of talents." In fine, this work, whose entertaining and instructive quality we have but faintly suggested, should find an honored place in every library.

HOW OUGHT HISTORY TO BE TAUGHT AT A UNIVERSITY?

A Plea for the Historical Teaching of History: An Inaugural Lecture delivered by C. H. Firth. on November 9, 1904. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

Inaugural Lecture on the Study of History, Delivered on Wednesday, February 7, 1906, by Charles Oman. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1906.

Professor Firth and Professor Oman are two of the most eminent among Oxford teachers. They have each given a reply to the above question. It is well worth while to set aside for a moment matters of detail which concern only the mechanism of historical teaching at Oxford, and to consider what is the answer provided by two distinguished historians to an inquiry which assuredly ought to be of interest to the universities of America no less than to those of England. There is the more reason for doing this because readers who compare the inaugural lecture of Mr. Firth with the inaugural lecture of Mr. Oman are likely to imagine (erroneously, as we are convinced) that a very marked difference means something like distinct opposition, and that two men equally devoted to historical study utterly disagree as to the mode in which history should be taught.

Professor Firth obviously considers that the main object of historical teaching at a great university is the preparation of students for the work of historians. It is quite certain, he insists, and, no one can doubt, with perfect truth, that our future historians need special training. In the attempt to ascertain and to draw the proper inferences from the events of the past, or, to use Professor Firth's expression, "to reduce superabundant facts into order, to show their connection with each other and to distinguish the true statement from the false," an historical student needs special training quite as much as does a youth bent upon learning medicine or law or divinity or any other branch of liberal knowledge. It is also certain that this special training is not at present provided at the old English universities. The result seems inevitably to follow that "it is the business of the Professors of History and the University teachers of the subject . . . to provide this in Oxford; *the professional training of historians is our proper function.*"

The words we have italicized contain the true gist of his inaugural address. Nor can any impartial judge doubt that the principle on which he insists is of the very highest value. In the sphere of history, as elsewhere, special and technical knowledge has acquired a new importance. It becomes, therefore, a matter of necessity that a university which fulfils its duty should supply for any man who intends to make the object of his life the ascertainment of historical truth, the discipline essential for the attainment of his purpose. We may go a step further and agree with Professor Firth that Oxford has some special advantages for successfully performing a duty which the University does not at present adequately discharge. The distinction between College tutors and University professors has its evils. No one can fail to see that the relation between the two needs readjustment; but no man who acknowledges, as we unreservedly do, the immense debt owed by the University to the collegiate teachers can doubt that the distinction between College instruction and University teaching might lead to a very beneficial division of work. This division might leave to the historical professors, as their special task, the training of men who wished to become themselves historians. Then, too, the intimate relation between teacher and student which is the essential merit of the College system, might also characterize the relation between the professor and the students whom he trained as specialists. Nor can one keep out of view the consideration that the historical character of the old English seats of learning and of English institutions generally does excite, as it ought to excite, among many undergraduates and graduates special interest in history. To bring the matter home to our own public, we ask whether they can doubt that, if Oxford provided an elaborate training in historical research, England would supply a better school for the training of American inquirers interested in the past of the whole English people than could, for them, be created at Paris or at any of the universities of Germany? If this inquiry be answered as we are convinced it must be, then the doctrine preached by Mr. Firth ought to be hailed with enthusiasm by every American citizen who wishes to join the noble group of historians who form one of the glories of the English-speaking people. For what Mr. Firth maintains is this, not that every man who learns history should be a specialist, but that every man who wishes to become a specialist should find at Oxford the needful instruction. To put his point in plain terms: men who have taken their degrees, or perhaps do not mean to take a degree at all, should receive at Oxford a training at least as good as anything which they can acquire at Paris or Berlin.

Professor Oman, who may seem at first to contradict, will be found, if his lecture be carefully studied, in reality not to oppose but to supplement the doctrine of Mr. Firth. He looks at the matter, no doubt, from a very different point of view. He, rightly enough, perceives what, by the way, Mr. Firth never for a moment denies—the great virtues of the tutorial system. He recognizes a fact which is often overlooked by zealous reformers, that no system of teaching can flourish which does not meet the wants of the learners; and this general truth is in a very particular sense applicable to the universities of England. There are, indeed, far too many men who come there to have a good time and to enjoy the natural and in themselves innocent pleasures of vigorous youth; but with these men we need not for the moment concern ourselves. Teachers at a university must in the main devote their powers to the benefit of students who wish, or whose parents wish them, to receive training in something better than rowing, football, and cricket. But even when we have eliminated the men whose object in coming to Oxford or Cambridge is not the development of their intellectual talents, we must still draw a distinction between two views of this sort of moral or intellectual instruction which a university should provide for its true students.

The fact "that must be faced is, that [Oxford] is a Place of Education as well as a Place of Research"—these words strike the real keynote of Professor Oman's inaugural address. They deserve, as they will receive, careful attention. It is often, as the Professor admits, most difficult to correlate these two functions of general education and special research; but in any case "there remains the obvious fact that we are confronted by a large body of young men who have to be educated, and that the larger proportion of them are intended for careers for which no technical-schools curriculum exists." Of this body a very small proportion indeed are destined in the

end to take up the burden of original research; and to this statement we add that the members of the great public, the so-called educated classes, do not in England appreciate at its due worth the merit of special or technical knowledge, while they do appreciate, not perhaps above its worth but assuredly at its full value, that very curious mixture of good qualities and of defects, of gross ignorance and of a certain broad knowledge of life, which is popularly known as the education of an English gentleman. It is assuredly, therefore, the fact, and we are thankful to Professor Oman for forcing it into attention, that the majority even of the best students at Oxford or Cambridge will not be specialists, nor will they, as things now stand, either desire or with any eagerness accept technical instruction in historical research. But this does not mean that history can teach them nothing; they will learn, if properly taught, and even under a system in many ways defective do learn, the general outlines of English and European history. These outlines, be it remembered, may be taught well or ill. They may be taught, and we fully believe at Oxford are taught, in a way which kindles an interest in the annals of the past that gives learners some knowledge, not only of the main events that make up modern history, but also of the principles by which these events have been regulated and of the general conclusions which they suggest. Nor is it possible that good teaching, such as is given by the best professors and the best tutors at Oxford, should not excite in the minds of a limited number of disciples the desire to study history on their own behalf, and some sort of idea, however vague, of the kind of training which, especially in modern times, any man needs who aspires to become an historian.

No doubt it is true that no discipline whatever can create genius—just as it is also true that the ignorant pedantry of a university cannot utterly destroy the force of innate originality or of enthusiastic industry. The intellectual torpidity of Magdalen did not, after all, prevent Gibbon from producing the 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,' the Jacobitism and dulness of Balliol did not make it impossible for Adam Smith to become the author of the 'Wealth of Nations.' Still, the negative credit of not destroying innate genius hardly justifies the existence or the emoluments of a so-called place of learning, and at this point Mr. Oman's teaching brings us round to and confirms the doctrine of Mr. Firth. For, after all, it is only the old and eternal story of the two sides of the shield. There exists not the remotest reason why, whilst the mass of Oxford students are supplied with a sound knowledge of history, the select body of men who wish to carry on the special study of history, should not find at Oxford the special training which they now generally seek for on the Continent.

As there is no essential opposition between the lesson insisted upon by each of our professors, we may well come to the conclusion that each places before us one-half of the whole truth. But if one be asked whether the doctrine of Mr. Oman or the doctrine of Mr. Firth be the more seasonable, it is impossible not to answer that the text on which Mr. Firth has preached is that which, in the year 1906, needs, more than any other, to be forced upon the attention of the English universities and the English world. The Oxford School of History has achieved most valuable work; but, as invariably happens, in the case of universities no less than of individuals, the adequate performance of one duty leads to the necessity for taking some further step along the arduous and never-ending path of progress. A school which has created, even among a limited number of disciples, such an interest in history that they long to take up the burden of research, cannot stand still; such a school must, at any cost whatever, provide for the best among its scholars the means for gaining something better than a good degree—that is, for satisfying the noble rage for knowledge.

NOVELS, OLD AND NEW.

Calmire: Man and Nature. Sixth Edition.—*Sturmsee:* Man and Man. Third Edition. By Henry Holt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Curayl. By Una L. Silberrad. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Called to the Field. By Lucy Meacham Thruston. Little, Brown & Co.

Lady Baltimore. By Owen Wister. Macmillan Co.

The Circular Study. By Anna Katharine Green. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co.

In the fourteenth year of its life, and in its sixth edition, with Mr. Henry Holt as its lately acknowledged author, reappears 'Calmire,' revised and enlarged to the amplitude of seven hundred pages, and transferred to a new publisher. For an adequate review of this book, of its philosophies, its psychologies, its ethics, its æsthetics, its literary qualities, a small staff of experts should be employed. The reviewer of fiction may scarcely hope to pronounce upon the linked details of evolution, upon the histories of religions, upon the origins of superstitions, upon the results of psychic research, upon the possibilities of the soul's future. And these are only a few of the subjects that are threshed out by Calmire, Muriel, and Nina in their talks. The book might well be sub-entitled "The Evolutionist's Harry and Lucy." Who that has been nourished on Miss Edgeworth does not remember the long pages of natural philosophy, the building of bridges, the making of barometers, here and there broken in upon by fitful gleams of story? Even so does each event in the history of the Calmire group become a session in a school of philosophy. To the fiction reviewer it appears that the book loses by being cast in the form of a novel. Unlike the young Edgeworth reader, one would like to keep the bridges and discard the Harry and Lucy. The expositions, however, are invariably clear and animated. The author's style is to say what he means in simplified rhetoric, with buoyant disregard of classic graces. He never fails to make his burnished point. As a popular treatise on the evolution of the universe from star-dust to civilized man, 'Calmire' is exceedingly readable. It would be even more so if it were not associated with the discomfort one must feel on having two men continually sending mother upstairs after dinner and devoting their intellects to tearing up daughter by the roots from her belief in Christianity.

For real enjoyment of the book, then, eliminate the novel, and let Calmire, with his patience and his calm, his wide reading, his warm head and steady heart, give a monologue on the beginnings of things, the building up of human faculties and faiths, the future of souls, the oneness of the universe. With Nina and her susceptibilities removed from the scene, there would be no occasion for him to be kind to God for her sake. He could preach flat pantheism and have done with it.

Man's relation to Nature having been hopefully settled by 'Calmire,' the characters add other chosen spirits unto themselves, and, stepping forward a few years, reappear in 'Sturmsee,' where they dispose of sociology. The relations of labor and capital, coöperation, conspiracy, strikes, competition, Trusts, single tax, the tariff, are the leading motives, yet are there time and space for elaborated views on aristocracies and democracies. New York society, capital punishment, the probationary system, euthanasia, settlement work, æsthetics, dead laws, house decoration, war, divorce, and the relation of ability to the instep, to which may be added sundry topics arising on the fiction side of the work—Mount Desert picnics, with landscape attachments, balls in the East, pageants in the West, obstacles to love between princes and subjects, the Chicago Fair, heroes with brows rent by pain and anguish, ministering angels raised thereto, the eligibility of a tin manufacturer to enter the best New York society, the decision of Calmire that he may worthily do so, and not only that, but that there is no real reason for his hesitating to dine with him, Calmire, who adds encouragingly, "At every dinner I go to, I meet men who are immeasurably beneath you in every particular."

Sociologically, the doctrine is more constructive than were the theologic teachings of 'Calmire.' Like those, they are admirably stated; they are more than lucid—they are luminous and illuminating. One can find no more lively or interesting showing of contemporary theory than in the talks of the various characters. What the magnate, the workman, the settlement worker, the anarchist respectively think is set down vividly and fairly. The reader who saw Calmire cheerfully flinging Christianity into the gulf of past errors will be hardly prepared to find him and his friends on the conservative side of questions pertaining to trades unions and the rights of labor, combating the Marx doctrines that the only value in a product is the labor put into it, and that wages get none of the benefit of increased invention; characterizing collectivism as "a lovely ideal for the future, perhaps," but recognizing in individualism the only productive power as the world now exists; advocating the slow ways of nature in all economic changes, since the cures that go faster than the men will inevitably wreck them; foreseeing that "men's conditions will grow toward equality just as fast as men grow toward equality in productive power"; and declaring that there is no good way to prevent the top-heavy fortunes of to-day "but by increasing the average man's capacity to produce a share of them and by slow experiments in improving the laws."

The searcher for stimulating suggestions must read, too, what Governor Sturmsee thought and did. He inspired legislation against railroad strikes; he believed in denying to self-declared anarchists the protection of government; he was tempted to let a poor wretch die, but saved him, recalling his physician's oath, and reflecting that "no one man's wisdom is safer than the wisdom of the ages." He advocated probation unto the third offence, and would have liked to advocate capital punishment for habitual criminals, but refrained. And his State arose and called him blessed. Between the covers, furthermore, may be found a picture of social struggle, where the Smart Set are to some extent differentiated from the best set, as social novels do not always remember to do. The novel, however, is a handicap to the doctrine even more than in the case of 'Calmire,' inasmuch as there are more characters and more situations to obstruct the real proceedings. 'Sturmsee' contains a good deal of Miss Alcott's instructive and ethical lovemaking, which may or may not be a recommendation. Muriel has partially subsided and improved since his 'Calmire' days. Yet, in regard to his unpleasant pleasantries, it is observable that he is still suffering from arrested evolution. Nina is a finished product, and can afford to be silent. Calmire remains catholic, charitable, judicial. Sturmsee himself, the German-American doctor and governor, is a cross between Lohengrin and a pamphlet on economics.

After novels of ologies and osophies there is a deal of lazy comfort in the old-fashioned rural English, typhus-fever story, with ill-drained cottages and lady and gentlemen volunteer nurses. Such cerebral calm falls on the reader of 'Curayl,' although the last page is reached by ways traversing many original fields and pastures. The posing of a layman as a clergyman, half-accidentally and with benevolent intent, for a single occasion as he supposes, involves him and others in a vast web of consequences made the more impressive by the man's persuasive, attractive, lightly-compelling personality, aptly compared to that of the Pied Piper. Anthony Luttrell's offhand strength and a healthily controlled wild-Irishism are made into a very real little portrait of a character "not black or white, or even the neutral gray that experience had painted half the world, but composite, the brightest white and the blackest black." A great deal of black in the old family surroundings of Beatrice Curayl had made a shaded personality a new creature in her experience. As the wife of a man to whom she has been married for the old family's convenience, she is confronted with the new study which ends well for all concerned. A lost miniature is one of the leading motives in the book, and the characters, white, black, and gray, are drawn with decision. A comparative study of the verbs lie and lay would be of advantage to the writer, or proofreader, together with the use of "as" after "equally." It does not really matter whether Beatrice came to Waterside before or after Caser's death, although on pages 270 and 280 we are liberally offered the choice. 'Curayl' is a very good little novel of the minor order, and throughout holds the interest.

'Called to the Field,' a story of Virginia in the civil war, is a touching and moving recital, dealing less with the called or the field than with the left-behinds and the homesteads. It is more than a story, for it pictures in faithful detail the life of the Virginia that stayed at home, spun, wove, ploughed, and suffered while the men went to the war; that faced the raids in lonely houses and nursed the sick in forsaken attics, and planned escapes by dangerous ways, and never complained—the women of Virginia and their trusty slaves. As a story of the afflicted, harassed, tortured, but unwhining stay-at-homes, this little book has a quality not usual. For characterization, the most notable instance is the Virginian father, he who energetically ploughs and plants to the sound of the guns of Gloucester Point, saying, "There is just one way in this world to live—to plan as if we were to live forever, and then to live each day as if it were our last." The young wife, who is the narrator, has the gay, irresponsible heroic traits of her kind. The negroes are capitally done and not overdone. In short, but for tropical zones of language and landscape, 'Called to the Field' is a well-made book—all the more historically correct, perhaps, for those very exaggerations.

'Lady Baltimore' is marked by all the author's cleverness and power of observation. It is a sketch of American life, but could have been written, we think, only by an American endowed by inheritance or instinct with the power of looking at America very objectively; of seeing the absurd side of things here generally taken seriously. And we must say, also, that it is rather an extravaganza than a novel. That is, the characters behave up to a certain point as people behave in real life, but after that it is a comic-opera atmosphere. This we say, not by way of objection, but as an effort at analyzing an impression which haunts the reader throughout. There is a theatrical vividness about the scenes; the people behave like people in a play. The chapters called "The Girl behind the Counter" are a very pretty little farcical comedy by themselves. The way things happen and the way people reveal themselves is theatrical. Sometimes we find ourselves listening for the music. Even the title of the book is a masked jest. The old aunts and their conversations with the author of the tale are the funnier for being a little exaggerated. If Mr. Wister has been found fault with for these aunts' communicativeness, it must be on the erroneous ground that they are aunts proper to a novel. Once admit that the domain in which Mr. Wister acts as cicerone is often that of burlesque, and the difficulty vanishes. So do many difficulties presented by the vagaries of other persons in the story. The "yellow rich," for instance, are not at all the "yellow rich" who accomplished the ruin of Lily Bart, but almost the "multis" of a French farce.

What Mr. Wister has written might be called extravaganza with a purpose. He has managed through it all to give a charming picture of what is supposed to be left of the old society of Charleston, as it existed before the war, or rather of the provincial well-bred society which has inherited the old ideas. The tale deals with the negro question, but from the Southern point of view. Here Mr. Wister is very real. If John Mayrant's troubles in the Charleston custom house "under a negro" are not the real events of an actual career, they certainly ought to be. It is hardly necessary to say that the book is witty; the author cannot help being entertaining. The "management" of the old classical Charleston joke, its repetition as a matter of course, and the final explosion it causes, are all excellent.

The talented author of the 'Leavenworth Case' ought to be warned in time, or she will make of the detective novel a Chinese puzzle which the reader, even with the author's aid, will "give up" in despair. The "Circular Study" is a room, of course; a room in which a justifiable homicide, at first thought to be murder in the first degree, was committed. To learn the *causa causans* of this shocking event, we have to go back three generations, and get very tired on the journey. Possibly Mrs. Rohlfs cannot help herself, but the interest of such stories cannot be kept up if the plot becomes too involved to follow.

Principles of Economics. By E. R. A. Seligman. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

This is the third sizable treatise upon economics brought out by American writers during the last two years—not to speak of various elementary manuals and translations of foreign works. At this rate of increase, it is evident that, before long, in accordance with the principle dear to the modern economist, the marginal utility of a new text-book should fall to something approaching a minus quantity. Yet most of the recent publications have vindicated their right to exist, and, beyond question, Professor Seligman's work will do so. Its success, moreover, will be due not only to the size and rapid growth of the market, but to the fact that it offers something not found in the common run of treatises.

The 'Principles of Economics' is divided into four parts, of which the first, or introduction, deals with the fundamental concepts of the science and with economic law and method. The second treats of the elements of economic life, and considers, first, nature and man, the foundations of economic life; second, the evolution of industrial society; and, third, the conditions of economic life—such as private property, competition, and personal freedom. The third part then describes the "structure and process" of economic life; and here we find most of the subjects treated in the ordinary manual, such as production, exchange and value, and the distribution of wealth. Finally, the fourth part, or conclusion, deals with the economic functions of government and the problem of poverty—substantially the topics to which John Stuart Mill devoted his fourth and fifth books. The whole is prefaced by some thirty pages of bibliographical material which will be useful to many readers.

Turning from the form of the book to the substance, the first thing to attract attention is the large amount of space given to historical, descriptive, and illustrative materials gathered from many different sources. This feature has been prominent in most of the American treatises produced during the last six or eight years, but no previous writer has made so much of it as Professor Seligman.

His book is compacted full of valuable information at every point, and herein, perhaps, its chief merit will be found. Numerous maps and charts—more numerous, in fact, than were ever placed in an economic textbook—give point to the descriptive and statistical discussions of the text. Withal, the data are conveniently arranged and carefully indexed so that even advanced students will find the work a useful repository of information upon matters economic.

In point of doctrine Professor Seligman is, of course, a competent guide, even though, upon this side, his work is open to criticism at various points. With commendable breadth and catholicity of view, he has drawn upon the work of all schools, classical, historical, Austrian, and American; and has sought to grasp whatever of truth there might be in each. In his very care, however, to omit no significant variety or shade of previous opinion, he has at places overburdened his theoretical chapters with references to subjects that need not be brought to the beginner's attention; while he has not always digested and thoroughly assimilated the intellectual pabulum gathered with so much care.

This shortcoming is especially evident in the treatment accorded to mooted points in the theory of distribution. The traditional practice of economists has been to separate land from capital, and to consider the income derived from the former agent of production as a different sort of income from that derived from the second. Recently, however, various writers have sought to break down the distinction between land and capital, and to assimilate the earnings of the two. Professor Seligman, on his part, presents with care the views of the opposing schools, examines each candidly and critically, and then takes what seems to him a satisfactory middle position. But the differences of view are not so easily reconcilable; and it is probable that each disputant will maintain, and maintain fairly, that, at the crucial point, Professor Seligman has missed his real contention. It is not likely that economists will remain satisfied with the halting conclusion that "land is quantitively so important as compared with any other single commodity, and possesses so unique a social significance," that the income from land "should be separated from the income accruing to other instruments of production." We may expect that economists will either conclude that the differences are more fundamental than Professor Seligman supposes, or else will refuse to separate land rent from the income derived from other things. Which alternative will ultimately find favor, we need not now consider.

And this tendency to mediate indecisively between opposing theories is not confined to the chapters dealing with value and distribution—topics which are so often, but not by this author, relegated to the limbo of "pure theory"; it may be found in some of the chapters which deal with the so-called practical problems. Professor Seligman states, with evident candor, the arguments ordinarily advanced in favor of free trade and those advanced in behalf of protection; but his own conclusions hardly satisfy. So, too, with the Trust problem. He canvasses the facts fairly and interestingly, but his presentation of principles is not convincing. Upon these, and some other topics, the most marked tendency of his discussion is, after the manner of the German "historical school," to accept what exists or has existed as "relatively" justified for the particular time and place. To many readers, doubtless, this will be an additional recommendation for the book, but we believe that American economic writing at the present time is suffering from an excess of this scientific "standpattism."

With all its merits, therefore, Professor Seligman's 'Principles' has, upon its theoretical side, serious shortcomings. As a book of reference it should prove highly valuable—more so, in fact, than any other recent work. It shows wide knowledge of the literature of economics and admirable catholicity of view. But it does not advance us far toward a solution of disputed questions of theory and practical policy. Moreover, by its very wealth of material, it will confuse many a beginner who is not yet prepared for such a rich diet as is here provided. For him it is frequently less important to master all varieties and shades of economic opinion than to grasp firmly the things that are fundamental—a fact which is sometimes forgotten in this latest addition to American treatises upon economics.

A Short History of Italy (476-1900). By Henry Dwight Sedgwick. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

Mr. Sedgwick addresses the average intelligent person who desires to get a reasonably clear survey of the course of events in Italy from the fall of the Roman Empire to the present time. He disclaims thoroughness, and we have not observed any profound or original interpretations. But he does epitomize with considerable skill the generally accepted views of historians. His work, on the political side, is relatively inferior to the 'Sommario' which Cesare Balbo wrote sixty years ago; but it covers ground which Balbo did not traverse, and Balbo's book has not, to our knowledge, been translated into English. Mr. Sedgwick has little to fear from the abstract of Sismondi's 'Italian Republics' (1832), good but antiquated, or from the Rev. William Hunt's 'History of Italy' (1875), a dry textbook.

The difficulties that confront the historian of Italy are, first, the immense volume of material, and, next, the lack of continuity, or central theme. Until the nineteenth century, Italy was a geographical expression, although her geography included several states which had a lively existence of their own. Mr. Sedgwick's task is not to trace, even compactly, the development of Venice, Florence, and the other political divisions, but to define the movements common to the whole peninsula. So he naturally makes the conflict between the Papacy and the Empire his cardinal topic down to 1300; then the despotisms and the Renaissance in turn absorb his attention. This is logical, and it undeniably makes for clearness.

To criticise Mr. Sedgwick's work in detail would be unfair, since it is avowedly only a sketch, the value of which depends on generals and not on particulars. We might point out that he does not get at the bottom of the Renaissance, and that, on the whole, he lacks capacity to gauge the significance of the great currents of historical evolution; but then, to be just, we should need to add that his description of the surface of events is generally accurate enough. The public for which he writes will scarcely notice his unhistorical habit of mind, which professional students may find annoying. He regards his subject from the literary side, which means that he selects by preference material that is concrete or charged with human interest. Montaigne's 'Journal of Travels in Italy' supplies him with nearly twenty pages of quotations—a rather generous allowance; but the great personages—from Leo I. to Leo XIII.—who crowd the history of Italy are not vividly drawn, unless we except St. Francis of Assisi; portraiture not being one of Mr. Sedgwick's talents.

On the other hand, he does not neglect the artists and the writers, to whom he assigns sufficient space to enable uninformed readers to refer them to their proper period. He has evidently walked the galleries and studied altarpieces with pleasure, and he has his own word to say about many of the painters; witness this remark on Botticelli:

"This rare spirit wandered about half in the world of reality which he ill understood and depicted badly, and half in a world of fantasy which he knew better than any other painter. The secret of this world of fantasy, as he discovered, was motion. If a vision tarries, it becomes touched by the blight of familiarity, soiled by the comradeship of life. The fairy spirit of imagination must be ever on the wing. No artist ever let Sweet Fancy loose as Botticelli did in his two great pictures, The Primavera (Spring) and The Birth of Venus" (p. 246).

This passage represents Mr. Sedgwick at his best. We have him at his worst when he tells us that "the Papacy lay like a cherry between an upper and lower jaw which watered to crunch it" (p. 133)—are we to infer that he crunches his cherries, stone and all?—or that "the moment business expanded beyond the city walls, it *bumped into* feudal rights at every corner" (p. 107); or that "Italy suddenly leaped forward, as if she had drained a beaker of champagne" (p. 182); or that "the blocked current of commerce *poked about* for a new way, and discovered that it could reach the East by doubling the Cape of Good Hope" (p. 264). These and similar blemishes would be less noteworthy in a less bookish writer, but they do not detract from the value of the compendium on its historical side. It can safely be recommended to persons who wish an introduction to the sources of our modern civilization, and to the vicissitudes and achievements of the pleasant land of Italy. No reader will fail to admit that it is written with snap.

Die Sprachfrage in Griechenland. Von Georgios N. Hatzidakis. Athens. 1905. Pp. 144.

On visiting Greece, the ordinary college graduate seems rather surprised to find that the modern Athenian newspapers are printed in the same type which had become familiar to him in his reading of Homer and Herodotus; and if he makes out a few paragraphs on modern events more easily than he would a page of Xenophon, he is ready to believe that the language has been transmitted essentially un-

changed since the time of Pericles. But if he visits the rural districts, he finds his college Greek of little value to him. Not only is the pronunciation very different from that which presumably he has been taught, but the words are new. A horse is an *alogon*, an irrational animal, a 'brute'; a house is a (Latin) *hospitium*, but with the loss of the first and the last syllables; water is *neró*, apparently from the same stem as "naiad"; wine is *krasí*, a 'mixture'; bread is *psomí*, a mutilated form of the word used in the New Testament for 'sop'—all words which Xenophon would not have understood. Returning for a single day, and having ordinary wants to supply, Plato would be distinctly more helpless in speech among the peasants of modern Greece than Cicero in modern Italy. The latter's demand for bread and meat and wine would be understood at once.

The traveller soon learns that the ordinary speech of the common people in Greece is not represented by the newspapers. Greece has a literary and a popular language. During the centuries of foreign domination, under the Venetians and the Turks, the language of the masses was degraded; it was used for no exalted ends, and many Frankish and Turkish words were introduced. With the revival of the national spirit, a century and a half ago, the use of the old literary language, which had been kept alive by the church and in official documents, was revived also and largely extended; and when the Turkish yoke was thrown off, eighty years ago, very many foreign words were ejected from the language, just as the German language dismissed from its service many French words after the Napoleonic wars, and again after Sedan.

For a full century in Greece the literary and the vernacular languages have been contending for the mastery. The advocates of the literary language have claimed to be the only true Hellenists, and have sought to hand down the very torch which was carried by their glorious ancestors. For a time, they grant, only a few of the Greeks preserved the old tradition, but these were a saving remnant. To adopt the vulgar speech, in their view, would be to give permanence to the degrading influences of foreign domination. The advocates of the speech of the common people, on the other hand, claim that the literary language is artificial, and hence not truly national, while the popular language is simply the latest stage in the development of the ancient Greek tongue.

The contest has been waged with great earnestness. The book before us affords, perhaps, the clearest and fairest view of the present state of the discussion. The author is entitled to speak with authority, being a scholar of no mean eminence. His work on Modern Greek is published in the same series as Whitney's Sanskrit Grammar, though it does not profess to be a complete grammar of the language. The tone of the first part of the present work is fair and judicial, but in the latter part of the volume the author is heated at the thought of the criticisms passed on his course by the friends of the popular language. The main contentions of the book are well supported. The literary language is so firmly established in the usage of the best families as well as of the press that it cannot yield. Many words and expressions which were artificial thirty-five years ago are so no longer, since the younger generation from earliest years has been accustomed to them. Most Greeks of culture would now be quite unable to determine what elements of their ordinary speech had been continually in use in Greece, and what had been restored from the study of ancient authors and grammarians. The extravagant ambitions of some who, in 1870, desired to restore to use the Attic language, or at least the *koiné*, and would admit in the schools the use of no Greek grammar which was not good for the orations of Demosthenes, have yielded. On the other hand, the speech of the common people has been greatly modified under the influence of the schools, the newspapers, and the educated classes. Indefinitely more Greeks to-day than a generation ago understand the ancient words for 'horse,' 'wine,' 'water,' and 'house.' Many words have passed from the literary into the common language, and will remain there. An important observation in this connection is that the common people of Greece do not read with special satisfaction the books or newspapers composed in their dialect. All attempts to maintain such periodical publications have needed subsidies, and have been short-lived, after all, while the Society for the Promotion of Useful Knowledge, under the wise guidance of Mr. Bikélas—who is not only the first novelist, but the first man of letters in Greece—has sold more than half a million volumes of its publications, composed in the literary language. Three translations of the New Testament into modern Greek were published, we believe, before 1870, by the British and Foreign Bible Society, each of the two latter more like than its predecessor to the original. Similarly, a well-known professor of the University at Athens declared that he had rewritten his lectures twice, not so much because of changes to be made in the matter as to bring the language nearer to that of Xenophon, as was required by the sentiment of the time.

The language of the common people, while admirably adapted for klephtic songs and tales of adventure, has not proved well fitted for scientific and philosophical works. A recent translation of the Gospel of Matthew into this dialect has not been successful, since too many of the words and phrases had unworthy associations. Societies have been formed in several towns for the cultivation and propagation of the popular language, but each enthusiastic adherent of the cause has wanted to improve the language in a different way, and so the proposed new words for science and philosophy have been as artificial and as strange to the people as any borrowed from ancient Greece, and the results of these various undertakings have never attained more than a local and dialectic eminence. That the language of the peasants should now become the literary language of Greece, is quite out of the question. The history of the last century shows the futility of further efforts in this direction. A Greek who has anything of importance to say, naturally prefers to say it in the literary language; and if his theme is at all difficult, he does not want to be hampered by an imperfect linguistic instrument. Very likely the literary language will be assimilated still further to the vernacular, but the attempt to take the vernacular and make it by force the language of literature and cultured people, is destined to fail.

Giovanni Antonio Bazzi, hitherto usually styled "Sodoma": The Man and the Painter (1477-1549). A Study. By Robert H. Hobart Cust, M.A. London: John Murray; New York: Dutton. 1906. Pp. xviii., 442.

The production of the above study of Sodoma must have entailed enormous labor, and could have been undertaken only by one who was sincerely enamoured of his subject. Besides examining the works of Bazzi at Siena, at Monte Oliveto, and in half the picture galleries of Europe, Mr. Cust has consulted innumerable books and articles in every language, and has spent long hours in original research among the piled archives of Vercelli, Mantua, Modena, Siena, and Florence. Diligence and enthusiasm could do no more, and the result is a treatise which is practically exhaustive. Certainly, no man will ever be able to write of Sodoma again without consulting it, and, when he has done so, he will not be disappointed. In these pages the reader is never compelled to rely upon the author's *ipse-dixit;* authorities are cited at every step, and copious footnotes are supplemented by an ample appendix of contemporary documents, many of which are here published for the first time. Even in the text itself no desire is shown to pander to ignorance and sloth, and Latin and Italian passages are often quoted verbatim—a method worthy of a more scholarly age than ours, and one which can hardly be too highly commended in a work of this character, since even the best of translations rarely preserves the full flavor of the original.

Mr. Cust's style throughout is clear and simple, and, in treating of artistic matters, he eschews the terminology of the modern scientific school. We hear nothing of "tactile values," of "pattern," or of "space-composition." Bazzi's paintings are described in old-fashioned English, in the old-fashioned way, and the reader is not expected to seek only "artistic pleasure." Mere "illustration" is by no means despised, while, on more than one occasion, pictures are frankly treated as so many documents and used to enforce historical arguments. Such, for example, is the case with the Farnesina frescoes, which, in Mr. Cust's opinion, "give the lie to many of Vasari's insinuations" (p. 147). Thus, in spite of its elaborate catalogue and its numerous and well-chosen half-tone illustrations, the scope of the book before us is mainly biographical; and we submit with some confidence that its full justification is to be found in the fact that, "with Bazzi more than with any other Italian painter, the question of his art has always been complicated by his personal character."

On the other hand, it must be conceded that there is an unnecessary and somewhat fatiguing display of the entire process of inference from the documents. Merely to reprint these, with a succinct statement of results, would have produced a much more

useful work. Of æsthetic criticism there is virtually none, and Mr. Cust has devoted too much space to the fruitless discussion of Sodoma's character, attempting to demonstrate that the opprobrious nickname was never literally deserved. One's judgment of the allegations of Vasari will depend upon the impression he gets from the work of the wayward painter. Many will feel in such a picture as the "St. Sebastian" or the "Sacrifice of Isaac," at Pisa, a certain unwholesome *morbidezza* that gives color enough to Bazzi's contemporary disrepute. There is, however, no gainsaying more guileless souls who feel no taint in this art. Since the whole contention is one of irreconcilable points of view and not at all of evidence, a biographer of Bazzi would do well merely to make a personal profession on the angels' side or on the other, and proceed promptly to the actual business of chronicle and criticism.

Heroic Romances of Ireland. By A. H. Leahy. Vol. I. London: David Nutt. 1905.

Mr. Leahy's work, which is to be in two volumes, forms the second number of the very attractive "Irish Saga Library" now being published by Mr. Nutt. The first number was a translation by the same author of the 'Wooing of Ferb,' one of the longer and more important Irish sagas, and the present collection also contains pieces of much interest. Besides the translations themselves there is a sensible prefatory essay on Irish literature, and each tale is preceded by an introduction which supplies the reader with the main facts about its age, character, and literary relations. In these introductions, and in the numerous explanatory notes, special students of Celtic also will occasionally find material that concerns them. Mr. Nutt, for example, has contributed an appendix on the much discussed question of the relation between the different versions of the "Táin Bó Cuailnge.'

The first volume contains "The Courtship of Etain," "MacDatho's Boar," "The Sick-Bed of Cuchulainn," "The Exile of the Sons of Usnach," and "The Combat at the Ford" (the fight between Cuchulainn and Fer Diad in the 'Táin Bó Cuailnge'). In the second volume, which we have not yet seen, Mr. Leahy will give versified renderings of five short stories of cattle-raids which lead up to the great Táin. The substance of all, or nearly all, these tales is accessible elsewhere in English, and most of them have been made familiar, and even popular, in Lady Gregory's 'Cuchulainn of Muirthemne.' But Lady Gregory, in accordance with the necessary plan of her book, used some freedom in condensing and combining the stories, whereas Mr. Leahy has adhered in each case to a version actually preserved in manuscript, and in his first volume he has made, at least for the prose portions of the Irish, very close translations. His work, therefore, is not really a repetition of Lady Gregory's, nor, so far as we have observed, of any of his other predecessors in the translation of these texts. With the passages in Irish verse he has dealt more freely, rendering them in rhyme and sometimes imitating the measure of the original. Perhaps this method would be the best if the translator's metrical skill were always equal to his task, but a couplet like the following makes us wish Mr. Leahy had been content with literalness:

"Through the world of mankind, seeing all, can we float,
And yet none, though we see them, their see-ers can note."

It would not be fair, however, to judge his taste by a lapse of this sort. On the whole, his narrative style, if it lacks the peculiar charm and appropriateness of Lady Gregory's or of the best translations of Dr. Whitley Stokes, is yet suitable to its purpose and will be read with pleasure.

With respect to the accuracy of Mr. Leahy's work, we cannot speak so favorably, though he appears to have given much attention to minute details. We have not undertaken to compare the whole translation with the original, but the parts we have examined are uneven in quality, and we are often forced to disagree with Mr. Leahy. The two versions of the story of Etain (which had the benefit of Professor Strachan's revision) are well rendered, and the notes contain suggestions and comments which Irish scholars will be glad to preserve. But in the "Sick-Bed of Cuchulainn," where Mr. Leahy was apparently left to his own resources, the result is less satisfactory, and we have found a number of errors in both the text and the notes. Mr. Leahy is particularly unlucky in his attempts to improve upon Professor Thurneysen's German translation of the same tale. Most of his criticisms are trivial, and simply show that Professor Thurneysen was translating freely; and when there is a real difference of opinion between the two translators, the German scholar, in our opinion, is usually right. At the foot of page 176, for example, *sirsan* should not be rendered "long." The German gives the sense of the passage correctly. Again, on page 81, *ic imdibi* does not mean "for slaying," but "in the act of slaying," and Professor Thurneysen is again right. Professor Windisch's 'Wörterbuch,' which Mr. Leahy constantly quotes against Professor Thurneysen, here supports the correct translation. As for the 'Wörterbuch,' however, it was made in 1881, and should not be taken, as Mr. Leahy apparently takes it, to constitute a higher authority than Professor Thurneysen's translation of the year 1901, particularly in cases where it cites the dubitable testimony of O'Reilly. Professor Windisch's interpretation of *gus*, for example, which Mr. Leahy quotes on page 178, was really taken from O'Reilly and was called in question by Dr. Stokes in the *Revue Celtique* (v., 245). Professor Thurneysen's departures from the 'Wörterbuch' are due in many cases to the advance of thirty years in Irish lexicography. But Mr. Leahy himself does not always follow the guidance of Professor Windisch. On page 180, he translates *écomnart* "death-weakness," as if it were a compound of *éc*, whereas it is really to be divided *é-comnart*, with a negative prefix, and means "weakness" or "debility," as the 'Wörterbuch' has it.

These are only part of the errors we have noted, but they will serve to show that Mr. Leahy's translation must be used with caution when it is important to have an accurate rendering of the text. They are faults of judgment or insufficient information. We regret to add that the work contains unfortunate lapses in English which must be set down to carelessness, for we cannot believe that constructions like the following are deliberate: "Never was there seen . . . more beautiful birds" (p. 58); "The state in which Cuchulain was in" (p. 60); "Let he who is extolled be increased" (p. 185). It is a pity that a book by which the publishers have otherwise done so well should be marred by careless proof-reading.

Mast and Sail in Europe and Asia. By H. Warington Smyth. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1906.

This is a book about boats; and while 'Mast and Sail' is the title, scantling and planking, model and lines, come in for a good share of description and discussion. Wind and water, though proverbially fickle, are nevertheless conservative in their methods, and the sea-kindly boat of 500 B. C. would find herself at home if launched to-day. The beginnings of navigation and naval architecture are too remote for speculation; in her elements of design the deep-heeled ship that carried Saint Paul was probably the same in substance and effect as the dhow of to-day; the dhow, allowing for variations in rig, sails, and materials of construction, is surprisingly, or rather, one should say, naturally, like the long-nosed Gloucester fisherman whose "spoon" bow is regarded as a novelty. If, then, the sailing-ships of the early Christian era were the same in all essentials as the boats of to-day, it is safe to infer that the right principles of boat building, rigging, and sailing were known by the more intelligent peoples in an antiquity whereto history reaches not. And how invariably intelligence, progressiveness, resourcefulness and material prosperity have gone hand in hand with seafaring skill and hardihood, and the ability to shape and handle good boats! Sea Power and the empire that waits upon it must in turn wait upon the ship builder and the mariner; their skill and intelligence, patience and courage have been and must always be mighty factors in the work and growth of mankind. And, as the author of 'Mast and Sail' shows with true seamanlike appreciation and sympathy, the seagoing boats, of every rig imaginable, with manifold variations in mould and structure, yet always in essentials the same, are beating about in all the waters of the earth, and schooling men in the lessons of fortitude, patience, vigilance, alertness, as they have done time out of mind. After reading this book, one regards the abused junk with repentant respect (perhaps, by the way, our Occidental ridicule of the junk is only another case of giving a dog a bad name and hanging him), longs for a thrash to windward in the Siamese *Rua Pet*, or a cruise in a *Redningskoite*, and feels that the *Chassemarée* and graceful lateener are, after all, worthier craft than our overbred racing machines of aluminum bronze and pendulous lead mines that have the honor of defending and holding the *America's* cup—and are good for nothing else.

'Mast and Sail' will well repay the study of the boat sailer and yacht designer; it gives a broader view of the art and craft than more technical works, and yet is accurate and instructive to the initiated.

coming as it does from the hand of an expert.

The Central Tian-shan Mountains. By Dr. Gottfried Merzbacher. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Dr. Merzbacher is well known as a thoroughly equipped and experienced mountain explorer, whose investigations are not summed up in the mere fact of arrival on any given peak or the traversing of some previously uncrossed pass. He is a climber of known efficiency, but he is before everything a scientific student of mountains. Hence, when he sets out to describe two years of travel in a mountain range, we may feel sure that, in what he has to tell us, scientific observation will be more in evidence than mountain adventure.

It was the structure of the range that he went to investigate. Others had preceded him—the Russians, P. P. Semenoff, N. A. Severzoff, and several more, whose names and doings are duly recorded in the introduction; but none of them was a mountaineer, nor were any of them accompanied by experts of the Alpine-guide kind, without whom an inexperienced climber is as helpless in a high mountain region as a landsman would be in mid-Atlantic on a boat without captain or sailors. Dr. Merzbacher had suitable companions and was thus enabled to traverse the range in all directions. He climbed many peaks, though of the actual climbing he says very little. He explored many glaciers, and discovered some of vast dimensions, notably the great Mylchek glacier, about forty-six miles long, and another to the south of it of equal dimensions. The result of his labors is a greatly improved map of the whole district and especially of the neighborhood of the culminating giant Khan-Tengri (*c.* 23,600 feet). This splendid peak, alike in his photographs and his descriptions, stands out as one of the really fine mountains, not in size alone but in form. It far surpasses all its neighbors in altitude (by about 3,000 feet), just as Mont Blanc surpasses its satellites. Yet it is not the knot point of the mountain system. It rises on an offshoot ridge and is built up of secondary rocks, being largely formed of marble. Dr. Merzbacher made no attempt to climb it, nor does his description offer great encouragement to any mere climber to devote himself to the attempt. Alike by the remoteness of its situation and the uncompromising character of its form, it defends its summit from assault by the most serious difficulties.

The book is a contribution of importance to the literature of mountains, and fills a great gap in mountain geography.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, George W. Moral Overstrain. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.
Ames, Fisher. The Game of Bridge. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1 net.
Atlay, J. B. The Victorian Chancellors. Vol. I. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Aubert, Louis. Paix Japonaise. Paris: Armand Colin.
Austin, Alfred. The Door of Humanity. Macmillan Co.
Bailey, L. H. Plant Breeding. New Ed. Macmillan Co. $1.25.
Baillie, William, Josiah Warren. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Beare, John I. Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition. Henry Frowde.
Boggs, Sara E. Sandpeep. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Book of Job. Edited by S. R. Driver. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d. net.
Bose, Jagadis Chunder. Plant Response as a Means of Physiological Investigation. Longmans.
Boyd, Mary Stuart. The Misses Make-Believe. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Brainerd, Eleanor Hoyt. In Vanity Fair. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50 net.
Brown, William Horace. The Glory Seekers. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50 net.
Byron's Shorter Poems.—Longer Poems.—Dramas and Satires. 3 vols. Caxton Thin Paper Series. London: Newnes; New York: Scribner. $3.75 net.
Canning, Albert S. G. History in Scott's Novels. A. Wessels & Co.
Cary, Elizabeth Luther, and Annie M. Jones. Books and My Food. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1 net.
Cestre, Charles. John Thelwall. Imported by Scribners. $1.
Climenson, Emily J. Elizabeth Montagu, the Queen of the Blue-Stockings. 2 vols. Dutton. $8.
Colvin, Auckland. The Making of Modern Egypt. Dutton. $4 net.
Coubertin, Pierre de. Chronique de France. 1905. Paris.
Crooke, William. Things Indian. Scribners. $3 net.
Dalbiac, Lilian. Dictionary of Quotations (German). Macmillan Co. $2.50.
De Gubernatis, Angelo. Dictionnaire International des Ecrivains du Monde Latin. Part III. Everett-Henriet. Rome: The Author. (Via San Martino al Macao, 11.)
Dickens's Tale of Two Cities. Edited by H. G. Buehler and L. Mason. Macmillan Co.
Downing's United States Customs Tariff, 1897. Revised to January, 1906. R. F. Downing & Co.
Dubois, Abbé J. A. Hindu Manners, Customs and Ceremonies. Translated by Henry K. Beauchamp. Henry Frowde. 6s. net.
Eaches, O. P. Hebrews to II. Peter. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Egan, Maurice Francis. The Ghost in Hamlet, and Other Essays. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Eleutheroudakis, C. Athens and the Environs: A Practical Guide for Travellers. Lemcke & Buechner.
Francis, M. E. Simple Annals. Longmans. $1.50.
Fredericq, Paul. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ. Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.
Grant, Robert. The Law-Breakers. Scribners. $1.25.
Hamilton, Samuel. The Recitation. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Havell, E. B. Benares: The Sacred City. William M. Stitt, jr.
History of All Nations. Vol. XVII.: The Napoleonic Empire. By Theodor Flathe. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co.
Hitch, Alfred. Rhapsody. New York Supply Co. 25 cents.
Holmes, Samuel J. The Biology of the Frog. Macmillan Co. $1.60.
Hopkins, Herbert M. The Mayor of Warwick. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hoppin, James Mason. The Reading of Shakespeare. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 net.
Hosmer, George L. An Historical Sketch of the Town of Deer Isle, Maine. Boston: The Fort Hill Press.
Housman, A. E. A Shropshire Lad. John Lane Co.
How to Buy Life Insurance. By "Q. P." Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.20 net.
Hutten, Bettina von. Pam Decides. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Jaurès, Jean. Studies in Socialism. London: Independent Labor Party.
Journals of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789. Vol. V. Washington.
Kaempfer, Englebert. The History of Japan. Translated by J. G. Scheuchzer. 3 vols. Macmillan Co.
Keble, John. The Christian Year. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Kent, Charles Foster. The Origin and Permanent Value of the Old Testament. Scribners. $1 net.
Lee, Vernon. Hauntings. John Lane Co.
Liber, Maurice. Rashi. Translated by Adele Szold. Jewish Publication Society of America.
Magazine Articles I Have Read. Arranged by Burton Emmett. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 net.
Marion, H. John Paul Jones's Last Cruise and Final Resting-Place, the United States Naval Academy. Washington: Geo. E. Howard.
Mills, Weymer Jay. The Ghosts of their Ancestors. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1.25.
Odd Types. By B. K. Broadway Publishing Co. $1.50.
Pepper, Charles M. Panama to Patagonia. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50 net.
Ropes, James Hardy. The Apostolic Age. Scribners. $1.50 net.
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Swinburne, Algernon Charles, The Tragedies of. 5 vols. Harpers.
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Trinks, W., and C. Housum. Shaft Governors. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Trollope, Anthony. The Small House at Allington. 2 vols. John Lane Co.
Truesdell, Ella M. Over the Bridge, and Other Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Turner, Frederick Jackson. Rise of the New West. Harpers. $2 net. [The American Nation.]
Valdés's Capitán Ribot. Edited by F. W. Morrison and P. H. Churchman. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90 cents.
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Washington's Farewell Address, and Webster's Bunker Hill Orations. Edited by William T. Peck. Macmillan Co.
Weeden, William B. War Government, Federal and State. 1861-17865. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50 net.
Wells, Carolyn. Rubáiyát of a Motor Car. Dodd, Mead & Co. 85 cents net.
What Would One Have. Boston: James H. West Co. $1 net.
Wilkinson, Florence. The Far Country. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Williamson, C. N., and A. M. Lady Betty across the Water. McClure, Phillips & Co.
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System and Service:

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Rates to Users:

The value of a telephone service depends upon the scope of the system and its efficiency. If the services offered customers by two concerns are wholly unlike in quantity and quality, comparisons are worthless.

Moreover, fulfilment does not always follow promise. In Baltimore, Cleveland and elsewhere second companies, after obtaining a footing, have *increased* their rates, in disregard of their franchise agreements, in some cases as much as *fifty per cent.* After long litigation with the public, the courts have sustained the companies.

Compensation to the City:

Compensation made by a telephone company for the use of the streets amounts to an *indirect tax on the public,* levied *through the telephone subscriber.* The public pays the bill ultimately. Such payments would necessarily operate to keep up the rates, providing they were otherwise reasonable and fair.

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"Monopolies are not a hardship if the city can control the monopoly. If it were possible for the authorities to control . . . the present monopoly . . . there would seem to be no reason why another company should be allowed to enter the field."—*Chief Engineer Nichols of the Bureau of Franchises in Report upon Application of Atlantic Telephone Co.*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 17, 1906.

The Week.

If the Duma, which assembled on May 10, is undeniably meeting under a cloud, it falls nearly in the realm of political miracles that it should be meeting at all. Whoever, three years ago, had dared predict that a Russian Parliament was to assemble on any terms, would have passed for a lunatical optimist. Accordingly, it is the part of wisdom not to dwell too much upon the niggardliness of the new fundamental law, nor even upon unseasonable repression by the Czar or divided counsels among the reformers. All these things were to be expected, and it is more profitable to fix one's hope upon the momentous fact that a popularly elected legislature is actually in session in St. Petersburg to-day. Immediate results may seem small, but the moment the Czar receives the delegates he gives up a portion of his power that probably no Czar will ever be able to reclaim. However slight the concessions of self-government, they are irrevocable, and Russia is started on the road, however long and difficult, that leads to free and representative government. This great good should surely outweigh minor evils that partially obscure this day of triumph for liberal ideals. The plan of testing the strength of the Duma and the temper of the Czar by a prompt appeal for political amnesty seems a wise one, but the Duma could not have been expected to limit itself to this minimum programme when such urgent matters (to mention no others) as the land problem and the ascertaining of its own powers are in men's hearts. It is a situation that calls for the utmost tact and sympathy on the part of the Czar. His insight must supplement the arid letter of political memorials. Have he or his councillors the capacity to read the dumb aspiration of the representatives of the mills, and mines, and fields? Under almost identical circumstances, Louis XVI., while the States-General was sitting at Versailles on what history has decided were his momentous days, adorned his diary with the curt memorandum, "*Rien.*" It all meant nothing to him. The Czar's attitude towards the Russian States-General is by far the most interesting personal problem of our time. His address to the delegates, if rather colorless, at least avoided all offence.

It is most painful to every American to see the President involved in a question of personal veracity. Sharp differences of opinion we are accustomed to; but it is something new, and distinctly unpleasant, to have the Chief Magistrate charge that a certain statement about him is "a deliberate and unqualified falsehood," and then to have the statement reaffirmed in detail, with a threat to produce further evidence if it is needed. But the only wonder is that such an unhappy fate has not ere this befallen "the most reckless talker that ever lived in the White House," as an old Senator has characterized Mr. Roosevelt. His confidence has been amazingly respected; but at last he has awkwardly stirred up two men, Senator Tillman and ex-Senator Chandler, who have small regard for the minor proprieties, and to whom the fact that a communication was confidential constitutes no objection to blurting out what they know about it. The unhappy effect of their revelations does not stop with the question whether or not the President was right in saying in his haste that all men who tell a different tale from his are liars. More damaging than any possible verbal misunderstanding is the admitted fact that this most direct and above-board of men was pursuing his ends by subterranean and slippery methods.

Was Chandler an envoy from President Roosevelt to Senator Tillman, or from Senator Tillman to President Roosevelt? This is the question to which our attention is being diverted; but it does not touch the main issue. The essential fact, which President Roosevelt and Attorney-General Moody admit, is that they were forming a compact with the Democratic leaders in order to pass the Rate bill. In so doing, they were, we maintain, wholly within the bounds of morality and propriety. But the President wisely refused to commit himself to any "phraseology"; he was for "essence." He was "entirely willing" to accept any amendment "that did not seek to grant a broad review"; and when an amendment was proposed which granted the broadest sort of broad review, he was delighted with it, and declared that "no genuine friend of the bill can object to it without stultifying himself." So keen was his enthusiasm for the amendment to which he had always been unalterably opposed that, without a word of warning to his Democratic confederates, without a hint to his own go-between, Mr. Moody, he jumped into the galley with Senator Aldrich. Naturally, Mr. Moody, in the first flush of surprise and irritation, expressed himself to Senators Tillman and Bailey as "flabbergasted." "There was nothing," writes Attorney-General Moody, in cooler mood, "in the conversations between the Senators and me which in any way bound you to any particular amendment, or in the slightest degree impaired your liberty at any time to acquiesce in any amendment which you should deem expedient and in the public interest." Absolutely nothing but a fantastic notion that, even when a man is actuated by the purest of motives and devoted to the loftiest ideals, he should keep faith with his allies.

The due process of law, the slowness of which is so trying to President Roosevelt and others of ardent temperament, seems to have done the work for the Paper Trust. In the Federal Court at St. Paul the defendants, who are accused of restraining and monopolizing trade, have practically confessed guilt; and the prosecution has secured a perpetual injunction against the unlawful combination and conspiracy of manufacturers. Attorney-General Moody says, "This terminates the litigation. It is a complete victory for the United States." More than twenty corporations united in the General Paper Company, and through that organization sold practically all of their product. Such a union the courts declare to be a violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law, and the company will accordingly be dissolved. Considerable time, we must admit, has been consumed by these suits. The first petition was filed on December 27, 1904—nearly a year and a half ago. Of course, an executive order by an omniscient and benevolent despot could have settled the business in ten minutes. But it is only once in a century or so that we choose a President who is both omniscient and benevolent. Our frame of government, with its irritating checks and balances, is intended not so much for the present happy era as for those long stretches when fallible or even malevolent men get into office. In spite of checks and balances, the price of paper in the territory controlled by the General Paper Company has fallen from $2.25 a hundredweight to $1.85.

Secretary Hitchcock warns the West that the twenty-one indictments returned by the Portland grand jury against the men accused of timber stealing in Oregon will not be the last. His agents are at work in the Middle Western States on charges of a like nature. The indictment of the Crook, Lake, and Klamath County operators illustrates the need for the most general investigation. At the head of the list stands the name of F. W. Gilchrist, the second largest owner of vessels on the Great Lakes, and a heavy lumber dealer of

Alpena, Mich. Patrick Culligan, Gilchrist's associate, who was also indicted, is a banker and a man of wealth. Three members of the firm of Elkins & Co., lawyers of Prineville, Ore., are also included in the twenty-one, and at the bottom of the list stands the name of Edgar N. White, a Portland saloonkeeper. The old method was used, it appears; these men secured dupes to file timber claims under the defective Timber and Stone act, who, after completing title, turned over the land to their employers. This plan has the merit of age, but little else, to recommend it now. The Interior Department's agents have become so well trained that they can see "the man behind," without waiting for a row over the "commission" of the entryman.

The standpatters in Congress are again embarrassed, this time by the refusal of Secretary Taft to assume responsibility for an order requiring the Isthmian Canal Commission to buy only American goods. The Commission recently purchased 20,000 barrels of English cement at a saving of 37 cents a barrel on the price demanded by American manufacturers. But the Ohio cement-makers have got Senator Dick to introduce a resolution which would shut out European supplies for the canal. The Canal Commission fears combinations of American manufacturers and dealers which would result in extortionate prices, and the puzzling problem is how to "protect" American interests without leaving the Commission at the mercy of persons who may attempt to corner the market in supplies needed for canal work. This question, coming before the matter of the demand for free building materials in aid of San Francisco has been quieted, promises to furnish matter for debate in Congress and more campaign material for this fall's Congressional elections.

It would be demoralizing in the extreme, we take it, for the Filipinos to acquire all at once the benefits of humane and liberal policies. They would doubtless experience the discomforts of children who should receive at Christmas, say, a whole year's allowance of sweetmeats. At any rate, we are running no such risk in our treatment of them. After several years' consideration we took off 25 per cent. of the Dingley tariff rates to see what would happen. Nothing happened, and this year the impetuous House of Representatives was preparing to concede 50 per cent. more. But the wiser Senate committee did not propose to spoil the nation's wards by such ill-considered liberality. It thought best to give nothing at all. Yet President Roosevelt and Secretary Taft, benevolent uncles, are laboring with the Senate to secure "just a bite"—another 25 per cent. of relief. In exchange for this they are reported to be willing to relinquish that very important provision of the House bill which promised free trade with the islands after 1909. That is the year when the coastwise shipping laws are to go into effect with the Philippines. Possibly, if we judiciously dole out another 25 per cent. by that time, the Filipinos may be even prosperous enough to pay their additional freight bills.

"Regular" Republicans of Pennsylvania suggest to Senator Knox that if he will consent to be elected Governor, it will be an "easy step" to the Presidency. The uninformed might detect in any such programme, on the contrary, a distinct retrogression. To go from the Senate to Harrisburg would, in the present disorganized state of the party, effectually shelve any man of doubtful Presidential stature. The appeal at this time, of course, is purely selfish. A Democratic State Treasurer has just taken office and promised to cut off the graft that formerly fattened the organization. Some $13,000,000 of surplus State funds are to be taken out of the control of the machine banks. The "Lincoln" Republicans mean to hold their State convention at the end of May, a week in advance of the "Regulars," and the Democratic leaders are in a mood to form an alliance with any reform element of the dominant party that splits off from the Penrose organization. Senator Knox might save Pennsylvania to "the party of McKinley and Roosevelt," but we see no chance, in that event, of shattering the unbroken precedent that the "banner State's" Governors never get to the White House.

A pert paragrapher remarked a few days ago, apropos of the arrest and fining of a citizen of Warrensburg, Mo., for making a false return as to his personal property, that "it will be many a long day before that particular wave of reform reaches New York." It may be retorted that this particular species of reform is not likely to last long in Missouri, if Gov. Folk has his way. He has appointed a commission to revise the State revenue laws, and has suggested that the tax on personal property should be removed. "A tax on conscience" is the way Gov. Folk characterizes that part of the present system which turns respectable members of society into arrant liars once a year. "It does not reach the tax-dodger, and it discourages investment," adds Mr. Folk. In his view, the retention of the personal-property tax, with the consequent disregard for the law that is indicated by the annual perjuries, is a serious menace to the integrity of government. To enforce all laws strictly is still Gov. Folk's platform. So long as the old law stands, the citizens of Warrensburg are liable to arrest, but the difficulties of the situation are a strong argument for changing the statute. The Governor's further suggestion that a small State tax on the capital stock of corporations be levied in place of the personal tax, is likely to be favorably received by his commission.

The young District Attorneys militant who have set out either to make the world a better place to live in or to become Governor, "like Folk," should form an association and make John B. Moran of Boston president. As a busy hive of industry, his office is excelled only by the night-and-day bank. His latest feat, the summoning of the entire Massachusetts Legislature to appear before the grand jury to testify that bribery was or was not practised in the defeat of the anti-bucket-shop bill, is characteristic of his genius. Elected to the office in spite of the opposition of practically every organized party, Mr. Moran made his first bid for fame by compelling the proprietors of Boston's best hotels to remove every sash curtain that in any degree impeded the view from the street into the dining-rooms and cafés. When the advertising value of this firm stand for "the equal enforcement of the law" decreased, the District Attorney turned his attention to State Street and big financial game. Lawson found the young prosecutor a credulous listener, and it is due to his initiative that the General Court of Massachusetts is to report, in sections, to the grand jury. We hear that "practically every one at the State House took the whole affair as a huge joke, and hilarity reigned supreme." What saves the General Court from extreme depression—a sense of humor—seems to have been omitted from the District Attorney's make-up, however.

Gov. Cummins of Iowa is making it increasingly plain that he means to become something more than a mere Governor before his political career is ended. To the "Cummins idea," which has "taken" exceptionally well in his State, he now adds the income tax and the popular election of Senators. This is an equipment that is designed not only to land him in the Senate as Allison's successor, but to keep him in the public eye as a Presidential possibility for 1908 or even 1912. It might occur to the ordinary student of the tariff that Gov. Cummins as a revisionist will have his hands full in the Middle West for a long time. Indeed, his present contest for renomination against George D. Perkins, the Sioux City standpatter, leaves him little time for developing other political reforms. But that will be settled shortly, and, in obedience to the resolution of the State Legislature, the restless Governor of ideas will call a convention to consider ways and means of amending

the Constitution in order to secure the popular election of Senators. The income-tax issue was not raised in the last Legislature, but it is a fine radical thing for a Republican to take up.

The Crapsey trial, which has ended in this clergyman's suspension, was certain to reverberate beyond the denomination immediately affected by it. The issues involved concern all churches, touch all clergymen. They raise the whole question of the attitude of the Church towards modern learning. Wherever clergymen are gathered together the matter comes up, though not often is it discussed with the frankness shown by the speakers at the dinner of the alumni of Union Theological Seminary on Monday evening. Invited to deal with the subject of theological education and the training of the modern minister, President Hyde of Bowdoin College and Dr. Knox of the Seminary went to the heart of the question with a refreshing directness and candor. Their remarks showed how a breath from the Crapsey case is stirring the dry bones everywhere. President Hyde drew with sure hand the picture of the ordinary education of the ordinary clergyman. It is cloistered, narrowing, deadening. Original thinking is discouraged. Free inquiry is frowned upon. The customary methods of testing assertions, by reading, debate, comparison, weighing of evidence, give way to dogmatic teaching on authority which must not be disputed. Occasionally, large natures are able, as Emerson said a man of native force might be, to take these old and musty conventions and use them for rational and moral ends in profitable and even inspiring ways; but the common result is, as President Hyde said, to turn out clergymen who "can comfort a few sisters weaker than themselves, and that is all." The consequence is, he declared, that the fixed gulf before which the religious world stands to-day is more sharply marked than ever before.

There were published in Germany last year the results of an inquiry among educated people who were asked to answer the question, "Has the clergyman any longer an independent significance in the modern enlightened world?" We know this work by Theodor Kappstein only as it is summarized in the Cincinnati *Volksblatt*. Replies were had from many distinguished professors and writers. Their general tenor was very much that of the opinion of Friedrich Dernburg, who said, "Formerly the office made the clergyman, to-day the clergyman makes the office." Some of the scientists, like the Director of the Zoölogical Museum in Berlin, objected strongly to the departure of the clergy from "practical Christianity" to attack the progress of learning. The dramatist Von Wildenbruch wrote that, in his judgment, the clergyman as a mere cut-and-dried professional man had no reason for existing longer, but that there was more need than ever of a true priest.

The International Postal Congress, which has long been perplexed over the demand for an international stamp, has at last voted in favor of a plan by which it will be possible to send return postage with foreign letters. The scheme, proposed by England, and adopted on Thursday by a majority of one, provides for coupons sold in each country at the price of the regular foreign letter stamp, and exchangeable at the destination for the equivalent stamp of that particular country. The initial difficulty has always been that the international rates were not uniform; twopence halfpenny, for instance, not being exactly equal to 5 cents. With a single international stamp, speculators could buy in quantity in a country where this stamp was cheap and sell it in one where it was dear, making a possible profit of a dollar or more on every thousand. Apparently, though the details are not explained in the brief dispatches, the new plan is to issue in this country, say, a special 5-cent stamp for foreign letters to which is attached the return postage coupon. These exchangeable slips, therefore, cannot be obtained except by using an equal number of stamps on outgoing matter, a requirement that would presumably make speculation impossible on any scale large enough to be worth while.

Col. Gädke, the well-known military expert, pays a high tribute, in the Berlin *Tageblatt*, to the French army. "In equipment and military worth" he declares that it "stands high." In some respects, conditions are superior to those across the Rhine; maltreatment of soldiers by officers, for instance, being absolutely unknown. The weak point lies in the frequent lax discipline and lack of loyalty. Gen. André, during his exceptionally long activity as Minister of War, gave up much of his time to efforts to secure a corps of officers devoted to republican principles, but in vain. Many officers are monarchists; and no less powerful is the clerical influence. The want of discipline and obedience was recently exemplified in a manner inconceivable in the German army, when the three oldest officers in succession refused to obey their brigadier-general's order—given in presence of the soldiers—to force entrance into a church. The fact that in this and similar cases the offenders were either exculpated or subjected to a ludicrously mild punishment, could not but foment the spirit of insubordination. Nevertheless, Col. Gädke believes that the ardent patriotism of Frenchmen would minimize the dangers from this source in case of a foreign war.

General strikes break out with startling suddenness in Italy, and testify to the efficient organization of the advanced Socialist party. The latest political strike extended from Milan to Rome, and had the unusual effect of bringing about the wholesale resignation of Socialist Deputies in Parliament. The Government majority—a composite one, to be sure—is not likely to be seriously affected by this move, but the disaffection of the Socialists may cause resignations in the Cabinet. The issue is one on which Baron Sonnino cannot yield. The Socialists protest against the right to suppress industrial rioting by force of arms. They assert the privilege of disorder, and seek to reduce the weapons of constabulary and army to those of moral suasion. Of course, no nation can live long on any such basis, and Sonnino, who stood behind the stern military repression of 1900, the year of the bread riots, is not likely to change his policy now. For several years past, popular sentiment in Italy has upheld all Government measures taken to preserve order. Accordingly, it seems unlikely that the recent strike will have serious political results. Still, it shows a formidable degree of organization among the Italian proletariat.

In the latest appeal to the Hungarian electorate, the Wekerle Government has received a large majority. The Independence party, which is Ministerialist *pro tempore*, secured a little more than half the seats in the Diet. It is, of course, the ruling element of the Government, and the future of Hungarian politics will depend largely upon Francis Kossuth. The election marks the complete disintegration of the old Liberal party, which has long, if only nominally, been in power at Budapest. The Wekerle Ministry is, it will be recalled, by its very constitution one of transition. Its chief business is to pass a univeral-suffrage bill, besides a minimum of routine supply bills. After the election of a new Diet under the liberalized suffrage, a Government will be formed in accordance with the vote, and the longstanding disputes over the army and language questions will be faced anew. As Kossuth put it the other day, the present situation is "a truce, not a peace." It is a decided gain, however, that the Independence party will enter the new Diet in a spirit friendly towards the Emperor. Speculation as to the effect of universal suffrage on the Diet is rather idle. Some observers hold that it will, by enfranchising many of the other races, actually reduce the Magyar element; but, obviously, political and racial lines are by no means identical in a mixed population like that of Hungary.

THE NECESSARY LAWSUIT.

In his Standard Oil message, the President spoke with some impatience of suits at law as remedies for corporation abuses. "It is impossible," he said, "to work a material improvement in conditions such as above described merely through the instrumentality of a lawsuit." This bespeaks partly a mind which President Harrison described as always wanting the millennium, and wanting it right off; partly that lack of legal training which has so often led Mr. Roosevelt astray; partly, it may be, a lingering resentment at the failure of the Government's Beef Trust prosecution, owing to the perverse unwillingness of Judge Humphrey to agree with the law as laid down by the President.

This attitude has since been thrown into fresh prominence by the Attorney-General's proceeding in court against the so-called Drug Trust. This is a lawsuit. It is but the latest of several similar suits brought by the present Administration. In its name, injunctions have been sought against the Northwestern Paper Trust, the Tobacco Trust, the Elevator Trust; by it suits have been brought against the Sugar Trust and various railways. The famous Northern Securities case, which the President had so much reason to contemplate with satisfaction, was nothing but a lawsuit. Why, then, should he speak of such a legal process as miserably inadequate for the reforms he has in mind? Various reasons suggest themselves. A legal trial is necessarily slow; but the President's habitual prayer is, "Lord, have mercy, and have mercy *quick*." The short way with dissenters from his views is his favored way. Then, too, lawsuits are little spectacular. There is no glitter about men of the robe. Judges are seldom theatric. The opinion of the court is apt to be dull reading, badly fitted for delivery from a stump. And if President Roosevelt may not fairly be called sensational in his methods, he at least is fond of sharp and decisive utterance from somewhere near the centre of the stage. Compared with that, the slow droning of lawyers and judges naturally seems pretty tame.

Yet the Executive, under our Constitution, finds his main duty in enforcing the law; and to enforce the law means the constant bringing of lawsuits. They are not picturesque, but are necessary. There is really no shorter road. The President seems to think that swift and radical action by Congress is preferable to the slow processes of the law. But such action by Congress will itself be the mother of endless lawsuits. Not even a Federal statute can be self-executing, like the decree of a Czar. Every man who has an interest at stake, every corporation, is entitled to come forward and insist that the Congressional enactment, which Mr. Roosevelt appears to regard as a cure-all, be challenged and tested in every possible way in the courts. Its constitutionality may be called in question; its application may be disputed; the true implication of its every phrase and word may be brought up for judicial decision. Trained lawyers may search the statute as with a lighted candle and demand that the courts pronounce upon every defect or loophole. That is what is involved in taking no man's property without due process of law. As a great constitutional muniment of liberty, we all assent to that and admire it. Well, then, we must not rail at the lawsuits which grow out of it.

It is probably the belated perception of these elementary truths which has led Mr. Roosevelt to give, at last, his reluctant assent to the amendment of the Railway-Rate bill so as to safeguard every right of the carriers. Who was the successful instrument of the President's conversion, we need not ask. We presume that, whoever he was, he mixed political with legal arguments. He pointed out to the President, doubtless, that it was rapidly becoming a question whether this is a Republican Administration or not; whether Mr. Roosevelt was really going to set up for himself against the leading Republicans of the Senate, or would conclude to accept what they in their wisdom would give him. It is known that President Roosevelt has expressed a determination to "have no Andy Johnson business" of his own; and his deep desire to keep in line with his party would only need to be skilfully played upon in order to make him drop suddenly his dalliance with Democratic Senators and with the handful of extremist Republicans. But the main thing is that he has finally gone over to the broadest kind of judicial review of the rate-making power of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Every resource of the law—including the enjoining of the Commission, suspension of its rates, or their annulment—is to be left open to the railways. If it be said that this leaves the situation very much what it was before, that is only to state that we had a government by law before, and shall go on having one in the future.

IMMIGRATION AND THE SOUTH.

In many of the Southern States an unprecedented movement for the encouragement of immigration is one of the features of the legislative year now ending; and in most cases there has been an appropriation to employ commissioners and defray expenses. Perhaps the most important effort was that of Virginia, where $10,000 was voted by the Legislature, on the understanding that work should begin at once. In Mississippi, intentions were as good, but the bill was carelessly drafted, and as a result the matter must be laid over for the next Legislature. Several other Southern States have sent representatives to Europe and to the great cities of the North, where the seamy side of the immigrant problem presents itself. Altogether, the South shows signs of general awakening to the possibilities that lie in attracting immigration.

The movement must contend against two obstacles: the prejudice of the South against foreign labor, and of foreign labor against the South. These prejudices are not hard to understand, and they should be easy to dissipate. The conservatism of the old South, which saw in the coming of the aliens the breaking down of many traditions and the end of the easy-going relationship of proprietor and field-hand, has long since given way before the demands of the newer, bigger South. The progressive element is fully aware that a new industrial era has come, and that if the South is to hold its own—to say nothing of making an advance—either in agriculture or in manufactures, it must make a strong bid for that immigration which has so rapidly built up the West. In Mississippi and Louisiana there are still traces of feeling against the Italians—provoked by the unfortunate outbreak in New Orleans some years ago. But that incident will be forgotten, for the Italians are showing themselves to be in the main industrious and law-abiding.

The prejudice on the other side is perhaps more difficult to deal with, for there are very few means of getting at the immigrant and persuading him that the South is the place where he ought to go. For years he has been listening to another gospel. There is truth in the complaint of the South that certain States of the Northwest, in their eagerness to advertise and populate the wheat fields, have sent out circulars which make comparisons unfavorable and unfair to the States below Mason and Dixon's line. These advertisements, together with certain too well-founded complaints about lawlessness and the miscarriage of justice, have helped to deprive of its share that part of the country which most needs the infusion of new blood. Yet the immigrants who have gone to the South have succeeded well. When we remember that the entire peninsula of Italy, excluding the Alps and the Apennines, is but little larger than the State of Georgia, and that it supports, chiefly by agriculture, a population of 36,000,000, we can see why newcomers from the south of Europe, trained to methods of careful and intensive cultivation, should get ahead in a region where the farming methods are among the loosest and most wasteful in the world. Many instances could be given of the achievements of adventurous immigrants who have disregarded all warnings, and have found comforta-

ble homes, hospitable friends, and a freedom which they could not have hoped for in the over-crowded cities. A colony at Ladson, South Carolina, has found silk-raising profitable. Prosperous Italian and Bohemian truck-farmers are now living along the seaboard from Norfolk to Jacksonville. An experiment in Alabama, where a colony was set at work in the cotton fields, has been wholly successful, and has shown that the cultivation of cotton can be performed by white labor as well as by black. In the South more than one "model" farm, demonstrating the effect of intensive methods and hard work, is in the hands of men who, though industrious and intelligent, have been in this country hardly long enough to make themselves understood. These examples of adaptability, as they become more widely known among immigrants, cannot but have the effect of turning attention to the South.

The importance of immigration to the South can hardly be overestimated. The population in many districts is very sparse, and the opportunities for development of agricultural and mineral resources are boundless. For this work there must be both men and money; but if the South can once turn the tide of immigration, the capital will be forthcoming in abundance. A question often raised is the effect of foreign labor upon the negro. If the South carries out its plan of drawing the best foreign labor, the effect upon the negro should be beneficial. If he is to hold his own in competition, he will be forced to improve himself, and he will be stimulated intellectually and morally. One reason why he is lazy and irresponsible is that he often regards himself as not a direct competitor of the white; and he measures himself by no standard of achievement except that of the shiftless and ignorant of his own race. The coming of the immigrant should open the eyes of his mind and soul. Placed side by side with earnest, steady workmen, he himself should reach a higher degree of skill and trustworthiness.

From every point of view, it is the South's plain duty to itself and to the rest of the country to correct the evil impressions that have gone abroad as to its conditions of life and the opportunities for tranquil, profitable, livelihood. In order to set forth its manifold advantages the South must employ such businesslike methods as have been used in advertising our own Western States and the Canadian Northwest. Keen, alert agents at home and abroad will doubtless obtain desirable settlers in growing numbers. Above all, the South should make good its promises by strictly enforcing law and protecting all its citizens. Each lapse of justice and unpunished mob rule will keep from the South thousands of people whose coming is ardently to be desired. Without law and order the door will stand open in vain.

A TEST OF "CIVICS."

We all know what a vast amount of instruction about government has been given of late years in our public and fitting schools, not to speak of women's clubs. A preparatory school that did not offer courses in "civics" could to-day scarcely hold up its head. "Current events" and "questions of the day" have been among the most popular of subjects. On all sides there has been an effort by teachers to provide a sort of handy-volume *vade-mecum* of citizenship, and to turn out a generation of students well-grounded in the whole duty of an American. Thus was accurate information to lead to reform. It has occurred, however, to a Western college professor to seek to ascertain just how accurate the information is. Prof. W. A. Schaper of the University of Minnesota had reason to doubt the political knowledge of his own students. He subjected them to examination, which they did not pass with honor. Then he extended his inquiries to other institutions. The same questions were put to 350 students in ten universities, four in the East, six in the Middle West. The illuminating results are set forth in Professor Schaper's paper, now reprinted from the Proceedings of the American Political Science Association.

The five simple questions about government related to the method of choosing members of Congress, with their terms of office, qualifications, and compensation; the nature of the Federal courts; the method of amending the Constitution; an outline of county government in the student's own State, and an explanation of the New England plan of township government. An identical test was made in a number of universities, under conditions as nearly equal as possible. The questions were put to "seniors in the courses in engineering, and to sophomores, juniors, and seniors in the academic courses who had taken no college courses in Political Science or American History." Thus the aim was to discover the residuum left over from instruction in civics in preparatory schools, and to enlighten the college professor in regard to the information which he might take it for granted his students had acquired from former teaching and from their own observation. The outcome was astonishing and deplorable. These young Americans, of the average age of 20.6 years, got an average of less than 10 per cent. in the examination. Professor Schaper analyzes the figures variously. One inference which he makes has a bearing upon the theory that we are in danger of being destroyed by the ignorance of our immigrant population.

"It may be an accident, but the college group that counted among its number four of colonial stock, four of German, five of Scandinavian, a Belgian, a Hungarian, a Pole, and thirteen of mixed Swiss, German, English, Scottish, Irish, Scandinavian, and American colonial descent, stood first on average for the five best, and second on general averages. In the little group of five best there appeared one of English-Scotch parentage, one of German, one of German-American, one of Swiss-American, and one of Norwegian parentage."

A few of the more imaginative answers given by these college students may be cited:

"The members of Congress are chosen by use of the Australian ballot system. The term of office of the members of Congress is four years in most all cases."

"If the Constitution of the United States is to be amended, it has to be brought befor the House and voted upon."

"The predominating qualification of a U. S. Senator is to be able to tell funny stories for publication, and go to church regularly. He should also contain a smattering of law."

"They must be 25 yrs. old and have committed no crime of which they have been convicted."

"A Senator must be a resident of the State which chooses him, and an upright citizen." (As an afterthought he crossed out all after the comma.) "He must be of sound mind."

"The Federal Courts were supplied to meet a demand for accessible courts where small cases could be tried without taking them to the higher or Supreme Court."

"The courts of the United States are as follows:

"The Supreme Court.
"The Circuit Court.
"The Criminal Court.
"The Juvenile Court."

A certain discount should doubtless be made from this bad showing. One detects here and there the irrepressible impulse of the student to refuse to take the examination seriously. In some cases, it is not ignorance that is displayed, but levity. Yet "plain ignorance" is revealed in amazing quantity, and reflects seriously upon the teaching in government and history which more than half of these students had regularly had before going to college. But it also reflects seriously upon their own powers of observation and their personal interest. One of the worst papers was handed in by a young man 24 years old, of New England parentage, who had passed through graded schools, had read a daily newspaper for several years, and had voted in two elections. He seemed unable to give even an elementary account of the system of government in his own country.

Such a case suggests the truth which Secretary Taft presumably had in mind when he advised the Yale students to complete their political education by freely consorting with saloonkeepers and others deep in the actual game. It is the concrete which bites deeply into the mind. Book learning is never more barren or fugitive than when it deals with government in an abstract way. The book-theory is, besides, too often wide of the fact. In what text-book could a student learn the real government of New York city by Tammany Hall, or find explained the functions of a Quigg or an Odell? It is contact

with the living reality which both corrects book-knowledge of politics and makes it more than a dead thing. So it may well be argued from Professor Schaper's showing, not that the teaching of civics should be dropped, but that it should be vitalized. Here, too, abstractions should yield, so far as possible, to examples. The live Congressman, rather than the pale ghost depicted in the Constitution, should be vividly brought before the mind of ingenuous youth; who should be bidden, further, to supplement their books by that sure knowledge of politics which comes only of seeing and handling.

ALLIANCES, SPECIAL AND GENERAL.

When a bank begins to publish gratuitous and frequent evidence of solvency, it is time for the depositors to be on their guard. So the repeated protestations that the Triple Alliance is unimpaired seem excessive and almost suspicious. Count Guicciardini, the Italian Foreign Minister, in a remarkable speech before the Senate, the other day, gave the Triplice a new certificate of health, but advanced a comparatively fresh reason for its validity. All the world knows that Bismarck drew Italy into the alliance by appealing to mistrust of French aggression in Tunis. To-day, the Italian Foreign Office regards the pact with Germany and Austria primarily as a guarantee of the *status quo* in the Balkans. "It protects us," said Count Guicciardini, "against any change without a hearing." He went on to say that, as regards Albania, a special understanding exists with Austria, whereas the friendship with France and England has become a cardinal point of policy, safeguarding as these newer *ententes* do the position of Italy in the Mediterranean. These special agreements, Count Guicciardini maintained, were perfectly compatible with the older obligation to Germany and Austria. To that effect, he cited Chancellor Bülow's statement, made in 1902, that "the good relations of France and Italy are, in my opinion, the complement of the Triple Alliance," and Lord Fitz-Maurice's sensible *mot*, that "the fact of being on good terms with one Power does not necessarily imply being on bad terms with another."

This theory that the more general and comprehensive alliances are compatible with any number of special agreements, well deserves scrutiny. The arguments for the view are by no means immediately convincing. The fact, however, is clear that beside the more general alliance, like the Triplice, the Franco-Russian, and Anglo-Japanese treaties—all of which are based upon somewhat indefinite and remote contingencies—there is an increasing number of special agreements resting upon very definite and practical issues. We need not recall Bismarck's private understanding with St. Petersburg, which set the fashion of a "friendship" superimposed upon an alliance—or secretly undermining it. It is sufficient to say that Austria has special agreements with Russia and Italy as regards Macedonia and Albania. France has, in addition to the Dual Alliance, undertaken especial obligations to Italy, England, and Spain; in short, a nexus of friendly bargains now covers pretty nearly every disputed point in European politics, and the older so-called fundamental groupings of the Powers begin to have the look of retiring into some abstract and unrealized realm.

It is in the nature of the case, perhaps, that the more sweeping and ambitious alliances should have little permanency. Based on national sentiments of a temporary sort, they pledge national policy for a long future. Germany, for example, must to-day be pretty well free of the dread of Russia and France, which was the reason for rallying Italy and Austria to her side. In other words, what began as a measure of Imperial defence persists merely as a matter of national vanity, or as an abstract ideal of a central European tribunal. Similarly, France, since her reconciliation with England and Italy, should have nearly outgrown her fear of Germany. Moreover, it may reasonably be doubted if any member of the three great alliances would be bound by past engagements against its present interests. Can it be doubted that, if France were called upon to fight beside Russia, or even England beside Japan, either ally would construe its duty not by the letter of a treaty, but by its sense of immediate self-interest?

A further reason why the more comprehensive pacts do not promise the "federation of the world," is their moral weakness. They are made in a spirit, not of conciliation, but of potential defiance. When the Kaiser virtually rebuked Italy by praising Austrian action at Algeciras, he showed the old sentiment of exclusiveness. He assumed that the rival or opponent of any member of the alliance could be the friend of no other member. In this sense, one may say that the older treaties, framed with a view to the balance of power, make for peace very imperfectly. Being based on the theory of existing animosities between nations, they give to such hostilities a kind of international warrant. When friendlier feelings come, it is no wonder that the signatory Powers which are accustomed to the older régime of distrust, feel obliged to protest that nothing has changed. When a watcher has to pinch himself to make sure he is awake, the worth of his vigilance is at least questionable.

Against international agreements of a special and limited kind no skepticism need arise. The Anglo-French *entente*, for example, has the moral advantage of dealing with perfectly concrete issues and of seeming to mean no more than it actually does. All treaties that concern trade, fishing rights, boundaries, spheres of influence, and the like have a similar character of sincerity. That they are limited in application is their strength. None goes beyond an immediate point in controversy. Each is an admirable argument for a new agreement when occasion arises. In a sense, we cannot have too many especial agreements. They greatly promote the habit of frank negotiation and frequent arbitration among nations. They mark a stage beyond the arbitrament of arms and the view of world-politics that regards international prejudices as a chief asset. It is a just instinct that sees in these special treaties an impairment of those older pacts which presuppose a European equipoise of battalions and battleships. Should the habit of especial agreements ever became universal, the traditional military alliances would become superfluous.

CARL SCHURZ.

The patriot, orator, journalist, statesman, soldier, reformer, who died in this city on Monday morning, was born March 2, 1829, in the village of Liblar, near Cologne; in 1840 he entered the Catholic Gymnasium of Cologne, and in 1846 proceeded to the University of Bonn with the intention of studying philosophy and history. Like many other ardent and generous-minded young students, he fell under the influence of Professor Johann Gottfried Kinkel, who threw himself unreservedly into the revolutionary movement of 1848, and served as a private among the insurgents in the spring of 1849. Schurz, following the example of his friend and teacher, served as adjutant to Gen. Tiedemann, and, when the latter surrendered the fortress of Rastadt with forty-five hundred revolutionary troops on July 21, 1849, made an almost miraculous escape from it through the sewer connecting with the Rhine, and fled to Switzerland. In the following summer he returned to Berlin, under an assumed name, for the purpose of liberating Kinkel, who had been taken prisoner, tried for treason, and sentenced to imprisonment for life. With the aid of wealthy sympathizers, this daring and romantic project was carried to a successful conclusion in November, 1850, and created a sensation throughout Europe. In fact, a more remarkable instance of self-sacrifice and heroism for friendship's sake has seldom been recorded, and it demonstrated the singular nobility of Schurz's character. Schurz and Kinkel escaped on a Mecklenburg vessel to Leith in Scotland.

Schurz spent about two years in London and Paris, supporting himself by giving music lessons and by acting as correspondent of German newspapers. In July, 1852, he married Margaret Meyer, the daughter of a well-known Hamburg merchant. The match was a romantic one, the acquaintance

being traceable to the fame of Schurz's exploit in liberating Kinkel, and was the beginning of a long and happy union, broken only by the death of the wife in March, 1876. In September, 1852, Schurz crossed the ocean and took up his abode in Philadelphia, where he remained for three years, removing then to Watertown, Wis. He attached himself at once to the newly formed Republican party, and in the following year, 1856, made German speeches which contributed so materially to carrying Wisconsin for Frémont by a majority of more than 13,000 votes that in 1857, although he had but just become a citizen, he was nominated Republican candidate for lieutenant-governor, and came within one hundred and seven votes of an election. Two years later he was offered the same nomination and declined it. His first English speech, made in 1858, during the senatorial contest in Illinois between Abraham Lincoln and Stephen A. Douglas, attracted general attention, and was widely circulated under the title of "The Irrepressible Conflict."

In the following year he began the practice of the law in Milwaukee. The National Republican Convention of May, 1860, which he attended as chairman of the Wisconsin delegation, upon his motion incorporated in the fourteenth paragraph of the party platform a declaration unequivocally pledging the Republican party against all legislation by which the existing political rights of immigrants could be impaired or abridged. Moreover, he supported George William Curtis in his successful appeal for the insertion in the platform of the sentiments of the Declaration of Independence, which had been denied to Mr. Giddings. Although he steadily cast the vote of his whole delegation for William H. Seward, Schurz was appointed a member of the committee to notify Lincoln of his nomination; a member of the National Republican Committee, consisting of one representative from each State; and also a member of the Executive Committee, which then consisted of only seven members. During the ensuing canvass he made many brilliant speeches in German and in English, which were an important factor in bringing about the election of Lincoln, who, after his inauguration, recognized the valuable services of Schurz by appointing him United States Minister to Spain. Schurz presented his credentials to Queen Isabella on July 16, 1861, but in December resigned his post, and, after a brief visit to his native land, returned to his adopted country in January, 1862, to take service in the Union army.

He was commissioned brigadier-general in April, and on June 17 took command of a division in the corps of Gen. Franz Sigel, participating in the second battle of Bull Run (August 29 and 30). He was appointed major-general on March 14, 1863, and on May 2 commanded a division of Gen. Oliver O. Howard's Eleventh Army Corps, at the battle of Chancellorsville. With the same corps he participated in the battles of Gettysburg and Chattanooga, and served under Sherman in the Georgia campaigns. The surrender of Gen. Johnston to Gen. Sherman on April 26, 1865, terminated the war; and Schurz, having obtained leave of absence, proceeded at once to Washington and resigned his commission as general. His resignation was filed May 5, and was the first one received by the War Department, with the sole exception of Gen. Sigel's, which was filed May 4.

In the summer of 1865 Schurz was commissioned by President Johnson to make a tour of the Southern States and prepare a report on their condition and the state of public sentiment. He made a careful and conscientious study of the subject, and embodied the result of his investigations in a candid and judicial-minded report, in which he recommended that, before readmitting the rebellious States to full political rights, a Congressional Committee be sent there to make a thorough survey of the ground and suggest appropriate legislation. In 1866, he removed to Michigan and became editor of the Detroit *Post;* in 1867, to St. Louis to become editor and, with Emil Pretorius, joint proprietor of the *Westliche Post.* Even during the war, and while in active service in the field, Schurz had not intermitted his activity as a political orator, but had occasionally taken leave of absence when it seemed necessary to rouse public sentiment to support the Administration, and in 1864 had made some notable speeches in the second Lincoln canvass. As a matter of course he was one of the most effective speakers in the campaign of 1868, which resulted in the first election of Grant. On January 19, 1869, the Legislature of Missouri elected him Senator, and he took his seat at the special session beginning March 4, being the first German-born citizen who had ever been a member of the upper house of Congress.

The career of Carl Schurz in the Senate would have been sufficiently remarkable if regarded merely as a demonstration of his great gifts as a parliamentary orator and of his readiness as a debater. The course of events has taken his part in nearly all the controversies which put him at odds with his party in the Senate. He was in advance of public sentiment, not so much by reason of any superior foresight or political sagacity, as because of his fidelity to his ideals, and his conviction that, in the long run, truth was bound to prevail. He was the original Independent in politics, and the whole political faith of the Independent can be educed from his utterances. He was a warm advocate of civil-service reform, of tariff-reform, of currency reform, at a time when the friends of any kind of reform were few and far between, and had nothing to expect from either party but obloquy and sneers. Perhaps the greatest practical service he rendered at this time was by his unwavering advocacy of correct principles on the currency question. He was among the few public men who never made any concession on this point to ignorant public clamor, and his mastery of the subject was equal to the honesty and courage with which he stood for the right. The two speeches against inflation and in favor of a return to specie payments which he made in the Senate on January 14 and February 24, 1874, were models of sound doctrine. Of the second of them, Prof. Bonamy Price of Oxford said that it was the ablest speech ever made on banking in any parliament, that its range and solidity were wonderful, and that it offered a body of detailed doctrine which almost throughout will bear the test of the closest examination.

A complimentary dinner was given to Schurz on April 27, 1875, to mark the regret which honest men of all parties felt at his retirement from the Senate, failing a reëlection—at his being (in the words of one of them) "exiled from one party by his independence and principles, and repelled by the other apparently because it is too ignorant to recognize his value in public life." Banqueted a few weeks later in Berlin, a more signal vindication awaited him on his return from Europe. Although he had broken with and defied the Republican party by taking sides against it in the Louisiana question, in the matter of the Ku-Klux laws, in advocating a general amnesty; although he had opposed the Administration in the San Domingo discussion, in the debates on the sale of arms to France and on abuses in the New York Custom House; although he had originated the Liberal Republican movement in Missouri in 1870, and had thereby given the first impetus to the current of independence in politics which afterwards swept the country; although he had presided over the Liberal convention of May, 1872, which nominated Horace Greeley for the Presidency, and had advocated (with much reluctance, it is true) the election of Greeley; although he had done all these things, and many others that equally demonstrated how little amenable he was to the ordinary canons of party discipline, and how much he placed the cause above the party—no sooner, nevertheless, had he returned home than he was appealed to by the Ohio Republican Committee to stump that State in favor of Hayes and honest money, as against Allen and inflation. Within a week he was in harness, and resumed, with all his wonted boldness and brilliancy, the good fight against financial folly, quackery, and knavishness which he had fought in the Senate, and which he was to fight over again for many years to come. His appointment by Hayes to the Secretaryship of the Interior was only a just recognition of the importance of his services, and at the same time a partial redemption of the pledge, if a pledge there was, in regard to civil-service reform, of which it was on all sides admitted that Schurz was a sincere and ardent advocate. So well was this understood by the enemies of the reform that, while his nomination was pending, they spread a report that his confirmation would be opposed by some Republicans from a "dispassionate belief" that he did not possess business experience and administrative ability enough for the proper discharge of the multifarious duties of the office.

The duties of the office were, indeed, multifarious, but Schurz was soon to convince the country that an idealist can be a very practical man in any business which is compatible with honesty, industry, intelligence, and courage. He was confirmed on March 11, and before a week had expired he assured the clerks that no removals would be made except for cause, unless the force had to be reduced, in which case the least competent would be removed; that no promotions would be made except for merit; and that, as there were no vacancies, no recommendations to office would be entertained. This was not empty declamation, for Schurz did not even bring a new private secretary with him. On April 6 he promulgated an order providing for the investigation and practical determination of questions connected with appointments, removals, and promotions by means of a

board of inquiry composed of three clerks of the highest class; and his subsequent actions demonstrated that there was no sham about this measure, but that it was meant in sober earnest. Clerical reform, however, was but a small part of his task. He found the service in a deplorable condition, particularly the Indian Bureau. The Secretary of the Interior, and even the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, were kept in ignorance of what was going on, and contractors and Indian agents were allowed full swing. As fast as Schurz could fasten the responsibility for wrong-doing or negligence or even mere carelessness, he made changes and removals right and left, regardless, as he had ever been, of the enemies he made. His efforts to check the timber thieves brought him into conflict with powerful corporations and with his old Republican antagonists in the Senate, while his intelligent and well-considered Indian policy was attacked not only by a noisy company of traders who had a vested interest in corruption, but by army officers on the one hand, and by well-meaning, sentimental philanthropists on the other. All of these foes he faced undismayed, and did not allow clamor or vituperation to swerve him from what he considered the straight path of duty. He put an end to the swindling of Indians by agents who were appointed to protect them, and in four years gave the wards of the nation a better start towards civilization than they had ever had before. In other departments he displayed the same capacity for practical business.

Returning to private life when his term of office had expired, and making his home in New York, Schurz became one of the editors of the *Evening Post*, when that journal changed ownership in July, 1881, and retained the position until December 9, 1883. In 1884 he took a prominent part in the independent movement which was called into being as a revolt against tendencies in the Republican party that represented the antipodes of everything he stood for. He had himself helped materially by example and by precept to create the public feeling which made such a movement possible, and he contributed no less to its culmination in the election of Grover Cleveland, with whom he had, indeed, much in common. The leisure afforded him by his release from public duties he employed to good purpose in writing his 'Life of Henry Clay,' which appeared in 1887, and at once secured him a high rank as a man of letters. Repeatedly chosen president of the National Civil Service Reform Association, his speeches and activities in that behalf were notable. In the elections of 1888 and 1892 he again effectively supported Cleveland, although in the latter year his health did not permit him to take as active a part as he had been accustomed to do. His latest literary effort was devoted to his autobiography, now in course of publication.

Mr. Bryce has expressed surprise at the want of influence upon American politics of the great German infusion, and it is certain that no one of the refugees of '48 attained anything like the distinction of Carl Schurz, or had either so conspicuous or so happy a share in repaying his debt to his adopted country. As a whole, it may be said of the Germans as of the Irish that, deceived by the name of "Democracy," they cast their weight—at least during the years of moral agitation—against the anti-slavery party. In this particular Schurz shines by contrast, since he at once saw things as they were, and divined the essential unity between the Slave Power and the despots of the Old World. He differed again from many of his countrymen in making a complete surrender to his new nationality, desiring and aiming to be only a high-minded American citizen. Unlike his noble compatriot, Friedrich Kapp, he was not tempted by the conquest of German unity to return to his Fatherland. In the end, he came to *think* in English rather than in German, though both languages were constantly on his lips. The late Professor Price of Columbia—the most competent of judges—once said that Schurz's mastery of English was the most astonishing intellectual feat that he had ever known. It was not simply that this German had learned to speak English without mistake or accent, nor that he had acquired a rich and varied vocabulary. The amazing thing was that he appeared to have penetrated the very spirit of the alien speech. Its idioms seemed native to him. Among its living growths he moved with ease and certainty. His crisp pronunciation, his flexible handling of phrase and instinctive building up of sentence and climax, made listening to him a blending of delight and wonder. We hear frequent boasts of bi-lingual achievements, but they relate ordinarily to the restricted speech of travel or social intercourse or diplomacy. Schurz could in either tongue be playful or powerfully argue, soar or thunder, and do it with the facility and grace of one to the vernacular born. It was, however, the moral force residing in the man that set him apart in strength. His eloquence was of the kind that is a virtue. His rare intellectual gifts, his ready bonhomie, his power as an orator, might all have gone for naught had they not clothed a conscientious judgment and inner purpose which nothing could shake. This, after all, was the main theatre of Schurz's idealism. He early formed noble political conceptions, and clung to them through evil as through good report. The tasks which he had willed in hours of insight, he fulfilled through hours of gloom.

In the multifariousness of his talent and his experiences in public and in private life, it was not to be expected that he should be equally surpassing. His military career was certainly less brilliant, though not less creditable, than his civilian. As a journalist, too, he was less successful than as an orator, and, in fact, the world has seldom seen these two functions combined (in the first order) in the same person. The speaker's rhetoric is opposed to the directness and terseness demanded of the daily writer for the press, and as a speaker it is to be observed that Schurz was accustomed to elaborate his weightier deliverances by a careful preparation in his closet. The journalist has not time for this, and pays the penalty in an ephemeral fame.

It would be unjust to close this imperfect appreciation without a word as to Carl Schurz's private character, which was both pure and amiable in a singular degree. He was very companionable, very warm and kindhearted, most affectionate in his family relations; passionately fond of music; absolutely simple and unaffected in his manner, and happy to escape from the observation of the world and the exactions of society to be at home with his books and engaged in literary pursuits. Like Lowell and like Curtis, he learned that the possession of these virtues, superadded to abundant examples of public spirit, patriotism, and self-abnegation, was no security against the most vulgar and odious aspersions on the part of his political adversaries. Yet the fullest appreciation came, too.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May, 1906.

The Academy of late has been complimented on the judgment displayed in its elections. Men have been found worthy of admission within the Academic fold for their distinction not as good fellows, not even as billiard players, but actually as artists. Among Academicians and Associates there is now a fair sprinkling of names of painters and sculptors, engravers and architects, who are doing some of the best work done to-day in England. And yet the extraordinary thing is that the Academy's summer exhibition remains what it has always been within my memory—and this means almost a quarter of a century. It shows absolutely no sign of improvement in the quality of the work, nor in the manner of exhibiting it. In fact, I should be inclined to say the exhibition just opened is the worst I have seen for years, had I not been saying the same thing regularly summer after summer. With the number of big shows given nowadays, I know it is impossible to fill each as full as it will hold with fine or even intelligent work—there are not enough fine or intelligent artists to supply it. But that is no reason why the Academy should reject, or discourage, or sky the most distinguished outsiders to make room for, or give prominence to, the chance dauber and amateur. Nor is there any obligation to fill the Academy as full as it can hold, especially as everywhere on the Continent, and in such London exhibitions as the International, harmonious spacing, appropriate hanging, and decorative grouping are considered indispensable. But the Academy goes on, scrupulously covering every inch of its walls, piling pictures one above another to the ceiling—good, bad, and indifferent jumbled together anyhow, so long as they fit in and the most conspicuous places are saved out of the chaos for the performances of Academicians and Associates. The Academy is really a monument to the indolent obstinacy that in Britain passes for conservatism.

If the Academy continues to repeat itself with such persistency, it is impossible to write of it without repetition. Again this year, as for several years past, Mr. Sargent, by sheer physical strength and downright energy, towers above the large company of timid and anæmic portrait painters. I have seen far stronger work from him. But then what are the other portraits? A wooden figure in costly laces and costlier jewels, sitting against evidently as costly a background, with no difference of texture suggested, colorless, without atmosphere—catalogued as "The Duchess of Northumberland," by Sir Edward Poynter; another figure that might pass for a dressmaker's manikin, draped in rose-tinted satins, propped against a

stage-property magnolia tree—entered as "The Duchess of Westminster," by Mr. Frank Dicksee; the usual assortment of Herkomers, Oulesses, Solomons, and the usual royal effigies; rather insignificant examples of M. Carolus-Duran and M. Blanche, who, you might fancy, are disheartened by finding themselves in Academic company; an excellent portrait of Mr. W. T. Richards by Mr. J. McLure Hamilton, placed where it can offend no Academician by its excellence; a well-thought-out decorative arrangement of a lady in blue by Mr. George Henry; a not remarkable family group, by Mr. J. J. Shannon; a straightforward, unaffected portrait of "The Lord Bishop of Salisbury," by Sir George Reid; a sudden eruption of children on horseback and ladies in inappropriate garments, wandering through romantic landscapes, that would never have been painted but for the success of the late Charles Furse, who started the fashion—and I remember few others. There is, therefore, not much, it will be seen, to compete with the work of a painter like Mr. Sargent, who is no more afraid of a large canvas than he is of diligent application.

His most important picture, either at the Academy or at the New Gallery, is the huge presentation group of Professors William Welch, William S. Halstead, William Osler, and Howard A. Kelly, of the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. I do not know whether the picture has been already exhibited in America or whether it was designed for a special space in a special room or hall, where it may look better than in its present position at Burlington House. To me, it is a disappointment. The subject gave Mr. Sargent something of the chance Rembrandt had with the Syndics, and Franz Hals with the Regents, and I do not think he has taken advantage of it. Nothing could be simpler than Rembrandt's grouping, and yet there is not one of the Syndics who does not belong to the group, is not a part of it. But I cannot help feeling that each of Mr. Sargent's four figures would be more effective as a separate portrait. There is observation in the four heads, good, sound study of character; the official robes, so much more pictorial than plain coat and trousers, are put in with that full sweep of the brush Mr. Sargent delights in. But, as so often in Mr. Sargent's groups, the arrangement is haphazard; unity is destroyed by the way the standing figure toward the centre is enveloped, lost in atmosphere, while the head of the seated figure immediately in front so lacks this envelope that it fairly jumps at you from the canvas. It is all you see at first; it monopolizes the interest which, in character, the others share quite equally. Nor is the background very successful. It is dark, vague, dingy, spacious, out of proportion to the group. When the picture finally reaches Baltimore, as I suppose it is destined to, the whole effect may be so different that I hesitate to say more about it. It is Mr. Sargent's most ambitious exhibit this year.

He has also at the Academy a portrait of Lord Roberts, in which the interest is concentrated on the uniform and the countless decorations; another, of "The Hon. Mrs. Frederick Guest," in which he has allowed himself the rare pleasure of rendering personal beauty and feminine grace; a third, not very striking one way or the other. For the most sympathetic presentment of character, you must go to the New Gallery, where, in a small sketch of "Padre Albera"—whoever the Padre may be—Mr. Sargent reveals unusual tenderness and charm. Two or three other sketches here and one at the Academy are his record of a recent journey in the East; brilliant notes of hot, blazing sunshine, so true, so suggestive, that one wishes Mr. Sargent would devote to landscape some of the time he gives to people who evidently do not appeal to him or interest him in the least. Surely, he has arrived at the moment in his career when he could permit himself this luxury.

Of the sort of pictures that used to be expected of Academicians—subject pictures, historic pictures, heroic pictures, allegoric pictures, call them what you will—the examples are few, and of these few only one or two are above the average. One of the exceptions is "A Venetian Funeral," by Mr. Frank Brangwyn, who has just been made an Associate. He is an artist of distinct individuality. He has done good work, both as illustrator and as decorator. But as painter he has reached a point where, if he does not take care, he may fall a victim to his mannerisms—to his convention—as have already so many of the Glasgow school. He can no longer see nature except through the formula he has invented for himself. That "A Venetian Funeral" is a most picturesque motive, any one who has been to Venice knows. Mr. Brangwyn, however, has made of it only an excuse for the mosaic of paint he now produces with every picture. The boat in the foreground, the men in it bearing unlit candles, the flowers at their feet—all in shadow not quite accounted for—the figures in the distant boats that fill the hot background, are so many *tesseræ* in this mosaic. It takes several minutes to untangle, to puzzle out the design. It is the same with his "Wine Shop" at the New Gallery, in which there is nothing in the treatment to distinguish the figures from the objects of still life that surround them. It is the same, I might say, with his big etching of "Santa Maria della Salute," a confusion of shipping in the foreground that no amount of study has so far made clear to me. However, Mr. Brangwyn has an individual way of using his eyes; he may still triumph over his formula, and there is no other large subject-picture at the Academy to be mentioned with his, except, perhaps, Mr. Abbey's "Columbus in the New World."

I say this, though I cannot deny to myself that, if it were not for Mr. Abbey's name in the catalogue, I probably should have turned from the picture with no desire to come back to it, so hot and garish is it in color, so discordant in design. He has chosen the moment of landing, and Columbus (presumably) kneels in the foreground, where it is some little while before you discover him, so dazzled are your eyes by the flight of violently pink flamingoes, or herons, for I am not ornithologist enough to know just what, across the staring blue sky, and by the banners his followers hold aloft, and by the elaborate vestments in which the priests who wear them are quite lost. Nothing really explains itself, but least of all the birds, by whose astonished flight—that is not a flight at all, for there is no movement—Mr. Abbey probably meant to symbolize the newness of the New World to man, though the symbol in paint resolves itself into no more than an unpleasant experiment in color and decoration. By giving this picture the principal centre in the principal gallery—the centre that used to be occupied by Leighton—Academicians, no doubt, have wished to express their appreciation of Mr. Abbey. Like Mr. Sargent, he comes by his prominence without much trouble. Who is there to dispute it with him? No one but Sir Alma-Tadema, with the old marble seat and the old figures in the old classic draperies, against the old background; or Mr. Waterhouse, with his more substantial versions of Burne-Jones's maidens, this year bearing water-jars and called "The Danaides"; or the various younger men who are struggling by Academic means or by imitation of Mr. Abbey himself for Academic recognition.

The landscapes compel the same repetition as the portraits in any attempt to write about them. Those that have distinction or merit come from the same men who have contributed the only landscapes of importance for some years past. Again, as so often before, one passes the perfunctory Academic machine, the photographic record that a good photograph could beat all to pieces, to come with delight, with a sense of life and freshness and charm, to a little canvas by Mr. George Clausen, in which the sunshine really falls in pale green light through an open door into the deep shadows of the barn, or where one looks, with the laborer at rest, across miles and miles of low rolling country lying in sunshine and shadow, or where one sees the morning open in golden brilliance over all the white, frost-laden countryside. The problem of light and air absorbs Mr. Clausen, and the beauty of the simple pastoral or agricultural landscape. He is not concerned with the dignity or tragedy of labor as Millet—in a way his master—was; for him, the peasant is but a part of the picture, no more important than the trees, or the hayricks, or the clouds sweeping the heavens above, or the barn's low eaves and dim corners. And every year, it seems to me, he comes nearer the successful solving of this problem. I remember, not so long since, when his haymakers or reapers stood out in strong relief against the landscape, distinct and separate from it; now, they take their place in it, belong to it, are inseparable from it, entirely contained within the atmospheric envelope. And I know of no painter in England to-day who can give so well the feeling and beauty of great space, its repose and impressiveness.

His three landscapes are small and simple, but no others in the collection can be compared with them. Mr. La Thangue, whose bold, uncompromising studies of sunlight have usually, by sheer brutality of realism, compelled one to look at them, seems unable to carry this realism further except by forcing effects already forced further, in their strict adherence to nature, than art can justify. One of his pictures, "Carting Bracken," shows such zeal for the least important facts that you would think any minute the woman behind the heavily-laden cart and the boy in front must push and pull it right out of the picture. Like Mr. Brangwyn, Mr.

La Thangue is letting his mannerisms get the better of him. Here and there, a broad, quiet sweep of brown common by Mr. Aumonier, or a little Yorkshire moorland village in its sombre setting by Mr. James Henry, or a delicate impression of "Washing Day" in the open air by Mr. Edward Stott, another of the new Associates, may catch the eye and bring it an interval of rest and pleasure in the midst of the acres of discord and restlessness. But there is nothing of great note. Mr. East continues his pursuit of the composition earlier generations of painters thought so necessary in a landscape, and one continues to be grateful, even if in the pursuit so many no less essential qualities seem to elude him. There is a characteristic rendering of the royal palace at Copenhagen by M. Thaulow, who is another artist, however, threatened by too close cultivation of one and the same formula.

In the Black-and-White Room, neither the two Associate engravers, Mr. Strang and Mr. Short, nor the presence of Mr. Brangwyn with his big plate of the Salute, can do more than emphasize the general mediocrity and dulness. It is unpardonable, after the International has proved how interesting and splendid a collection of prints and drawings filling a large gallery can be made, that the Academy cannot succeed in filling one small room with good work. In the Architectural Room, attention is attracted to one or two schemes for the "improvement" of London that County Councillors and building speculators and Queen Victoria Memorials are rapidly "improving" out of existence; an entirely different and brand-new London rising from the ruins. When the symmetry of Regent Quadrant was deliberately sacrificed for the sake of still another huge hotel, an outcry was heard from certain quarters, because the Quadrant is one of the few streets in London with any pretension to architectural dignity and design. Recently, it was explained that no great harm would be done because Mr. Norman Shaw was to provide the plans for the Regent Street façade of the hotel, and the old lines—or rather curves—were to be adhered to. Mr. Shaw's elevations and drawings are now exhibited, and they provide not merely for the hotel façade, but for the entire Quadrant, which, as far as I can find out, there is no immediate idea of pulling down. In the drawing, Mr. Shaw's new street seems a little heavy, a little severe, and in any case it will not be the Quadrant in harmony with the period whose name it bears. Another plan is for a County Council Hall built on a bridge across the river. As I believe it has been definitely decided to build this Hall on the southern side of the river between Hungerford and Westminster Bridges, one can afford to look at the new scheme with no fear for the future of the river, which, as it flows through London, is without a rival in its pictorial beauty.

Little need be said about the sculpture. There is nothing even in the way of sensation, like Mr. Thomas's "Lycidas" at the New Gallery last year. In the dispiriting row of busts, in bronze and marble, Mr. Gilbert's "Francis Petrus Paulus, pictor" has the distinction of life and vigor and character. There is life, too, in his sketch model for a proposed war memorial that has as subject "St. George and the Dragon, Victory Leading"; too much life really, for, while the small model, with its amusing use of color, is delightful, you feel that the swirls of the saint's ribbon-like drapery and the long lines made by the widespread wings of Victory and the dragon would, when carried out on a large scale, become unbearably restless in effect and confused in outline. Beyond these things, however, I recall no sculptures of sufficient importance for mention. Mr. Swan has a small group of "Polar Bears," in which so much is left to suggestion that you have to examine it very minutely before you make out anything save the lapis-lazuli base, an inchoate lump of silver, and a square of crystal above. Sir William Richmond sends the model for his monument to Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone, to be placed in Hawarden Church; it makes one wonder what Mr. Gladstone ever did to deserve a memorial that, in the model at least, looks like a modern travesty of the beautiful old tombs whereon husband and wife lie side by side.

If I have not written of the New Gallery, except to refer to one or two pictures, it is because the exhibition there has become more than ever the merest annex to the Royal Acadmy. Burne-Jones has gone, only one or two of his followers linger. No special school, no special movement, no special artist, is represented. There does not seem any good reason why such an exhibition should be held.

N. N.

AUSTRALIAN LAND SCANDALS.

SYDNEY, April 9, 1906.

A people, like a family, ought to wash its dirty linen indoors, as the Catholic Church invariably does; and if the scandals that have lately made the Lands Office of New South Wales a hissing and a reproach throughout the Empire had been only scandals, no word should be written about them here. The actors and the parts they played in this particular phase of the human comedy were all alike too Lilliputian to be worthy of description, or even of censure; but they have a far-reaching significance. It was not only a State department that was on its trial before the royal commissioner appointed to investigate them: it was the ethics of State action in such a sphere and the possibility of an equitable administration of public lands that were in question.

More than thirty years ago, on the way to a racquet court in the north of London, the writer took the liberty of asking Herbert Spencer whether he still adhered to the view that the land of a country should be nationalized. All of his answer that remains in memory is the word, "Eventually." The reply was enigmatical, but the impression left was that he had abandoned the strong ground taken up in 'Social Statics.' He was, at all events, already wavering; a few years later he had ceased to waver. In 1880 Henry George published his epoch-making book, and thus precipitated a development in the mind of "our great philosopher" that might otherwise have been delayed. The reformer founded his propaganda in good part on the memorable chapter on "The Right to the Use of the Earth," and claimed the English philosopher as his ally. Spencer could refuse the challenge only by accepting the affiliation, and he went out of his way to denounce the reasoning in 'Progress and Poverty' as "a tissue of sophistry and contradictions." George was as painfully astonished as the advocates of female suffrage to whom, in 1870 or 1871, Spencer refused leave to issue as a pamphlet the chapter from the same early work on "The Rights of Women." The female-suffragists maintained a dignified silence when they might have branded his apostasy, but Henry George was too much of an enthusiast to lie down under an authoritative disavowal that was also a formidable attack. His 'Perplexed Philosopher' left a wound that long rankled in Spencer's mind, and it gave rise to the only embittered chapter in his bulky 'Autobiography.' George's insinuation that he recanted his belief in the nationalization of the land from interested motives—barbed with a classical quotation from Browning that was still more ludicrously inapplicable to Spencer than it had been to Wordsworth—was as pointless as the accusation of mercenariness made against him by the Positivist chief in England, as it had previously (and far more gently) been made by Renan against Strauss. From Diogenes and Stilpo onwards, philosophers have an honorable record for their political independence, and Spencer stands high in the category of those who have renounced nearly all the things that most men prize. The explanation of his change of opinion is simplicity itself. His own deepest convictions, reinforced by all that he had known of the working of political institutions, led him to conclude that the land of a country could not be acquired and administered by the State without chronic inefficiency and ruinous loss. He would have rejoiced to find his belief confirmed by the ugliest exposure of any public department that has been made in Australia.

The Victorian railways department and the New South Wales lands department have long been promenaded in books on Australia as notorious examples of governmental corruption. A day of reckoning came for the Victorian railways three or four years ago with the advent of the reform ministry that swept them clean. A day of reckoning has now come for the Lands Office of New South Wales. It came by a kind of accident. A suit brought by some graziers (the term that has superseded "squatter" as a name for pastoralists who depasture large flocks of sheep on Crown or other lands) to recover a sum of money paid by them to land agents who undertook, and failed, to negotiate an alteration in the terms on which certain lands were leased by them from the Crown, opened a glimpse of a possible Inferno beneath the smooth surface of the Lands Office that sent a shudder through the community. Another transaction, of a different sort, contributed the additional dynamite needed to blow up the department. The new Minister for Lands, pursuing the policy initiated by New Zealand of providing lands for settlers by buying back the large estates owned for the most part by companies, and breaking them up into moderate-sized farms, purchased a tract known as the Myall Creek Estate. An ex-Premier at once denounced the purchase as having been made on extravagant terms. Uneasiness spread, and the public grew clamorous for an inquiry. A sanguine interviewer bearded the Minister for Lands and asked

him if a royal commission would be appointed to inquire into the purchase and into the other questionable transactions that had come to light. Aping the manners of Crispi, who coldly told a pressman that the Italian Government did not desire the support of the press, the Minister replied that he was unaware of anything in the Lands Office that needed to be inquired into. We are reminded of Mr. Hammond, once Permanent Under-Secretary at the Foreign Office, who informed Lord Granville, when that nobleman became Foreign Minister, that in his long experience he had never known the political horizon of Europe to be so unclouded. A few months later the dream of the official optimist was rudely shattered by the cannon thunder of the Franco-German war; and the very next day our colonial Doctor Pangloss was promptly brought to his senses. In the morning an influential journal published a trenchant article imperiously calling for the issue of a royal commission. That very day the Cabinet met, and, in a manner unprecedented in the history of parliamentary government, decided, at the instance of a strong-willed Premier, to appoint a judge of the Supreme Court as a royal commission to inquire into the purchase of the Myall Creek Estate and the fees paid to land agents. The decision was a triumph for the Australian press, which is modelled on the English press and is worthy of its exemplar.

Then began the sittings of a commission that has broken the record for length, having sat for nearly a year. Next was seen the strange spectacle of men of the highest political rank being examined and cross-examined like compromised witnesses in a trial for felony. Premiers and ex-premiers, ministers and ex-ministers, legislators, under-secretaries and heads of sub-departments, land agents, landowners, and squatters followed one another in what seemed likely to prove an interminable procession. The legislative rack and the judicial thumbscrew were copiously applied. First one and then another special statute were enacted by the Legislature to arm the commission with fresh powers. Leading counsel were engaged to extract evidence from reluctant witnesses. Officers of the incriminated department offered to make revelations, provided they were guaranteed against injurious consequences, and a bill of indemnity was passed to protect them. The Commissioner was pressed to extend the inquiry into past years and unearth more distant scandals. Thus expanded, the inquest would have been endless. "It is in working within limits," says Goethe, "that the master comes out"; and the Commissioner decided to confine his investigation to the previous lustrum.

It yielded fruit enough—Dead Sea fruit. First, he had to ascertain what foundation there was for the accusations of corruption made in connection with the purchase of the Myall Creek Estate. It is characteristic of the political condition of the mother colony that the very first repurchase of private lands by the State should have sprouted a thicket of scandals. It was openly charged against the present Minister for Lands that he had received a large sum in order to purchase the estate at about £15,000 in excess of its market price. No evidence was adduced in support of the charge of bribery, but it is admitted that the amount paid was excessive, and it was proved that a well-known political land agent received £6,000 from the owners for negotiating the purchase on terms favorable to them. Had the transaction been equitable, his intervention would not have been needed. He was, in fact, bribed to defraud the State, which paid both the bribe and the excess of the purchase money. The well-meaning Minister may be acquitted of dishonesty; he cannot be acquitted of incapacity. The British, and sometimes the more privileged Australian, workman is made to pay for his breakages; the minister who lets himself be duped by a scallawag should be asked to compensate the State for the sum it has lost through his error of judgment or his lack of perspicacity.

A German scholar, Nasse, was perhaps the first to show that there was in Tudor England, in consequence of the humidity of the climate, a constant tendency for the cultivation of the soil to revert from agriculture to pasture. The climate of Australia is still drier than that of England is moist, but the tussle between pasture and agriculture is as keen as ever. The pastoralist strives to keep as much land as possible under grass, and the agriculturist struggles to bring even more of it under crop. That is the key to a large class of transactions investigated by the Commissioner. It was discovered that, a suitable inducement being offered, the Lands Office was willing to convert settlement leases of State lands into pastoral or improvement leases. As the holder of a settlement lease, the farmer pays a liberal rent; as the holder of an improvement lease for twenty-eight years, the pastoralist is bound to improve the land to the value of 4*s.* 6*d.* per acre, while he pays a nominal rental of, at most, a few pence per acre. How low that rental may sink will appear from a single fact. Sir Samuel McCaughey is one of Australia's territorial princes. Besides a lordly demesne of his own, he leases from the State an extensive tract of 110,000 acres, for which he pays the truly "ridiculous sum" of £180 yearly, or a good deal less than a halfpenny an acre. No wonder that settlement leaseholders were eager to undergo a change of heart and get converted into improvement leaseholders. It could not be done offhand. Machinery had to be set in motion, and ministers and under-secretaries manipulated. There are three or four distinct factions in the Lands Office, said a high authority, and whenever one of them sets itself to do something, the other two or three combine to thwart it. The authority cited—the agent who negotiated the Myall Creek purchase—proved to be master of the situation. He alone could thread his way through the labyrinth of the land laws. What was his Ariadne's clue? Knowledge of men and power of managing them. A grazier came from the country to get his lease converted. Theseus took him to the Legislature and there showed the wondering squatter how such august beings as legislators could be twirled round the finger. Another, who had long been vainly endeavoring to change his tenure, he took to the Lands Office, where he interviewed the minister, and "in five minutes" the business was settled. What instruments did he use? Primarily, the vulgarest of all—hard cash; for he would accept no tale-telling check, and give no compromising receipts. About £60,000 in all was sworn to as having been paid to him and other land agents, but those who instigated the inquiry have estimated that as much as £250,000 was thus levied by the fraternity, and public lands to the value of two millions sterling thus temporarily or permanently lost to the State. So ingrained was the general belief that nothing whatever—even things of unquestioned right—could be passed through the Lands Office otherwise than by corrupt means, that graziers, desiring an area for which there was no competition, paid an agent large sums (in one case, £700) to procure a lease that could have been got by simple application. One result of these shady transactions is that large tracts of land, on which hundreds of families might have dwelt, will be massed in large pastoral holdings for many years to come. Numbers of farmers in the State and in England who were desirous of leasing or buying such lands, and of turning the sheepwalks into profitable farms, have had to emigrate to Queensland, Canada, or South Africa.

As day after day revelations were made, the air hurtled with missiles, and danger thickened around the chief actor. Barabbas fled—first to West Australia and then to Natal, on his way to London. In both the distant State and the more remote colony he was pursued by the authorities (under indignant popular pressure, be it told); and it reveals the flimsiness of the Australian Federal bond on the one hand, and the non-existence of a strong Imperial bond on the other, that the most persevering efforts have hitherto failed to bring back the robber to justice. Throughout the Empire, extradition for such offences is almost proved (for the end is not yet) to be impracticable.

While the grand conspirator was thus eluding justice, the Judas of the department scorned to flee. None of the transactions mentioned could have been completed without the coöperation or the connivance of the Minister for Lands. A series of confessions made by a station agent directly incriminated the late holder of the office. The story, as he told it, read like a passage from a mediæval mystery or a miracle play. Mephistopheles (the minister) met the new Faust (the agent) and whispered in his ear: "These land agents seem to make a lot of money; why should not *you* make some?" An unholy compact was silently made. "I understood him," said Faust, "and he understood me." The terms were those of all such arrangements. Renan amused a dinner party in Paris by relating an ancient tale about a Babylonian merchant and a dæmon, with whom he equally divided his spoils till he married, when the dæmon's claim of 50 per cent. became shockingly unreasonable. So did our two confederates go halves. Many thousands of pounds were thus shared. There was a lack of refinement in the relations between the pair. "I flung the money down," said the agent, snarling: " 'There's some money for you!' " Mephistopheles has evidently a great deal to put up with at the hands of his clients. On the back of these admissions the Commissioner, Mr. Justice Owen, directed that the ex-minister should be

prosecuted. He was committed by the stipendiary, and last month he was tried before the Supreme Court. What with the technicalities of the law and the subterfuges of the chief witness, the case completely broke down, and the accused was discharged. His escape gave a profound shock to the public conscience.

There is much more to be told, but we should never end. The lantern carried by "the Light of the World" in Holman Hunt's luminous painting would be wanted to explore the Egyptian darkness of the Lands Office and reveal its piled-up abuses. A parliamentary Hercules is required to turn the Spercheios through these stables of Augeas. The Premier has announced that the Lands Office is to be reorganized, and placed under permanent commissioners who shall be emancipated from the political intervention and ministerial control that have wrecked it. The moral of the inquiry is that colonial public institutions are tainted with corruption exactly in proportion as they are pervaded by Socialism.

J. C.

Correspondence.

THE DANGERS OF CASUISTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have a neighbor, an Episcopal clergyman, who repeats the creed regularly, yet does not accept literally the statement, "born of the Virgin Mary." I asked him lately how he explained his apparent inconsistency. His explanation was in substance as follows: "The Eastern nations habitually accounted for the advent of a personage of heroic or extraordinary powers by ascribing to him a Virgin birth and a directly divine origin. This was the case with Zoroaster and Buddha; and the same idea is repeated in many of the Greek legends. The clause in the creed, therefore, is intended to affirm the divine origin of Christ, and, as I heartly believe in that divinity, I am constrained to repeat this particular affirmation. I should, in fact, violate my principles if I omitted it."

Such is my neighbor's profession—not his apology, for he believes himself entirely within his rights. Dr. Crapsey tells us, in effect, in his profession: "I do believe in the Virgin birth—that is to say, I believe Christ was born pure and immaculate." Finally, any one of his prosecutors (Dr. Locke, for example) would affirm his absolute and literal acceptance of the Virgin birth—an occurrence improbable to the last degree, contrary to all the experience of mankind, unsupported by any adequate evidence, and contradicted by the New Testament itself. Not only does he accept this cheerfully and without reserve, but he insists that Dr. Crapsey shall accept it as a matter of contract and compulsion. "This dogma," he would say, "was affirmed by the Council of Nice; if you deny it, you are not a Christian, though you may have all the virtues and most of the beliefs of a Christian."

Here, then, are three different kinds of interpretation and belief. Dr. Locke and his class accept unreservedly the clause in the creed, without any mundane proofs (to put it frankly); Dr. Crapsey accepts the same clause, figuratively and metaphorically; my neighbor accepts it with an elaborate and ingenious implication. They are all honorable gentlemen; the character of Dr. Crapsey, I may be permitted to say, since it was discussed publicly at the trial, is notorious among his intimates for sweetness, charity, honesty—for all the Christian virtues and graces.

Observe, now, what a burden and yoke the Council of Nice imposed on the intellect and conscience of these three gentlemen—the yoke of acceptance without evidence, or of acceptance, with certain subtilizings and refinements which the public might, perhaps unjustly, term casuistry. What habit of mind would naturally be engendered and developed by such modes of reasoning and interpretation? Suppose these gentlemen sitting in a court of equity for the interpretation of a will, and applying the same canons of evidence and interpretation to the decision of a case which involved the fortune of a man's wife and children. With what dismay would he regard the application of such methods! And, to come to my point, how is the ecclesiastic himself to guarantee the integrity of his reason—the sincerity of his "yea and nay"—against the contagion of such mental processes?

Let me quote what a great thinker and moralist says of their danger—a plain Pagan, who was not embarrassed by the physics or the metaphysics of the Council of Nice. Socrates, at his last hour, is cautioning his friends against the impropriety of inaccurate and misleading expressions—against promising that they will bury *him* when they mean that they will bury his *body*; "for false words," he adds, "are not only evil in themselves, but they infect the soul with evil." This is the voice of Plato speaking through the mask of Socrates.

E. L. S.

"MENSUR" and "KRIEGSHERR."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to file some exceptions to your remarks on the German Emperor's telegram to the Austrian Foreign Minister apropos of the Algeciras conference. This telegram was written in German, and does not contain a single word alluding to or sugesting "the duelling-ground" from which you infer a deadly combat. The word used by the Emperor was "Mensur," a technical term among German students which has quite another meaning. "Mensur" means a measurement of strength, and is frequently used for all kinds of arguments, but never as a synonym for a deadly combat. Of course you relied on the Associated Press. By the way, does it not look queer that, of all the news spread broadcast all over the world by the Associated Press during recent years about German political affairs, more than 90 per cent. was absolute falsehood, or, to call a spade a spade, lies, made up for no other purpose than to stir up distrust and hatred against Germany? A short glance over the telegraphic news published during the last year will convince you of the correctness of my statement. Be this as it may, no German reading the telegram of the Emperor to Count Goluchowsky will derive from it the meaning upon which you base your indictment.

Even a verbatim translation is often very inept. Take, for instance, "Warlord." According to the Constitution of the German Empire, the Emperor is commander-in-chief of all the German armies in time of war. The President of the United States is commander of the United States army in time of peace too. This is not so in Germany. There the Emperor is commander-in-chief of only the Prussian army and the German navy, while the various monarchs retain their commanding power over their respective armies during peace. This command in war makes the Emperor master of the armies in war, for which the Germans have the very proper word "Kriegsherr," *i. e.*, master in time of war. Some ingenious fellow, with "little wit and ease to suit him," instead of translating this word into "commander-in-chief in time of war," found for it the magnificent word "Warlord." If it jollies the boys they are welcome to it, but the silliness remains.

Dr. E. Schrader.

Spokane, Wash., May 8, 1906.

A SPANISH LITERARY ENTERPRISE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I ask you to call the attention of your readers to the "Nueva Biblioteca de Autores Españoles," which has just been inaugurated at Madrid under the general editorship of Sr. Menéndez y Pelayo, the Director of the National Library in the Spanish capital? As the title indicates, the new series is in continuation of the "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles," successfully engineered by Rivadeneyra over half a century ago. The names of the collaborators of Menéndez y Pelayo in the present enterprise are in themselves a sufficient guarantee of the scholarship that will characterize the editorial work as a whole, for they include R. Menéndez Pidal and A. Bonilla y San Martín of the Central University of Madrid, M. Serrano y Sanz of the University of Saragossa, E. Cotarelo y Mori, M. Mir, Fr. Rodríguez Marín, and other well-known specialists. By a staff constituted of men like these attention will be paid to the great advance that has been made during the last fifty years in matters appertaining to philology, criticism, and the comparative history of literature, and therefore the scientific value of the "Nueva Biblioteca" will be appreciably higher than that of the Rivadeneyra series. This fact has been made patent by the appearance of the first number of the new publications, namely, Volume I. of Menéndez y Pelayo's 'Orígenes de la Novela,' containing an astonishingly full and clear account of the rise and growth of the novelistic fiction of Spain. A second number has likewise been published; it is entitled 'Autobiografías y Memorias de Españoles de los Siglos XVI y XVII,' and is due to the careful efforts of Serrano y Sanz.

There are already in press a second volume of Menéndez y Pelayo's book, Menéndez Pidal's longed-for 'Crónica general de España mandada escribir por Don Alfonso el Sabio,' Bonilla's 'Libros de Caballerías,' Cotarelo's 'Teatro del maestro Tirso de Molina,' Mir's 'Predicadores de los siglos XVI y XVII,' and an edition of Las Casas's 'Historia apologética de las Indias,' by Serrano. Among the volumes announced are 'Cantos populares españoles,' 'Obras selec-

tas de Ramón Lull,' Sigüenza's 'Historia de la orden de San Jerónimo,' and the 'Obras completas de D. Ramón de la Cruz.'

To all students of Spanish literature it is obvious that many lacunæ are to be filled up by the new collection, which, if the hopes of the editors are realized, will embrace no fewer than seventy-one volumes. Furthermore, it is to be noted that attention is not restricted to Castilian authors:

"As our Library," says the prospectus, "calls itself one of *Spanish Authors*, it will not only comprehend Castilian authors (including in the number, of course, those born in the Spanish-American republics and the numerous Portuguese who have written no less in our language than in their own), but, in accordance with the express and reiterated desire of the two illustrious founders, D. Buenaventura Carlos Aribau and D. Manuel Rivadeneyra, there will figure at the end of this national work several volumes of Catalan poets and prose writers of the Middle Ages, chronicles so admirable as those of Don Jaime I., Desclot, Muntaner, and the one so long ascribed to Don Pedro IV., encyclopædic and doctrinal works of Ramón Lull and of Eximenis, novels such as the 'Tirant lo Blanch,' and the compositions of poets like Ausias March, Jaime Roig, and Corella. These publications will be bi-lingual, . . . for the text and the Spanish translation will be printed juxtalinearly."

In conclusion it may be stated that the editors contemplate including in the scheme of the "Nueva Biblioteca" Spanish translations of Latin works written by Spaniards during the Middle Ages and during the humanistic period, and, with the help of competent Orientalists, the works of Arabic and Hebrew authors that were actually produced on the soil of Spain. For the press-work of the two volumes already issued the highest praise must be accorded to the publishers, Messrs. Bailly-Baillière é hijos of Madrid; the quality of their paper and of their typography is a source of delight.

Yours truly, J. D. M. FORD.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, May 6, 1906.

THE NOELDEKE FESTSCHRIFT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been asked to call the attention of libraries and of scholars to the publication of the 'Noeldeke Festschrift,' a publication in two volumes issued in commemoration of the seventieth birthday of the distinguished Professor Noeldeke of Strassburg, who is generally regarded as the world's leading Semitic scholar. On the occasion of his birthday his pupils and colleagues in all parts of the world united in paying him tribute by preparing articles of a scientific character for the 'Festschrift.' The two volumes contain contributions from eighty-five scholars, and it may fairly be said that the articles are commensurate with the reputations enjoyed by their authors.

The volumes are handsomely published, with a fine portrait of Professor Noeldeke and a bibliography of the distinguished scholar. The publisher (Alfred Töpelmann, Giessen) has undertaken this work as a labor of love and as a tribute of respect to Professor Noeldeke. It is not a commercial undertaking; and even if the entire edition is sold, the publisher, I am assured, will still be out of pocket.

Very truly yours,

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, May 4, 1906.

Notes.

'A History of Seventh Day Baptists in West Virginia,' now in course of publication by its author, Corliss Fitz Randolph of Newark, N. J., is more comprehensive than its title, as it takes account also of the churches at Woodbridgetown and Salemville, Penn., and the Shrewsbury Church in New Jersey. The volume will be illustrated, and will be rich in genealogical material.

The Oxford University Press will shortly publish 'The King's English,' "illustrating by living examples, with the name of a reputable authority attached to each, all blunders that observation shows to be common." There will be a very full index.

On the 14th of December, 1909, it will be five hundred years since the University of Leipzig was organized by the secession of several thousand German students from the University of Prague. Arrangements are being already made to celebrate this semi-millennium by the publication of a massive work on the history of the city and the University of Leipzig. Professors Kämmel, Hähnel, Koetzschke, and Wüstmann will prepare the different parts referring to the university and city, while Professor Witkowski furnishes a general survey of the whole intellectual life of this academic centre.

The "Caxton" thin-paper pocket Newnes-Scribner editions of the English classics, externally delightful to the eye, and, with their limp covers, to the hand, are continued with Byron's Poems in three classified volumes, and Addison's Essays. Akin in appearance, but smaller, is Keble's 'Christian Year.' Each has its etched frontispiece.

Bunyan's 'Life and Death of Mr. Badman, and The Holy War,' reprinted in each case with much scrupulosity from the first edition, swells the excellent series of "Cambridge English Classics" issued by the University (New York: Macmillan).

Betwixt Classical Schools and the Stadium, Athens now makes a fresh appeal to English-speaking tourists, and these may like to know of a little "practical guide," 'Athens and the Environs,' published by C. Eleutherodakis (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It has numerous illustrations, which, being half-tones, exact a glossy paper intolerable in a guide-book, and a folding map bounded by the Stadium on the south and the National Museum on the north—a divorce in space quite appropriate in our day. The text is in solid, very fine type, made less legible by being whimsically printed in red ink. *Per contra*, the English is evidently from the hand of one to whom the language is vernacular; but the publisher advertises his bookstore (not book*stall*, as one may see from the photograph) as the "oldest and largest book*shall* in the Orient"—a sin against our idiom in at least one particular.

Sigmund Krausz's 'Practical Automobile Dictionary' in English, French, and German (Frederick A. Stokes Co.) meets a growing and imperative need. It is, of course, almost wholly technical, with an eye to repairs, but *sergent de ville, mairie, procès-verbal, interrogation, interprète, avocat* and *dommages intérêts* are caution-signals against overspeeding and recklessness. The appendix contains frontier regulations for foreign automobile travel, a list of United States consulates in Europe, a table of cable rates from New York, with others of weights and measures, coins, etc.

From the press of T. W. Laurie, London, comes a little volume entitled 'Fishing for Pleasure and Catching It,' by the veteran "Amateur Angler," Mr. E. Marston. The book is quite varied in its contents, turning aside from the author's own angling experiences to extracts from the nature books of William J. Long, paraphrase of portions of the Song of Hiawatha, and other not very intimately related subjects. Mr. Marston can still tell an interesting story of a day out of doors when he tries, but the chief appeal of this volume must be to the readers of the series which have preceded it, beginning with the now rarely to be found 'Days in Dovedale,' which appeared in 1884.

'The Spoilers,' by Rex E. Beach (Harpers), is an attempted translation into fiction of the well-known Alaskan official rascalities to which the author has been applying the "muck-rake" in one of the magazines. Concerning the rascalities there is no question, and the title of the book is quite appropriate, since the appointments under which the Alaskan ring developed and did its dirty work were peculiarly of the spoils nature. In turning his material into the form of the novel, however, the writer has won no success other than that of maintaining a high sensational tension. "Primordial passions" (what a boon they have been to recent sensational novelists!) are seriously overworked, the comeliest of virtues seem almost of choice to keep the most questionable company, relief by the narrowest of margins makes connection with dire necessity in a proportion of cases beyond all human experience, and the capacity of the English language is sometimes put to sore straits to convey the strenuousness of the situation. Bret Harte could have fashioned two or three characteristic short stories of high value from parts of Mr. Beach's material, but the underlying struggle over a gold-claim is hardly adequate as the vertebral column of a serious novel. Nor was this later Alaskan corruption fundamentally as important as the crimes and blunders which at an earlier date fell so heavily upon the native population, as described in the *Atlantic* a few years ago by David Starr Jordan.

Budgett Meakin has published, through T. Fisher Unwin, an extensive compilation of information concerning model factories and villages and other attempts of intelligent employers of labor to further their own interests and the interests of their employees at the same time by establishing pleasant conditions of work. The greatest gain in such movements Mr. Meakin rightly feels to be the restoration of personal touch between employers and employed, which has been so largely sacrificed since the introduction of modern machinery and the consequent concentration of labor in large masses and generally at a distance from the residence of the employer. The practical success of these efforts, he thinks, depends on the preservation of a genuine spirit of fraternalism rather than paternalism. So far as is at all possible, the management of any institution for the benefit of the employed must

be left in their own hands; and if the institution can be of their own devising, the employer simply giving moral and financial support, so much the better. Mr. Meakin strongly supports the tendency to remove large manufacturing concerns out of crowded cities to situations where light, air, and pleasant surroundings are possible, and where the health and comfort of the laborer are, of course, supported by the possible saving in land values. The many scores of concrete illustrations cited, from Great Britain, the Continent, and especially the United States, indicate a more rapid quickening of conscience and commendable self-interest in such matters than most people have been aware of. The book is abundantly supplied with photographic illustrations, but they are too often of inferior quality. There is no good reason for the annoying division of the inadequate index into two parts.

That a third edition of Dubois's and Beauchamp's 'Hindu Manners, Customs and Ceremonies' (H. Frowde) has been called for within a few years is sufficient proof of the value of this record of personal experiences by one of the most trustworthy of students. Mr. Beauchamp's part has lain in editing and correcting the manuscripts (of which there are two versions) of Dubois. Since the original publication of the MS., prepared in 1806, there was no opportunity to secure the revised text except in French form, copies of which are extremely rare, till the first revised English text was published in 1897. The third edition of this revised text compresses the two volumes of the first edition into one little book of 700 pages, which compensates for inferior paper by its handiness. In other respects it is identical with the former editions.

The latest volume of the Columbia University "Indo-Iranian Series" is a 'Bibliography of the Sanskrit Drama,' by Montgomery Schuyler, jr., now secretary of legation and consul-general of this country to Siam. Parts of this work have already appeared in the *Journal* of the American Oriental Society. The ordinary reader will naturally feel more interest in the introductory "Sketch of the Sanskrit Drama" than in the lists of authors and titles of works which perforce make a bibliography; but to the Sanskrit student these lists, difficult to compile, will be of permanent use, and even to the student of drama in general it will be a great convenience to have at hand such references to the literature of the subject as are here given. Mr. Schuyler appears to have exhausted his subject as far as possible, which includes lists of manuscripts as well as of printed works.

Another school edition of Schiller's "Tell" has been added to the many already published, the editor being Dr. E. C. Roedder, assistant professor of German philology at the University of Wisconsin (American Book Co.). There are the usual paraphernalia of vocabulary, explanatory notes, and a good critical and historical introduction, but what is of special merit is the attempt to create for the student, by means of footnotes describing the dress and each separate act of the character then appearing and talking, a *Bühnebild*, or stage picture; the material being largely that which made Jautsch's stage edition unique. There is also a good bibliography not found in preceding American editions.

Students of ornithology who have been in the Philippines or who have cast an inquiring eye in that direction, will be interested to know of a new Philippine Government publication, entitled 'A Hand-List of the Birds of the Philippine Islands,' by McGregor and Worcester, which is Bulletin No. 36, Department of the Interior, Manila. It was prepared by R. C. McGregor, Philippine Government ornithologist, and revised by Prof. Dean C. Worcester, Secretary of the Interior, who himself secured his first knowledge of the Philippines as an ornithological explorer in 1887-1888 and in 1890-1893, in company with Dr. Frank S. Bourns. Worcester and Bourns's list of Philippine birds, which was republished by the Smithsonian Institution in 1898, showed 243 genera and 596 species. The new list is, of course, the most complete to date, the work of Mr. McGregor and of volunteer workers having produced many additions; it shows 284 genera and 691 species.

It is a pleasure to note at last one American periodical in the Philippines which is not an organ of truculent jingoism or an exponent of general cheapness. The American newspapers and weeklies of Manila have been of this sort or have had a very ephemeral existence. But the *Far Eastern Review*, published at Manila by an American and devoted to engineering, commerce, and finance in the Orient in general, is a monthly publication of more solid character. The January number, for instance, has as its leading illustrated article an excellent description of the construction of the Canton-Samshui branch of the Canton-Hankow Railway, an enterprise which is of great importance for the development of southern China. The recent construction of large public works in the Philippines, especially in Manila, appears to have given the occasion for the publication of such a periodical, whereas other American periodicals in the Philippines have mainly had their foundation in soldier-domination. The February number of the *Review* contains, besides some interesting news as to Philippine railway construction and illustrated material upon public improvements in Manila, a very enlightening contribution upon the already important and growing shipyards of Japan, and articles upon water-power electric plants in Mysore, India, and timber tramways in Madras. The Japanese, it seems, have taken over the English technical terms for shipbuilding as well as on board their steamships.

The *Indian Mirror* of March 10 contains reports of the meetings held in Calcutta by educated natives of India to hear the two Japanese scholars, Dr. Motoda, principal of the Formosan College in Tokio, and Mr. Harada of Kobe, an editor, on "The Progress of Japan." Other themes treated were "The Young Men of Japan" and "The Orient and the Occident." Both speakers were content to state facts; the former outlining the system of public education in Japan, showing the emphasis laid on industrial, technical, and professional training, and the latter portraying political development since 1853. Dr. Motoda was more pragmatic, and his colleague more historical, in his review. Mr. Harada, declining to state the problem in items of logic or inference, whether a pleasure or otherwise to Orientals, dwelt upon results without inquiring deeply into causes. He showed that, in old Japan, popular education, individual right, and religious liberty, which are the common ideas of modern civilization, "to say nothing of the manifold conveniences and improvements of material civilization," were unknown. Summing up statistically his country's progress, Harada states that "the grade of a civilization may be fairly tested by the position accorded to woman." In 1905, besides a woman's university and over 100 high schools for girls, 18,000 women were teachers in the common schools, while the occupations of clerks, physicians, editors, etc., are open to them. "As different as a moon from a tortoise" is the Japanese way of contrasting the old and the new condition of woman.

A new and interesting subject, the ancient commercial roads (*Handelsstrassen*) of Germany, is treated by F. Rauers of Bremen in number three of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. He throws much light on the inner history of those days, showing how, for instance, noblemen, priests, and pilgrims were allowed free passage, but a toll was required from all others; how the building of new roads and the use of cross or by-roads was prohibited by the Government and the landowners. The rise and fall of great cities is noticed. Nuremberg reached the height of its prosperity at the close of the old and the beginning of the new period, and then Leipzig took its place. Till the Spanish conquest of the Netherlands, first Bruges, then Antwerp, were the great world ports, to be replaced by Hamburg and Bremen. A large map in color shows the different kinds of roads in the first part of the sixteenth century; even those on which traffic was forbidden are designated. Professor Hess gives the results of numerous observations on the winter flow of glacier brooks, and Dr. Friederichsen contributes a long note upon the additions to our knowledge of the morphology of the Tian-shan Mountains through the researches of Prof. W. M. Davis and Ellsworth Huntington.

The financial committee of the Danish Folkething has accepted the proposal of the Minister for Public Defences to give the sum of 13,000 kroner towards the proposed Mylius Erichsen polar expedition along Northeastern Greenland. The total expense of the expedition is calculated at 260,000 kroner, half of which sum has been contributed by private persons. The expedition starts from Copenhagen at the end of June, and expects to return by the fall of 1908, while taking such a route that no news from it can be expected before its return. In addition to the Danish participants, a German, Dr. A. Wegener, as physicist and meteorologist, and the Russian Baron von Fircke, as geologist, will accompany the expedition.

From Brussels news comes that 500,000 francs has been subscribed for a Belgian expedition to the South Pole to start in 1907 and to explore the Pacific side of the Antarctic regions, returning in 1908. A preliminary congress of experienced polar investigators of all nations is to be held in Brussels in May to advise in the matter.

Lord Cromer's annual report on Egypt and the Sudan, just published, is one of the most valuable and suggestive documents issued by any Government. While

the economic condition of Egypt is highly favorable, he calls attention to the danger of depending too exclusively on one crop, cotton, and recommends an increase in the cultivation of sugar and the introduction of cereal crops. The largest space is devoted to the question of proposed modification of the Capitulations, of which we have already spoken. Of especial interest at this time is Lord Cromer's description of the primitive social conditions which prevail in the Sinaitic peninsula, and the means which have been taken to improve them. In treating of the Sudan, he dwells at some length upon the great advantage which it has over Egypt in its "freedom from the complicated network of international institutions in which the Egyptian administration was, and to a great extent still is, entangled." The great wants are labor and capital, and the important question is what public works shall be undertaken. Lord Cromer contends that the construction of railways should precede that of irrigation works, and says that surveys are now being made of lines to connect Khartum with El-Obeid on the west and Kassala on the east of the Nile. He recommends, besides, the building of a railway up the Blue Nile, as an essential preliminary to the construction of any large irrigation works intended to fertilize the extensive tract of country known as the Ghezireh, lying between the Blue and White Niles.

The practical problems which the contact with Western civilization forces upon the pious Moslem for solution to-day are numerous and interesting. One of the ulemas or teachers of the University of Al-Azhar at Cairo, the leading Mohammedan university, has just published two pamphlets on the subject of phonographs and insurance, and their relations to the Sacred Law of Islam. He declares that there is nothing in Islamic doctrine to forbid Moslems to listen to the phonograph, and that, if sentences of the Koran are suitably intoned from the instrument, the listener may be justly considered to be performing an act of worship. Fire and life insurance, on the other hand, are condemned by the Sheikh as a gambling transaction, contrary in spirit to the teaching of the Koran.

We are obliged to a correspondent who reminds us that, in our recent account of the new Imperial Library building at Tokio, we inadvertently substituted *feet* for *metres* in stating dimensions.

—By insisting that extracts from contemporary material should tell the story of his 'Declaration of Independence' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), Mr. John H. Hazelton has produced an elaborate work for reference rather than for reading. It may be taken as embodying the final study of the Declaration as a document. Every known detail concerning its framing, signing, and publication has been carefully gathered. The author has resorted to the originals of the letters, diaries, drafts, and memoranda wherever found, and depended upon printed sources only where the original manuscript could not be located. The amount of labor put into the compilation and collation of authorities is notable, and the results seem sometimes hardly worth the trouble involved. The text of seven forms or versions of the Declaration are collated, and the wealth of notes explain every shade of difference among them, every incident connected with the attendance and opinions of the members of the Continental Congress. The eleven facsimile reproductions are well chosen and are of real value. With a lawyer's training Mr. Hazelton examines the contradictions of those who sought to describe the events before and after the Declaration, and it is not strange that the credibility of some should be challenged. Even Jefferson, as much interested as any man could be in giving a true relation, does not stand the test; while McKean and others, writing as they did long after the event, are shown to be weak authorities in matters in which they had taken an active part. Certainly, Mr. Hazelton has produced an encyclopædic work on this one state paper.

—Unfortunately, his methods have serious defects. It is not enough to string together a large number of extracts from contemporary documents. Unless they are well digested, only a partial picture, confused by over detail, can be gained. For example, the debates in Parliament after the Declaration reached England are summarized by extracts; but the effect produced on the Continent of Europe is dismissed in a few sentences from Bancroft. Nor does Mr. Hazelton weigh his authorities. The rhetorical phrases put in the mouth of Henry by Wirt are quite as important to him as the known writings of Washington or Jefferson. An anonymous communication to a newspaper receives as great consideration as a contemporary official document. No attempt is made to estimate the numbers in each colony in favor of independence, and the Loyalist side of the question receives scant notice. In the great mass of quotation the reader finds it difficult to retain the thread of the story, and indeed must find that thread by his own efforts, for the system of notes and cross-references (which, with the appendix, comprise one-half of this bulky volume) is as original as it is confusing. It is almost impossible to refer from the notes of one chapter to those of another, and the great repetition of like references could easily have been avoided. Clearness would have been gained by giving one class of notes with the text of the chapter, relegating to the appendix special quotations or discussions. Notwithstanding the author's care, misprints may be found, and curiously careless references to printed books. Yet, in spite of its drawbacks, the volume cannot but be highly useful to the student of sources. The publishers have done their part well.

—William Morris once declared to a friend that Mary Stuart was the greatest bore in history, and expressed wonder at the interest taken by Swinburne in such a theme. Carlyle had the same opinion about "Junius," and doubtless all of us are plunged into a state of profound ennui by the mention of some too famous name. Certain it is that a careful analysis of the historical periodicals which deal with general subjects rather than particular periods or movements, will show more articles to the credit of Mary Stuart than to the credit or debit of any other personage. This statement, which we make after giving special attention to the matter, is here called forth by Mr. T. F. Henderson's 'Mary Queen of Scots, her Environment and Tragedy' (Scribners). The object of the work—and an object pursued through two volumes—is to deal "in a somewhat detailed and critical fashion with the main episodes of her career." This does not mean that the book becomes a series of technical studies rather than a genuine biography. It is a sketch of the Queen's life first, and a commentary upon the moot points of Marian literature in the second place only. Mr. Henderson prides himself upon his freedom from ecclesiastical prepossessions, and writes neither to praise nor blame. How complete is his detachment from theological partisanship the narrative of Mary's execution proves. "Perfectly faithful to her supposed religious convictions and ambitions she had not been; but, whatever the nature of the value she set on the form of religion with which her life had been so peculiarly associated, she had had sufficient cause to be now, at the end of it, an enemy to Protestantism. . . . She must on the whole be ranked amongst the countless victims that throughout the ages have been immolated on the devouring altar of Christian intolerance. But the causes that determined her immolation were complex and manifold." With regard to the details of Darnley's murder, Mr. Henderson is not disposed to differ from the results arrived at by Mr. Lang, and in the Queen's fatal passion for Bothwell he sees the cause of her willingness to take any and every risk. From a controversial standpoint (and there remains little but controversy in the life of Mary Stuart), the most entertaining part of this work is its criticism, in a long appendix, of Mr. Lang's theory regarding the Casket Letters. With great skill and every show of candor, Mr. Lang has argued against the authenticity of the letters. Mr. Henderson, with full recognition of the cleverness displayed, regards the thesis of forgery to be impossible from beginning to end. His arguments, covering thirty-five pages, we are unable to rehearse. Like the literature of the Gunpowder Plot and the Popish Plot, the dialectics of this mystery proceed from a body of evidence which is not only conflicting, but vitiated by the spirit of special pleading. The chief thing for the reader of the present biography is that Mr. Henderson, while viewing the letters as genuine, is still able to admire the more heroic elements in the Queen's character. His book not only claims to be free from prepossessions, but succeeds much better than most works on Mary Stuart in preserving the mood of objectivity. The illustrations are numerous and excellent.

—The discussion of the plan for the Union Catalogue continues in the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, the February number containing not less than three contributions on the subject. Dr. C. W. Berghoeffer outlines a plan for the organization of the undertaking, involving a comparison of the Berlin title-entries by four of the largest libraries, Strassburg, Leipzig, Munich, and Göttingen, before the entries are printed for distribution in proof among the rest; further, the printing of both card and book catalogues, and the preparation of a classed catalogue in book form. Prof. B. Bess points out that a com-

plete list of all the books in the coöperating libraries is not needed; that the Union Catalogue is an undertaking in the interest of scholarship, and that consequently some limitations must be put on the work. Dr. Schwenke's article in the March number, on the appropriations for cataloguing purposes in German libraries, is not directly connected with the present discussion, though it touches on points related to it, in showing that the appropriations for cataloguing in most libraries are entirely inadequate. In the April number Dr. O. Glausing presents an adverse criticism of the whole plan, which he regards as injurious to the individuality of the several libraries, and tending to destroy the interest of library workers in "their" institutions. Incidentally he attacks what he regards as a tendency to enhance the importance of technique at the cost of scholarship, and deplores the discontinuance of the gatherings of librarians in connection with the "Philologentag." Dr. Schwenke, in a short rejoinder, points out that one of the reasons for this was that so many librarians were specialists in other branches of learning than philology, and felt more or less out of place there; and the opposing tendencies in the library world to-day are, he rightly says, not characterized by the term technique vs. scholarship, but by that of isolation vs. coöperation.

—In the same number Dr. A. Keysser proposes that, in addition to the Union Catalogue, a Guide to German Libraries be prepared, showing, together with other pieces of information about the libraries, the present locations of the many collections formerly belonging to monasteries, bishoprics, or other institutions, as well as to individual collectors and scholars, but which in course of time have been absorbed by other libraries. Information as to many of these may be found in Schwenke's 'Addressbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken,' but the smaller collections are not mentioned there, and the book is now thirteen years old. The proposed Guide should also tell of the literary specialties of the various libraries, so that students may be able to choose the one most likely to be of aid to them in their investigations. It would, besides, serve the libraries themselves by crystallizing, so to speak, their efforts at specialization. Dr. Keysser's proposal is worth considering in this country, too. It is fourteen years since Messrs. W. C. Lane and C. K. Bolton published their 'Notes on Special Collections in American Libraries.' We understand that a new edition of this work is among the publications contemplated by the Bibliographical Society of America. The American Library Association appointed some years ago a committee to prepare a 'Handbook of American Libraries,' and at the Magnolia meeting of the Association in 1902, the committee reported that the Handbook would be printed by the end of that year; but the following year, at the Niagara Falls meeting, the committee was discharged, at its own request, without having published anything.

GREENE'S PLAYS.

The Plays and Poems of Robert Greene. Edited, with Introductions and Notes, by J. Churton Collins, Litt.D. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

The Delegates of the Clarendon Press were late in realizing their responsibilities with regard to the Modern English classics, their efforts in this direction for many years being limited almost entirely to the publication of select school editions. They have evidently begun now in earnest, however, to make good past deficiencies, and in no department of literature are their labors likely to be crowned with more cordial blessings than in that of our old dramatists. The admirable editions of Kyd and Lyly which they have lately presented to the world are among the most highly prized volumes that have been added of recent years to the shelves of students of English literature, and the new edition of the 'Plays and Poems of Robert Greene,' under the editorship of Mr. Churton Collins, will worthily find a place by the side of these achievements. It is true that Mr. Collins, in the preparation of it, has not come upon any new material relating to the life of his author of such startling interest as that which rewarded the research of Mr. Boas in the case of Kyd. Nor was his task one of such magnitude as that which Mr. Bond has performed with such credit to himself in his edition of Lyly. On the other hand, he does not yield to either of these editors in mastery of his subject, in the care which he has bestowed on his text (of the plays, at least), or in the value of his critical apparatus. This last feature of the edition, in fulness and accuracy, is, as it should be, up to the level which has long been required in the case of the Greek and Latin classics, and, we might add also, in the case of writers of the mediæval period. The notes especially are replete with learning. If we now proceed to criticise some of the views which Mr. Collins advances in his general and special introductions to the plays, we do not mean in so doing to disparage the excellence of this edition, which we believe will be received with grateful recognition by all students of the English drama.

One of the most interesting points, we think, which Mr. Collins makes is in regard to the limits of Greene's dramatic activity. This did not begin, according to the editor before the first part of 1591, and, lasting until his death in the following year, covered not quite two years. If this view—which differs from that of all previous writers on the subject—is correct, it may be accepted as practically certain that we possess the whole (unassisted) dramatic production of Greene—namely, "Alphonsus," "Orlando Furioso," "Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay," and "The Scottish History of James the Fourth." Of the two remaining plays included in this edition, Greene composed "A Looking-Glass for London and England" in collaboration with Thomas Lodge, and the authorship of "The Pinner of Wakefield" is doubtful. Our editor justly rejects "Selimus" entirely from the canon of Greene's works, and the plays which Shakspere recast under the name of "The Second and Third Parts of Henry VI." he very naturally does not reproduce, although inclined to believe that Greene had a hand in them. Mr. Collins infers the above limits of date for Greene's activity as a dramatist from the silence on this subject of the author—usually communicative enough in everything that related to himself—and also of his friend Nash down to 1591. We are perhaps not at liberty to draw inferences about Greene's life from his romances, although they are so largely autobiographical, else we might point out that the hero of 'Francesco's Fortunes' (1590), being in circumstances like those of Greene, ashamed to face his wife, remained in London and supported himself by writing plays. In any event, however, there are passages in pamphlets of both Greene and Nash of later date than 1591 which, as it seems to us, point to a different conclusion in regard to this matter. For instance, take the passage in the posthumous 'Repentance,' where Greene says: "After I had continued some short time and driven myself out of credit with sundry of my friends, I became an author of plays and a penner of love pamphlets, so that I soon grew famous in that quality that who for that trade grown so ordinary about London as Robin Greene?" This passage, from its context, would seem to refer to a time shortly after Greene's leaving the University for good. Still further, in view of Nash's statement in his 'Strange News' concerning Greene, that "he was the chiefe agent for the companie, for he writ more than four other," it is hard to conceive that his production was limited to something less than the last two years of his life and the five plays we possess. Indeed, when citing this last passage, a doubt evidently comes over Mr. Collins himself in regard to the tenability of the opinion which he has asserted with so much emphasis elsewhere, and he makes the concession that "it is possible that his dramatic activity extended over at least four years."

There is another matter of more importance than the above, involving, among other things, a question of date also, in which we find ourselves taking issue with Mr. Collins—the question, we mean, of the supposed influence of Greene on Shakspere. "It seems to me, indeed," says Mr. Collins in winding up his comments on this subject, "that Shakspere owes as much in romantic comedy to Greene as he owed to Marlowe in history and tragedy." Now, even Marlowe's influence on Shakspere, unmistakable as it is, has been, in our opinion, often greatly exaggerated, except in those matters where the example of the earlier writer determined the development of the Elizabethan drama generally. But what specific instance of the influence of plays written by Greene on plays written by Shakspere can be cited that will at all correspond to the influence of "Edward II." on "Richard II.," or of the method of characterization in "Tamburlaine" on that in "Richard III."? Mr. Collins notes especially the similarity in versification and diction between Greene's "medleys" and the earlier comedies of Shakspere. The question of diction is too elusive and subjective a matter to count for much here—at least as long as no detailed investigation of the problem has been made. We confess that, for our own part, we have not been struck with this similarity; and surely the resemblance in versification does not extend beyond peculiarities which are common to all blank verse in the earlier Elizabethan drama—namely, monotony of structure and the tendency to make

logical and rhythmical pauses coincide. Mr. Collins says still further on this subject: "We open Greene's comedies and we are in the world of Shakspere; we are with the sisters of *Olivia* and *Imogen*, with the brethren of *Touchstone* and *Florizel*, in the homes of *Phoebe* and *Perdita*. We breathe the same atmosphere, we listen to the same language." And in the paragraph that follows: "It was Greene who first brought comedy into contact with poetry, into contact with romance. He took it out into the woods and the fields and gave it all the charm of the idyll; he filled it with incident and adventure, and gave it all the interest of the Novel." Now, there is an undeniable freshness and charm about the country scenes in the best of Greene's plays which is well expressed in the words of Mr. Collins last quoted, but is the atmosphere of "As You Like It" or "Winter's Tale," two of the plays referred to above, really due in any measure, however remote, to the influence of Greene's dramas? Is it not rather the natural result of Shakspere's magic genius working on the pastoral material which he found embodied in Lodge's "Rosalynde" and Greene's "Pandosto"?

In making up our judgment on this question of Greene's relation to Shakspere, it is necessary, besides, to pay heed to the matter of dates. There are only two of Greene's (extant) plays—namely, "Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay" and "The Scottish History of James the Fourth"—which it is possible to conceive of as influencing Shakspere's romantic comedies. Now the earlier of these two is assigned by Mr. Collins himself to the "end of 1591, or the beginning of 1592." But by this time Shakspere had certainly produced "Love's Labor's Lost" (to say nothing of "The Comedy of Errors"), and it is an open question whether he had not already composed also "The Two Gentlemen of Verona." The fact that Greene's dramas are more archaic and cruder in workmanship does not prove anything, for under any supposition, where the dates run so close together as in the case of the two sets of plays we are here discussing, this must have been due practically altogether to Greene's inferiority in genius, and accordingly Shakspere's superior constructive power cannot be ascribed to the improvement which naturally comes with time in the development of any literary *genre*. To be sure, these early plays of Shakspere's are not exactly in the style of "As You Like It" or "Winter's Tale," but we may safely say that all that was necessary for the birth of romantic comedy, as illustrated by these last-named plays, was for the author of "Love's Labor's Lost" to light on the Elizabethan pastoral romances, and it is not at all necessary to call in a theory of extraneous influence. As far as the charm of country life is concerned, the germs of that are surely not absent from "Love's Labor's Lost," to say nothing of "The Two Gentlemen of Verona," and we should not forget besides that, long before this, in all probability, Shakspere had already composed his "Venus and Adonis." In conclusion, on this subject of the relations of Greene and Shakspere, is it not too much to say that the "Midsummer Night's Dream" "only gave more articulate expression to what found stammering and partial expression in the interlude portions" of "The Scottish History of James the Fourth"? The idea of introducing *Oberon* into this play was not improbably derived from Greene, but surely it is rather Lord Berners's 'Huon of Bordeaux' (or possibly some early dramatization of that romance) which gave Shakspere the main conception of his character of the fairy-king, who (unlike *Oberon* in Greene's drama), as a beneficent *deus ex machina*, takes as active a part in the troubles of the "human mortals" as the corresponding character in the Old French romance.

It is perhaps too much to expect that in a work issued under the auspices of the University of Oxford the spelling of the original editions of these plays should be modernized. We cannot but feel, however, that the retention of such spellings as "heel" for "he'll," or "shoes" for "shows"—simply to choose examples at random—are likely to detract from the pleasure of the reader without serving any good purpose, save, perhaps, in the case of an occasional student of Elizabethan pronunciation and orthography. We believe that there are few students of literature (as distinguished from pronunciation) who will not congratulate themselves that the general editor of the Variorum Beaumont and Fletcher, now appearing, has had the courage boldly to modernize the text in this matter of spelling. Quite as objectionable, it seems to us, is the general tendency of the times, which Mr. Collins follows here, to reproduce typographical peculiarities of sixteenth and seventeenth-century texts in editing works of these periods. We refer particularly to the italicization of proper names. Mr. Collins, for instance, reproduces the name of the River Volga just as he finds it in the original quarto, not only italicized, but with a small initial letter. Of the last point we may even remark that it is most likely merely a printer's error (in the quarto). In a world full of irreverence, why, we may ask, should printer's errors be regarded as especially sacred?

In conclusion, we would call attention to an interesting feature of Mr. Collins's edition of Greene's plays—namely, a more accurate reproduction of the Alleyn MS. (now at Dulwich College) of Greene's "Orlando Furioso" than has hitherto been printed. This manuscript (which is fragmentary in its present state) is evidently the very copy from which the famous actor Alleyn, who took the leading rôle in the play, learned his part. Owing to the purpose for which it was intended, the manuscript simply contains the speeches which the actor was to deliver in the character of *Orlando*, together with the cues to these speeches. As Mr. Collins remarks, this is "not merely the only important manuscript we have belonging to so early a period of the Elizabethan drama, but, when we compare it with the text of the Quarto, we see either how greatly the stage copies were altered when a play was printed, or how greatly the printed copies must have varied from the stage copies, and presumably, therefore, from the author's manuscript."

A FINLANDER ON REVOLUTIONARY RUSSIA.

The Russian Revolutionary Movement. By Konni Zilliacus. Translated by the authority and at the request of the Author. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Amid the flood of portentous volumes which has poured from the world's presses during the past two years on the topic of Russia's internal politics and condition, together with their origins and future, this work merits attention chiefly because it emanates from a native of Finland. Finlanders have enjoyed, for many years, numerous privileges and immunities above the native subjects of the Tsar, and have thriven upon them, in worldly goods and in culture, with due appreciation of their rights and advantages, until the unwise usurpation of chartered prerogatives a few years ago (now, happily, abandoned) aroused them to hostility. Precisely because of that hostility Mr. Zilliacus's attempt to set forth the whole case judicially is of value, in that it demonstrates the admirable temper of the people of whom, we have a right to assume, he is an average example. Far from agreeing with those reviewers (mentioned by him) who have expressed doubts as to his impartiality, we heartily assent to his declaration that "no partiality has wittingly dictated the opinions expressed." Indeed, the very calmness and cautious semi-aloofness of his manner constitute one of the most convincing evidences as to his personal character, his attitude, and the facts. He frankly "pleads guilty to partiality to the fighters against autocratic despotism"; but that partiality (which the mere existence of the book logically presupposes) is not allowed to exceed legitimate bounds.

The difficulty is, that, after Prof. Paul Miliukoff's invaluable work, 'Russia and Its Crisis,' the foreigner or semi-foreigner is, practically, driven from the field. But this does not imply that Zilliacus's serious effort to state the problem and its solution possesses no value or deserves to be dismised with a few indifferent words. Those who know not Miliukoff may chance upon Zilliacus and desire to learn to what degree he has succeeded in his task. First of all it must be stated that the author's conversion to the revolutionary cause was not effected by the recent injustice of Russia toward Finland; he mentions that he was one of the contributors to a revolutionary journal established in 1887, which did not enjoy a long life because it was printed in Switzerland, too far from its editorial base in St. Petersburg. It advocated "moderate political reform," he says, although Vera Sassulitch and other extreme revolutionaries were also among the contributors. When, however, the crisis became acute under Nicholas II., and the Russian revolutionaries were regarded in Finland as "criminals, or at best as utopians of a dangerous kind," the author prepared the present volume as a "part of the work of enlightenment" for his fellow-countrymen. It is precisely this long connection with revolutionaries, coupled with his remark that "no statements of facts have been made without as far as possible having been checked as to correctness by reference to other than revolutionary sources of information," which evokes sur-

prise at many points, as will presently appear.

Our author starts out with the assumption that "the seed of the social evolution in Russia which in our day has brought Tsardom to the verge of revolution, must be considered as having been sown by none other than Tsar Peter the Reformer, or the Great, as he is styled." That is a good start, regarded from the spectacular point of view. As a matter of fact, Peter only accentuated and vigorously accelerated the (r)evolutionary movement initiated by his father, who was, in turn, the heir in that respect of former Tsars; just as the rulers of other lands do their share in (r)evolution initiated by their predecessors in a line whereof one individual always receives the credit and thanks, in many cases for the whole movement, no doubt because of personal attributes or the accidents of history. However, Mr. Zilliacus makes his point clearly, that "the first revolutionary outbreak," at the accession of Nicholas I. (known as the plot of the "Decembrists"), bore a direct relation to the spirit evoked by Peter I., and ably maintained by Catherine II., who remained absolute autocrats, equally with the first Nicholas, despite the reforms they introduced in certain directions. Under the chapters respectively designated "The Era of Reform," "The Revolutionary Movement," and "The Terror," we obtain a compact account of the three periods of Alexander II.'s reign. In the last-named chapter a just observation is made which, although indispensable, is generally omitted in discussing the reluctance of peasants and workingmen to yield to the revolutionary propaganda. Incidentally, it explains present conditions, in some sections of the country, during these troublous times, while it also illustrates the change which has come over certain classes since the epoch directly in question.

"Workmen and peasants were well alive to the fact that their existence and surroundings were wretched, and that thorough-going changes must be effected. A practical programme of reform, the meaning of which they could grasp at once, would have secured their whole-hearted support; but the vast majority of them could not go into raptures over principles and theories. If the authorities had understood what a poor chance the propaganda, urged with so much enthusiasm but also with such limited common sense, possessed of creating a really genuine popular movement, the propagandists might have been left undisturbed to realize for themselves how little their methods were calculated to achieve any result. This would undoubtedly have been much more judicious from the political, not to mention the humane, point of view."

That the revolutionaries of that epoch did eventually attain to such realization was confessed to the writer of this review by Stepniak, who narrated his personal experience among the peasants in that line. From Stepniak, also, the writer heard the story of how he assassinated Mesentseff, chief of the Third Section, and hence is able to correct a small detail in our author's account of that notorious affair. It took place not on the Nevsky Prospect (as here stated), but on a parallel street, the Grand Italian, at nine o'clock in the morning. The difference is more important than may appear, at first sight, to the non-expert; it aggravates the daring of the assassin in a degree, precisely as the transference of the scene for such a crime from Irving Place to Broadway would constitute an aggravation in New York.

For example, the extremely well-known ex-Procurator of the Holy Synod, Constantine Petrovitch Pobiedonostzeff, is called "Paul." The title of "Prince" is accorded to Constantine Aksakoff, in the same breath which calls his brother (rightly) plain "Ivan." There are only three Metropolitans in Russia; yet Zilliacus appears to think there are five, divorcing the double titles of two, St. Petersburg-Novgorod and Moscow-Kolomna, and thus multiplying their possessors and increasing the size of the Holy Synod, which he professes to state accurately. A different sort of multiplication and confusion arises from lack of uniformity of spelling, such as Garikoff and Harikoff (Kharkoff); Gomel and Homel (both cases involving a question of phonetics as well as of orthography); Balmascheff, Belmatcheff, and Belmatscheff; "the poet, Maxim Gorki"—Gorki being a prose writer of poetic temperament, not a poet; the statement that the Countess Stroganoff was a relative of the Imperial family. Other puzzling errors may be typographical or emanate from the author; Schian for Shisn (or Zhizn), and Mir Coschi for Mir Bozhi; Tifomiroff for Tikhomiroff; Miliuvoff for Miliukoff; Diniaburg for Dunaburg; Ulfa for Ufa; Gorevikin for Goremikin—all names of well-known persons and places; *dvornikos*, an utterly un-Russian form, for *dvorniki*—to which the explanatory footnote is misleading, as these yard-porters neither are nor can be "grooms." To two quotations from other authors, which Zilliacus uses without comment or objection, apparently with full approval, we are indebted for a grave misrepresentation of the truth and what is, we trust, a comical misstatement. Speaking of the Stundists (who, as they originated not earlier than 1860, can hardly have been "the most severely persecuted during the last two centuries of the many religious sects"), he states, on the authority of the *Christian World*, that the pictures of the saints hung on Russian walls are called "God" by the people, who burn sacred oil before them. The oil is not "sacred" and the word mistaken for "God" (bog) is *bozhnitza*, indicating the "image-case" (with its contents, of course), derived from the adjective *bozhiy*, pertaining to God, and meaning simply that the saints whose pictures are referred to are connected with God—a proposition which even enthusiastic "Protestants" would hardly deny to saints! The comical quotations deal with the habits of the Molokani, another sect. "They have no churches; a house, an open yard, or, better still, a field, serves the believers as *sleeping*-places" (the italics are ours)!

The enumeration of "Ukrania" (it should be "Ukraina"), Ruthenia, and Little Russia as separate nationalities belonging to the Empire is a gross error of statement on the part of the author, who, strangely enough, in the same paragraph, as well as in a preceding chapter, when discussing the prohibition of the Little Russian language and the "war of the Government against the Little Russian nationality," appears to be fully cognizant of the fact that, for all practical purposes, the three designations are identical. What he is evidently ignorant of is, that the restrictions on the Little Russian language (or, more properly speaking, dialect) were resorted to as a means of preventing political agitation along factious lines, tending towards disruption dangerous to the peace of the Empire and of Europe, wherein purely literary and innocent poetry and prose played a remarkable part, and were accordingly placed under the ban as premeditatedly seditious pamphlets would have been elsewhere. Inextricably involved with this far-reaching question of the Ukraine is that of federation, to which the author refers, but without fully comprehending its scope.

A misconception of rather serious nature causes the author to state that Jews (because many were engaged in smuggling), "were forbidden to live at a greater distance than fifty versts from the frontier," and were, consequently, "driven indiscriminately to the town nearest to the fifty-verst limit"; Berditsheff being specifically mentioned as an instance, in connection with the terrible over-crowding thus entailed. The fact is, that the law prohibited their residence at a distance of *less* than fifty versts from the frontier, as is logically apparent, even to those ignorant of the case in hand; and Berditsheff, which is 150 versts from the frontier, thus cited in confirmation, manifestly furnishes a direct contradiction of the assertion in the beginning of the paragraph above quoted. A somewhat similar contradiction is involved in the statement of the laws, old and new, as to the baptism of Jews.

"Formerly," says the author, "the Jews had always enjoyed, so soon as they were baptised, the same civil and political rights as orthodox Russian subjects; but in the year 1890 a ukase was promulgated providing that not the baptised, but only their grandchildren, descendants in the second generation, should have the full rights of citizenship. The result of baptism was merely to allow the baptised, but not his family, the right to choose his domicile in the Empire. This system of Pobiedonostseff therefore proved distinctly that he did not want to encourage the conversion of the Jews to the orthodox faith. With regard to them, the motive already suggested for the religious persecution under Alexander III., the attainment of homogeneity in the Empire by the incorporation of Dissenters with the orthodox Church, played no part."

It is refreshing to find Mr. Pobiesdonostzeff, the much-assailed, treated with fairness; and in a previous sentence of the paragraph the Tsar is coupled with him in a like statement. But it must be remembered that Alexander III. was still on the throne in 1890; so the "facts" are obviously self-contradictory. The ukase referred to, it may be said in passing, was a move in the right direction. No civil and political rights should ever have been granted as the result of "conversion" and baptism, which are naturally, under the circumstances, in the great majority of cases, merely a matter of form, as is frankly admitted by all parties concerned, when not speaking officially. The whole question should be readjusted on a radically different basis, with religion totally eliminated from consideration.

The author would appear to have visited Russia occasionally; but he cannot have been familiar with St. Petersburg, although so near his native land, judging from his repetition of the worn-out legend that Alexander III. "lived as a prisoner in his castle at Gatchina, coming very seldom to the capital, and then always so unexpectedly that no preparation could be made to waylay and slay him on any of his flying

visits"; and that "during the last years of his reign, Alexander did not reside in the Winter Palace." He never lived in the Winter Palace (because of the painful associations connected with his father's death there), using it only for state ceremonials and court festivities, but, during his frequent stays in the town, resided in the modest Anitchkoff Palace, whence he drove out daily like a private person. When in residence at Gatchina (like any private citizen of any land who is fond of the country), or at Peterhoff during the hot season, his movements and trips to town were either announced beforehand in the morning papers, or could be calculated with absolute accuracy by every person acquainted with the Court calendar (or the Church calendar) and the most ordinary customs of the land, as the assemblage of vast throngs to greet him proved in countless instances.

One of the interesting features of the book is the quotation, in full, of the letter sent to Alexander II. immediately after his accession to the throne, by the terrorists who had assassinated his father. The demands and predictions therein contained are worthy of attention in view of recent happenings. Zilliacus, with commendable justice, recognizes the impossibility of compliance with the demands, the impracticability and imprudence of this "ultimatum" of the executive committee issued at such an inopportune moment, and admits that it indubitably contributed to the postponement by the Tsar of the definite ratification of Loris Melikoff's liberal proposals; apprehension concerning the ambitions of the Grand Duke Vladimir—and of the Grand Duchess, he might have added—also and rightly playing an important part. It must be conceded that more justice is done to Alexander II.'s character and aims than is the case in most books which deal with his reign; and the author says, in discussing the condition of affairs at that epoch, concerning that Emperor's biographers: "They have been unable to see that the apparently unrestricted autocratic power of the Tsar can, so far as he himself exercises it, be hardly called a power." Alexander III.'s widow, the Dowager Empress, who has been so widely and violently attacked as a bitter reactionary, he assigns to the reform and liberal party, with accompanying facts to support his view.

The picture which he presents of rural self-government is not encouraging to the concession of complete suffrage in national affairs; in point of fact, it reads like a chapter from the municipal history of certain great cities in the United States. The lack of proper revision may be responsible for certain irreconcilable statements, like that concerning the Dukhobortzy, whose numbers are given as four hundred thousand and four thousand (the latter being nearly correct) in the same paragraph. The author is mistaken in asserting that Count L. N. Tolstoy was excommunicated because of his attacks upon the Government. The excommunication arose from the same cause which has brought about excommunication from various sects in the United States within the last few years—attacks upon the tenets of the church of which he was a member, and the repeated announcement and propaganda of beliefs inconsistent with such membership, as the great writer himself was the first to recognize and proclaim. As to the expediency of the Holy Synod's action in that case, opinions varied very widely in Russia among the most zealous adherents of the Church, as well as among official classes, and it constitutes a separate problem. In summing up as to the chances for a revolution, our author admits that the masses of the people are "only to a very slight extent revolutionary in politics," and that the only way to interest them is by working skilfully on their chronic need and desire for more land.

With the exception of occasional slips, very few in number, the translation is entirely adequate.

BOOKS FOR MUSIC LOVERS.

Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Edited by Fuller Maitland. Macmillan.

The Oxford History of Music. Vol. II.: Polyphonic Period, Part II., by H. E. Wooldridge. Vol. VI., The Romantic Period, by Edward Dannreuther. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York; H. Frowde.

A Complete History of Music. By W. J. Baltzell and Others. Theodore Presser.

Music Dictionary. By Louis C. Elson. Oliver Ditson Co.

The second volume of the new edition of 'Grove' (as musicians, for short, call the most important dictionary of music and musicians in the English language) is, like the first, a great improvement on the original issue. In that issue the year 1450 was given as the point of departure. In the new version an elaborate article on Greek music calls attention to the fact that the field is now more fully covered. Japanese music receives attention, although, oddly enough, Chinese music was ignored in the preceding volume. Some of the leading articles, like Grove's on Handel, Pohl's on Haydn, Parry's on Harmony and its evolution, were so thoroughly admirable that little or no improvement was to be expected in the new edition. An elaborate bibliography of two columns has been added to Irish music. Gymnastics is a new head, under which pianists will find a discussion of the problem of training the hands by mechanical means. In place of Rockstro's far from up-to-date article on Orchestration, we have here a much better treatment of the subject by Corder, under Instrumentation, although this also contains questionable statements, especially regarding the use of trombones by Beethoven and Schubert and the "progress" in the art shown by a comparison of Weingartner's arrangement of Weber's "Invitation to the Waltz" with Berlioz's. The individual instruments are also more satisfactorily treated. The number of pages devoted to Liszt is doubled, and that many-sided man's achievements are discussed with intelligence and freedom from bias—an encouraging circumstance, for England has been the last country to appreciate Liszt. Of special value, also, is the complete classified list of this composer's works. "Libraries and Collections of Music" is an important new head, to which no fewer than 59 columns are devoted.

Under the head of individual musicians the bibliographic references are sometimes inadequate. American books, especially, are ignored. Indeed, American composers and writers on music are not by any means treated as fully as one would expect in a work of this kind, which is intended for the American quite as much as for the English market. In its five huge volumes one might hope to find at least as many American names as are included in Baker's 'Biographic Dictionary of Musicians' in one volume, or in the English 'Who's Who.' Of the leading writers on music in New York, Boston and other cities, only one is mentioned. The public may not be especially interested in the lives of critics, but it has a right to expect lists of their books, especially when, as happens to be the case in several instances, these are admitted, even abroad, to be the best on their subjects in the English language. Astonishment must also be expressed at the lamentably inadequate treatment of one of the greatest of all song writers, Jensen, who is disposed of in less than a column, while Löwe gets two and a half and the singer Farinelli seven! However, the shortcomings of the new 'Grove' are few compared with its many sterling qualities, not the least of which is that the longer articles are, for the most part, not only instructive, but admirably and even entertainingly written, in marked contrast to the articles in Mendel's similar encyclopædia in the German language.

What 'Grove' is among musical dictionaries, the 'Oxford' may be said to be among histories of music, so far at least as the English language is concerned. It is now complete, in six volumes, two of which remain to be considered critically—Mr. Wooldridge's 'Polyphonic Period,' Part II., and Edward Dannreuther's 'Romantic Period.' The appearance of Mr. Wooldridge's volume is somewhat belated, as it takes us back to the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries. An unusually large part of his volume—perhaps a fifth—is taken up with illustrations in musical type, which students will welcome because of the difficulty of access to many of the originals. Particularly good are the accounts of the *musica ficta*, the hexachordal system and the *faux bourdon*. The reference in a footnote on page 85 to Jean de Muris of the fourteenth century, complaining in his 'Speculum Musicæ' of musicians who create "a constant cacophony," yet are "full of confidence and ready to defend their intervals as 'new consonances,'" reminds one somewhat amusingly of Richard Strauss and his apostles in our day.

Of the writers who coöperated in producing the 'Oxford History of Music,' the most favored undoubtedly was Edward Dannreuther, for he had the period which is of most interest to music lovers of our time—the nineteenth century, with Weber, Schumann, Rossini, Donizetti, Verdi, Berlioz, Mendelssohn, Chopin, Liszt, Wagner, Tchaikovsky, Grieg, and other present-day idols. The author died, unfortunately, before he could add the final touches to his manuscript; but it was completely written out, and little remained for the editor, Mr. W. H. Hadow, to supply but the musical examples, which here, too, are given in great abundance. Mr. Dannreuther treats his period on the subject plan, and not the biographic. In other words, in dealing with Liszt, for instance, he does not devote a special chapter to him, but recurs to him repeatedly, in the chapters on Programme Music, Religious

Music, Pianoforte Music, and Solo Songs. This plan has its advantages, as well as its disadvantages, which need not be dwelt on.

The author treats romantic music as an offshoot of literature: "a reflex of poetry expressed in musical terms, . . . a desire to produce musical effects suggested by natural phenomena; an art eager, sensitive, impulsive, which seeks its ideal of beauty through emotional expression." He does not dwell on the abundant germs of romanticism in Bach and Beethoven; nor does he sufficiently acknowledge the great rôle played by Schubert as a leader of the romantic movement (probably because Schubert is treated in vol. v., "The Viennese Period," by Mr. Hadow). But he discourses most eloquently and suggestively on the many innovations in operatic and instrumental music introduced by Weber, the pioneer who paved the way for Wagner and made his works possible. Schumann also is sympathetically treated. With programme music the author has little sympathy, nor does he point out the fact that Liszt's symphonic poems revolutionized concert music almost as thoroughly as Wagner's music dramas did the opera. It is amusing, too, in these days of Strauss, Reger, and D'Indy, to read complaints about Liszt's cacophony. Liszt always had a reason for his discords. More satisfactory is Mr. Dannreuther's discussion of Liszt's religious music. That Wagner fares well at his hands need not be said. In the otherwise excellent remarks about Chopin, it is amazing to find once more the preposterous assertion that that chief representative of the *tempo rubato* kept strict time with his left hand. Chopin was no barrel organ; Berlioz said of him he *could* not have kept time had he tried. More amazing still is the statement that "Schumann, in his *Lieder* and choral pieces, was the first of the Germans who troubled about correct declamation." Schubert was a model in this respect, even more than Schumann. One might point out other disputable criticisms, which the author probably would have modified on revision; but his book, on the whole, is quite worthy of the company in which it appears, and will probably enjoy a larger sale than any of the other volumes.

The most useful and up-to-date history of music in any language is Mr. Baltzell's. Although in one volume only, it has this in common with the Oxford History, in being the joint work of several writers, viz., W. J. Baltzell, H. A. Clarke, Arthur Elson, Clarence G. Hamilton, Edward Burlingame Hill, Arthur L. Judson, Frederic B. Law, and Preston Ware Orem, who treat of the different epochs, countries, and schools. Mr. Baltzell, who is the managing editor of the *Étude*, has succeeded surprisingly well in welding these contributions in a connected narrative, while avoiding repetition and clashes of estimates. Being intended chiefly for classes, or musical clubs, the chapters are followed by questions and suggestions as well as by bibliographic references. The modern national schools of Bohemia, Scandinavia, and Russia receive attention, and of the sixty chapters, three are devoted to music and musicians in the United States. Mr. Baltzell's volume thus serves as a sort of corrective of the English volumes above referred to, which so loftily ignore Americans, while growing garrulous over the Englishmen of all ranks. By way of emphasizing this injustice, we may as well quote what Mr. Judson has to say here about the English and their scant achievements in music. He admits that English folk-music ranks favorably with the best examples of other nations; but regarding that thirteenth-century canon, "Sumer is icumen in," of which the English are so proud, he remarks that "impartial historians believe most strongly that the canon is of French origin, reset to English words and carried to England by a student of the Paris school." He declares that—

"native composers have had more encouragement in England than usually falls to the lot of a creative musician. Indeed, England has always been a patron of the best in music, native or foreign; and no nation has, as a whole, been more generous in appreciation; her treatment of Beethoven on his deathbed is a notable example of disinterested generosity. But in real, original, creative art, England has had no great past."

One of the American books which have not been equalled in England is Elson's 'Music Dictionary,' a marvel of lucid condensation. In its 306 pages it contains not only the definition and pronunciation of such terms and signs as are used in modern music, but a brief list of composers and artists, a list of popular work in music, and an English-Italian vocabulary of musical words and expressions. In the vocabulary we have noted one important omission, Tonality. Some of the heads, like Suite, Sonata, Symphony, Pedal, Prelude, Temperament, receive a column or more of space, and are models of compact information, historic as well as explanatory. By an accidental oversight, Schubert and Schumann are not mentioned under Symphony. Not content with defining words, Mr. Elson has some sensible suggestions to make in cases where (as under Portamento and Rhythm) terms are used in a dubious sense. The book is printed with clear type on good paper.

A Book of the Riviera. By S. Baring-Gould. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Winter sojourners on the Riviera are constantly asking for some book that will inform them as to the history, traditions, manners, and customs of the various towns of the region they happen to be staying in. Such books as exist are chiefly confined to the French Côte d'Azur, and especially to its archæology and ancient history. There are local guides also, but the ordinary visitor is apt to ask for more and for less at the same time—a wider range and less specialized. Mr. Baring-Gould's book is a partial attempt to meet this want; it does not stop short at Mentone, but includes Bordighera, San Remo, Alassio, and Savona; nor does it treat merely of Phœnicians, Greeks, and Romans, but essays to give the more striking and picturesque episodes of all periods, including quite recent ones. Mr. Baring-Gould says nothing, however, of the coast to the east of Savona. Necessarily his book is a compilation, made up from sources more or less easy of access and generally good. It is written in a clear and animated style, so that it should make pleasant reading for those who ask for a lively, anecdotic summary of the story and topography of the Riviera.

Still, as the French saying goes, the prettiest girl in the world cannot give more than she has got, and it would be useless to look to Mr. Baring-Gould's scraps of history for anything like thoroughness, completeness, or even accuracy. Let alone that his liveliness sometimes betrays him into flippancy, one soon perceives that he has not merely vulgarized his authorities—as often in the worse as in the better sense—but that he also misrepresents them on occasion. For instance, he borrows repeatedly from M. Lenthéric's excellent 'La Provence Maritime,' a book that is in the hands of every one who is seriously interested in the Riviera, so that there is no difficulty in seeing what sort of a sea-change Mr. Baring-Gould's statements have suffered in the borrowing. One example will suffice to show, for good as well as for bad, his method. On page 119 is found the following passage containing his version of thirty pages of Lenthéric (op. cit., pp. 320-350). He is writing of Fréjus:

"The ruins are many, but not beautiful; everything was built in a hurry, and badly built. The aqueduct was no sooner completed than it gave way and had to be patched up. The triumphal arch on the old quays is a shabby affair. The amphitheatre is half cut out of the natural rock. There was plenty of granite and porphyry accessible, but the builders did not trouble themselves to obtain large and solid blocks; they built of brick and small stone, without skill, and impatiently. The work was probably executed by corvées of laborers impressed from the country round. . . . On the ancient mole is the most perfect monument of Roman times extant in Fréjus. It goes by the name of La Lantern [*sic*]; but it was not a lighthouse at all, but a lodge for the harbor-master, who gave directions with a flag to vessels how to enter the harbor and avoid the shoals."

There is just the sort of rough fidelity in this summary that might be expected from one whose memory is not exact, who had read in haste, and who aims at making his recital "vigorous." Some statements are correct, some are slightly twisted, and some are positively misleading. That relative to "La Lantern" is of the last order: while undoubtedly not a lighthouse, it was certainly not a lodge, for, says Lenthéric, "l' édifice est complètement massif"—there is not even a staircase inside, and the use of the monument as a signal post is given only as a probable conjecture. The "flag" is of Mr. Baring-Gould's invention.

The part of the book relating to the Italian Riviera is rather meagre. Ospedaletti is mentioned only in a quotation from the 'Adèle et Théodore' of Mme. de Genlis, and beyond Savona everything is ignored, save for a paragraph or so about Genoa, ending with a passage so grotesque that we cannot resist the pleasure of quoting it:

"The palaces of the Lascaris, the Grimaldis, the Durazzos, the Della Roveres, the Dorias, are in ruins [!], but in their places rise hotels de Paris [!], de l'Univers [!], the Metropole; and the bands of bravos entertained by the nobles are replaced by Italian and Swiss waiters."

And this reflection inspires our author to quote:

"The more we read the history of past ages, the more we observe the signs of our own times, the more do we feel our hearts filled and swelled up by a good hope for the future destinies of the human race."

Mr. Baring-Gould's French is shaky on occasion (perhaps he thinks an accent a

good thing in itself when he persists in putting one on the first syllable of René), and his Italian is positively dilapidated.

The book is illustrated with very pretty photographs, and there is a good index.

The Wild Flowers of Selborne, and Other Papers. By John Vaughan, M.A., Rector of Droxford and Hon. Canon of Winchester. John Lane Co. 1906.

Here we have another indication of the strong hold which the name of Selborne has upon the reading public. The title of the above volume as given on its back is simply, 'The Wild Flowers of Selborne'; but, within, the title-page gives the whole story—"and other papers." With one exception the other papers have little to do with Selborne or with Gilbert White, the naturalist who made it celebrated. Notwithstanding this, the whole volume is very acceptable even to those who are misled by its name.

Many attempts have been made to explain the charm which Gilbert White's 'Natural History of Selborne' possesses. All are agreed that much of this charm is due to the fact that he was a true pioneer and a faithful recorder of what was to be seen when the first rough paths were made. But there must be something over and above this fact that he was the first of the English-speaking nature-students. It has seemed to us that much of the attraction may be properly ascribed to the inherent tendency which people have to get others to do their work for them. Thousands do all of their fishing while lounging by the winter fire or idling in the hammock, with the last edition of Walton in the hand. Walton does more fishing to-day than he and Viator and Piscator together ever did in all their lives. And most of this fishing is done by those who hardly know the difference between a hook and a line. Gilbert White is eyes to-day for thousands who are too lazy to keep their own eyes open in the hundred Selbornes of the Old World and the New. It is vastly easier to have Gilbert White watch the flight of a bee or a bird, and tell you what happens, than to go out from the shadow of your own arbor and see for yourself. And, moreover, you know you are in good company when you do this: you have as your fellow-naturalists many who are likewise dozing in a hammock or reading by a fire. The Dutch say, "Those on the bank always skate best"; with Gilbert White to do your work in collecting, observing, and recording, you are sure to make no mistakes. As it was, he made only three, it is said; with these three corrected by the editors, you will not make any. In short, we carry on much of our out-of-door nature-study in the same way in which we accomplish wonders on the athletic field. With intense absorption we watch the professional baseball or cricket champions in their startling feats, and there is not a spectator who does not move as the ball is thrown or the bat is swung. Everybody plays the game in this easy way; everybody shares in the victory or defeat, even if he knows very little about the game. It is probable that the spectators do not get quite as much exercise out of the game as the players do, although the old proverb says that they see more of it.

Now it may well be that this method of observation at second hand, by which we let Gilbert White do our seeing, is sound in principle and practice. It is certain that it is exceedingly popular at the present time, since, even with the scores and scores of recent nature-study books, Gilbert White is to have two new editions this very year. But this volume by Rector Vaughan is not one of them. It is a book which makes a lawful use of White's popularity, and tells us something about the present condition of the old district. It is to be regretted that the Rector does not tell us more. The first essay gives a pleasing account of a few of the plants which were rare or plentiful at the time White wrote (that is, ten years, or a little more, later than our Revolutionary war), and he speaks of some of the recent accessions. Among the latter is one of considerable interest, namely, our pretty Spring Beauty (*Claytonia*), which American plant has made for itself a pleasant home in these surroundings. The chapter on "The Wild Flowers of Selborne" occupies only eight pages. Next we have a chatty sketch, of about eight pages more, devoted to White himself; and then follow in succession the chapters on The Use of Simples, Pot-herbs, Wild Fruits, Wall-flowers, Poisonous Plants, and so on, until we come to the essays on Mary Rich, Countess of Warwick, Izaak Walton at Droxford, and French Prisoners at Portchester. From this list, which we have somewhat shortened, it may be gathered that whoever obtains this volume as an accession to his library of Whiteana may possibly be disappointed, but nevertheless will get his money's worth in cheerful gossip about matters that certainly would have interested Gilbert White.

Chronicles of London. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Charles Lethbridge Kingsford, M.A., St. John's College, Oxford. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1906.

In his Introduction the editor tells us that "from the beginning at least of the fifteenth century, aldermen and citizens of London had shown their interest in civic and general history by compiling or causing others to compile, English Chronicles arranged under the years of the municipality. The Chronicles of London, which, as we now know them, thus came into being, can, however, trace their ancestry much further back. Early in the growth of municipal life there must have arisen the desire for a readily accessible record, giving at least the succession of city officers." Robert Fabyan, "to whose labors all knowledge of the Chronicles was for three centuries chiefly due," was but one of the last in a long line. The Chronicles of London are historical summaries from the point of view of the London citizen, to whom naturally the affairs of his municipality were of primary importance. But the vision of the chronicler was not limited to what has been called "the parish pump": he could "think imperially" on occasion. The great events of the kingdom find their place in the London Chronicles, even when those events are not immediately connected with the city. "To some extent," says Mr. Kingsford, "the Chronicles of London possess that personal element which makes 'memoirs' so fruitful in sidelights on history. Yet from this point of view they are often disappointing." This applies especially to the earlier portions of the Chronicles. The narrative, if it may be so called, is excessively meagre, being little more than a list of names. From the middle of the thirteenth century the record lengthens and becomes more interesting.

This volume contains four Chronicles printed from MSS. in the Cottonian collection. They are known respectively as Cotton. Julius B II, Cotton. Cleopatra C IV, Cotton. Julius B I, and Cotton. Vitellius A V. Of these one has been partly printed before, the other three are here printed for the first time. The Introduction states very carefully the relations between the MSS. and other Chronicles. The text is printed, so far as may be judged without collation, with great care, the pagination of the original being indicated in the margin. Appendices show the variations of texts, and the volume is completed with copious notes, a glossary, and a full index. It is impossible to praise too highly the manner of executing the work.

These Chronicles are for the most part very artless performances; their interest lies solely in the things told, not in the manner of telling them. They are the material from which skilled craftsmen like Holinshed and Stow compiled their annals. There is here no proportion observed. The chronicler took whatever came to hand. In the first of the series forty-four pages are given to a single year, 1399; two pages suffice for the next seven years. The Chronicle ends with Lydgate's long metrical account of the reception in London of Henry VI. The most valuable of the series is the "Vitellius Chronicle," the publication of which was desired by Dr. Gairdner more than forty years ago. It is recognized "as one of the best contemporary records of the reign of Henry VII." It contains a long, detailed account of the insurrection led by Jack Cade. A quotation showing what took place after the dispersion of the men of Kent, will convey an idea of the style of the Chronicle and of the manner in which Mr. Kingsford has dealt with the text:

"And when all were departed and goon there were made proclamaciouns, that what man cowde take the Capeteyn, Quyk or Deed, shuld haue a M[l] marks for his labour: after whiche proclamaciouns made One Alexander Idon, Gentilman of Kent, toke him in a garden in Sowsex: but in the takying the said Capiteyn was slayne. And so brought into Southwerk that all men myght see hym, and that nyght left in the kynges bench, and from thens he was drawyn to newgate, and then hedid and quarterid; and his hede set vpon London Brigge. And his iiij quarters were sent in to dyuers Townes in Kent. And anone after the kyng Rode into Kent and commaundid his Justices to sit at Caunterbury, to Enquere who wer accessariis and cawsers of this Insurrection; and there were viij men Jugged to deth in oon day, and in other places moo. And from thens the kyng Rode into Sowthsex, and from thens in to the West Cuntre, where a litell before was slayn the Bisshop of Salisbury. And this yere wer so many juggid to deth that xxiij hedis stode vpon London Bryge. Vpon whos soules Jhesu haue mercy."

Literature: Its Principles and Problems. By Theodore W. Hunt. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1906.

As the title indicates, Professor Hunt, who occupies the chair of English Language and Literature at Princeton, covers

a wide range, and we shall not attempt to follow him in detail. As to literature in the colleges, we are glad to see that he plants himself distinctly and emphatically against the extreme philological heresy so prevalent in the treatment accorded to literature by college teachers of recent years. On the topic of literary criticism we find his paragraphs involving either a slight self-contradiction or else lack of clearness in meaning. We are told that criticism must never be allowed to stand upon its own merits, must always be a mere means to an end, and never an end in itself; but at the same time we are assured, in the words of Professor Richardson and others, that the critical function is as high as the creative, that some criticism is creative literature in the best sense, and that not a few representative English authors have done their best work and won their highest repute in the critical field. "Critical genius is a distinct order of genius in the realm of letters." All this hardly leaves room for as sharp a distinction as Professor Hunt has asserted between criticism of literature and literature itself, though one may readily admit the entire fitness of the distinction as applied to the bulk of present-day "criticism," which is born under conditions practically prohibitive of any ascent into the realm of "creative literature." Literature could hardly be the gainer were critics to accept what our author calls "the better method, by which what is meritorious is magnified and all demerit reduced to a minimum." If press, pulpit, and legislative forum had spent the past year in magnifying all the good to be found in life insurance and reducing the offences of culpable insurance officers to the minimum, it would take very little printer's ink to record the reform legislation which would have resulted, and it does not yet appear, from any authoritative study of human nature and history, that the best way to set authors to uprooting the tares from their literary wheat-field is to minimize their presence and importance.

In a short chapter on "Hebraism and Hellenism," we think that the author does serious injustice to Matthew Arnold's position. Of course Arnold strongly contrasted the two tendencies, and pleaded earnestly for more of Hellenism in the attitude of the English-speaking world, but it is a mistake to assume that he favored the complete substitution of the one set of virtues for the other. It ought to be possible, in these days, to make the necessary allowance for somewhat extreme argumentative statement. We note that Professor Hunt introduces this chapter with a quotation from Miss Scudder's 'Social Ideals in English Letters.' It was in this same volume, if we remember rightly, that Miss Scudder seemed to do Arnold the injustice of assuming that when he asked of British reformers a pause for more light on the subjects in hand, he did not intend that they should go right on with their reforms as fast as adequate light for intelligent, and therefore effective, action should be secured. Arnold's final goal was surely nothing less than the essentials of the Hebraic instinct for conduct, enlightened and guided by Hellenic culture and insight.

L'Empire Libéral. Par E. Ollivier. Vols. I.-X. Paris: Garnier.

Histoire du Second Empire. Par P. de La Gorce. Vols. I.-VIII. Paris: Plon.

These two books represent two classes of literature, one of them, so far as the Second Empire is concerned, just coming into existence, the other just dying out: M. La Gorce writes history, M. Ollivier politics. M. La Gorce, with his eighth volume, has the distinction of completing the first history of serious merit of the reign of Napoleon the Third. M. Ollivier, with his tenth volume, continues his wordy but eloquent vindication of the part which he played in the Empire, and of that policy of liberal imperialism which was based on illusions and terminated in a cataclysm.

Nothing could be more rhetorically brilliant and more historically unconvincing than the apology of the Minister who engaged France in the war of 1870. The jealous rancor with which he constantly attacks Thiers, his obvious conceit, his affected superiority towards those giant statesmen who crossed his path, Bismarck and Cavour, his amusing belief that eloquence and wit are synonyms for statesmanship and wisdom, his frequent casuistry and occasional slips in accuracy—all these are matters that alienate a discerning reader and detract from the value of the book. And yet 'L'Empire Libéral' must take a high place in the historical literature of the mid-nineteenth century. It is the work of one of the conspicuous actors in the events narrated; it contains many sidelights on prominent persons—Napoleon, Prince Jerome, Morny, and others; it occasionally gives us new information in the form of unpublished material. In this respect more may be anticipated from the concluding volumes, in which we shall have the author's version of the Franco-Prussian conflict of 1870 unfolded.

The work of M. La Gorce is notable for very different reasons. Although consistently readable, he lays no claim to brilliancy or epigrammatic force. His work is one of careful historical research, well compacted, solid, and, for a writer whose antecedents are Bonapartist, singularly unprejudiced. The success of the book in France has grown steadily since the publication of the first volume; and now that the last is before the public, it is fairly safe to predict that it is likely to remain the standard work on the history of the Second Empire for some years to come.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Babelon, Ernest. Manual of Oriental Antiques. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Benson, Arthur Christopher. From a College Window. Putnams. $1.25 net.
Books, Mansfield. The Newell Fortune. John Lane Co.
Bruce, W. S. Social Aspects of Christian Morality. Dutton. $3.50 net.
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Etchings of Van Dyck. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
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Lloyd, Henry Demarest. Man, the Social Creator. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2 net.
Longfellow's Tales of a Wayside Inn. Edited by J. H. Castleman. Macmillan Co.
Lubbock, Basil. Jack Derringer. Dutton. $1.50.
Mater, André. L'Eglise Catholique. Paris: Armand Colin.
Matthew Arnold's Merope. Edited by J. C. Collins. Henry Frowde.
McCall, Sidney. Truth Dexter. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
McCarthy, Justin Huntly. The Flower of France. Harpers. $1.50.
McIvor, Allan. The Mechanic. William Ritchie. $1.50.
Meredith, George. The Ordeal of Richard Feverel.—Sandra Belloni.—Diana of the Crossways. —Vittoria. Scribners. $1 each.
Metcalfe, Francis. Side-Show Studies. The Outing Publishing Co. $1.25.
Montgomery, Thos. H., jr. The Analysis of Racial Descent in Animals. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50 net.
Morat, J. P. Physiology of the Nervous System. Translated by H. W. Syers. Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co. $7.50 net.
Morris, Clara. The Life of a Star. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Moulton, Forest Ray. An Introduction to Astronomy. Macmillan Co.
Ober, Frederick A. Pizarro and the Conquest of Peru. Harpers. $1 net.
Oliver, Frederick Scott. Alexander Hamilton: An Essay on American Union. Putnams. $3.75.
Page Story Book. Edited by Frank E. Spaulding and Catherine T. Bryce. Scribners. 50 cents net.
Paine, Ralph D. The Praying Skipper. Outing Publishing Co. $1.50.
Palmer Cox Brownie Primer. Text by Mary E. Judd. Century Co.
Pancake, Edmund Blair. Miss New York. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Phillips, Henry Wallace. Red Saunders's Pets, and Other Critters. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Pigafetta, Antonio. Magellan's Voyage Around the World. Translated by James A. Robertson. 2 vols. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co. $7.50 net.
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Russell, John Edward. An Elementary Logic. Macmillan Co. 75 cents.
Russell, J. B., and A. H. Bell. Notes on Volumetric Analysis. Dutton. 50 cents net.
Secret Life: Being the Book of a Heretic. John Lane Co.
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Sergeant, Philip W. Jerome Bonaparte, the Burlesque Napoleon. Brentano's.
Shute, Henry A. A Few Neighbors. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1 net.
Sinclair, May. The Tysons. B. W. Dodge & Co. $1.50.
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Stringer, Arthur. The Wire-Tappers. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Sturt, Henry. Idola Theatri. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
Successful Teaching: Fifteen Studies by Practical Teachers. Introduction by James M. Greenwood. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1 net.
Swift, Jonathan. A Voyage to Lilliput. Cincinnati: Phonographic Institute Co.
Turley, Charles. Maitland Major and Minor. Dutton. $1.50.
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Wise, John S. Recollections of Thirteen Presidents. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50.
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The Nation.

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The Week.

One of the most troublesome questions that the Reclamation Service has had to deal with has been settled by the treaty just signed between the United States and Mexico, which apportions the waters of the Rio Grande available for irrigation. The fight for the right to divert water from the Rio Grande has been going on for years, but it has become serious only since the irrigation idea grew popular. Increased use of the flow in New Mexico has resulted in a shortage for the Mexican users, and the quarrel naturally went to Washington and the City of Mexico for settlement. The terms of the compromise appear to be advantageous to the United States. From the costly Engel dam in New Mexico, which practically controls the Rio Grande's flow, Mexico is to get about one-eighth of the store in return for the relinquishment of her ancient rights of diversion. Those Western Senators who, it is reported, are opposed to giving Mexico any of the impounded water, should not carry their opposition to the point of defeating the treaty; if they do, we shall have another long-drawn-out, harassing Kansas-Colorado suit that will not only disturb our excellent relations with Mexico, but retard development along the Rio Grande as well. "Irrigation rows" are notoriously difficult to patch up, and the success of Secretary Root and Ambassador Casasus in settling this one is matter for congratulation.

Whoever reads the report of Saturday's debate in the House of Representatives on the bill to provide against the "leaking" of information from any department of the Government, will perhaps understand why the Senate still has the "effrontery" to "block" that branch of our national Legislature which "does things." As agreed upon at a joint conference, the bill provided that every officer and employee of the United States, while holding office or position, be forbidden to give out information as to the products grown in the United States that would affect the market value of United States bonds or the bonds and stocks of any incorporated company. The prohibition embraced the President as well as the charwomen in the offices of the Department of Agriculture. The only point on which the conference was in doubt was whether members of Congress should be included. Interrupting the discussion, Representative McCall of Massachusetts secured an hour's time, and showed that, in trying to remedy one specific evil, the "leaking" of cotton statistics, the bill would really go far beyond all proper bounds. What the proposition to include members of Congress in the list of those who should remain clam-like amounted to, Mr. McCall declared, was "to complete and make perfect the exquisite absurdity of an absurd bill."

"The ideal perfection of the universe"—this, as the Massachusetts Representative pointed out, was the real intent of the bill. "After hearing of this trouble about cotton, the gentleman tries to perfect the whole universe in order to take care of cotton." Pursuing his argument, he warned the House that it would, by enacting any such legislation, encourage State trials, "the spectacular and bizarre prosecution" of officeholders who might be judged by the dominant party fit victims to "enhance the popularity of somebody." Such a measure, too, would "augment executive influence over Congress." With such a weapon, the President might set up his Paul Mortons and pull down his Judge Humphreys with no thought except for the "good of the country." Going on in his heartless way, Mr. McCall exposed the bill as one of the haziest bits of legislation ever attempted. Not a dozen members, he affirmed, knew what the bill meant. Its minimum penalty of a year's imprisonment he characterized as "absolutely heathenish." A Cabinet officer would go to his post in fear and trembling. If some morning in talking to a newspaper correspondent he remarked that the weather was very bad, and the price of corn dropped, and the stock of a corn-products company fell in price, clearly the Cabinet officer could be imprisoned for a year. Before Mr. McCall's hour was gone, the whole matter was exposed in its crudity, with the result that the bill was tabled and killed by a vote of 107 to 63. This showed what unfettered discussion can do in an unchained House.

In finally deciding in favor of a sea-level canal at Panama, the Senate committee has gone back to the recommendations of the majority of the consulting engineers whose advice President Roosevelt rejected. As a matter of fact, we suppose the committee's action was intended mainly as a disapproval of the 85-foot project, with three locks in flight at Gatun. The weight of technical opinion seems against that plan. But merely to vote sea-level does not get us there. One lock at least is necessary, even at so-called sea level. And it is doubtful if Congress, in its present weary and angry mood, can be held in Washington long enough to come to a clear decision between rival plans. This will throw the whole matter back upon the President. He has said that, in that event, he would begin building a lock canal, as provided for in the Spooner act, though he admitted the probability of "modifications." For them, he would certainly have to call in the engineers again. Perhaps a compromise between the 85-foot plan and the sea-level may in that way be reached. Best of all would it be to throw the whole matter open to bidding by responsible contractors, and take the Government's blundering hand off the business.

While challenging the House Committee on the Judiciary to show that Congress spends the people's money more wisely than the officers of the big insurance companies who contribute to party campaign funds, Senator Bulkeley resorted to the only defence a plain-speaking man could offer. Suppose I did give $5,000 of the money paid by the Aetna Fire Insurance Company's policyholders to help elect McKinley in 1896? he asks. Am I not a faithful guardian of my stockholders' interests? And were not other faithful guardians vigilant in protecting the country from such perils as W. J. Bryan? Senator Bulkeley was exceedingly moderate in his estimate of the proportion of peril threatening the Aetna company, as he admits. Even $20,000 would have been but a "flea-bite" to what he personally paid to help defeat the Democratic party. This statement will be appreciated in Connecticut, where the continued display of Bulkeley's skill as a manipulator of campaign funds led finally to the passage of a corrupt-practices act by the Legislature. The Milwaukee investigation bears out the impression that Bulkeley, McCall, McCurdy, and the rest of the insurance patriots who rushed to help the Republican party save the country with the country's own money, were following an accepted precedent. The only difference appears to have been that, in the Wisconsin case, $2,000 was judged sufficient. But then, the West is notoriously indifferent to "political peril."

The sworn testimony at the hearing of the Interstate Commerce Commission in Philadelphia last week that trusted officials of the Pennsylvania Railroad are vulgar "grafters," would have shocked and surprised men a year and a half ago; but the insurance revelations have hardened us to news of this kind. George W. Creighton, general superintendent of the Altoona division, received some 1,300 shares of stock from mining companies

with which the railway has constant dealings. Asked whether the gifts had been presented for "pure love and affection," Creighton replied, "I just accepted them without asking any questions." George W. Clarke, a car distributor, was made happy by such tokens of regard as occasional checks for $50, baskets of wine, boxes of cigars, and dividends on coal stock. He didn't know what the checks were for, but, he added, "I cashed them." He came into possession of stock worth $5,000, but he didn't "recall the circumstances." John M. Jamison, president of the Jamison Coal and Coke Company, frankly declared that, in order to secure favors, he had sent a check for $5,000 to Robert E. Pitcairn, assistant to President A. J. Cassatt. He had also given stock to other specified Pennsylvania officials. Michael Trump, general superintendent of transportation, and R. L. O'Donnel, general superintendent of the Buffalo and Allegheny Valley division, both confessed that they ha accepted as presents the stock of companies which shipped coal over the railway. Charles E. Pugh, second vice-president, had bought considerable amounts of coal stock and bonds. Naturally, he was not inclined to encourage the development of new mines along the railway, because the old mines, as he explained with a laugh, "furnish more coal than is needed." To mistake the significance of these admissions is impossible. A coal company which wishes to avoid trouble presents neat blocks of stock to Pennsylvania officials, or else persuades these gentlemen that the stock is a good investment. The managers of the railways are certainly in a position to increase or diminish the earnings of the coal companies. Not to put too fine a point on it, the officers of the Pennsylvania have subjected their shippers to elaborate and systematic blackmail.

These transactions throw light on a phase of high finance that has provoked frequent comment—the inexplicable transfer or even disappearance of shares of stock. In some of Whitaker Wright's operations certain mysterious "press calls" were noted by the censorious. The mystery was cleared up, however, when four high-minded newspaper writers were forced to disgorge £13,454. A yet more striking instance occurred in the organization of the American Steel and Wire Company. John W. Gates was chairman of the finance committee. When he was asked in 1902 what had become of a little block of stock—$26,000,000 in all—which had not been accounted for, he confessed that he did not know. In the light of present knowledge, we can imagine that the stock was judiciously allotted to trainmasters, division superintendents, car distributors, and other gentlemen who were able to show favors at the right time to the right people. Mr. Jamison's company got off without paying such heavy toll—only $35,000. Such dealings show the most cynical disregard of moral obligations—to say nothing of mere law. A bank president or cashier who should accept a private "rake-off" on every important loan, would be generally recognized as a scoundrel. The buyer of a department store who should take gifts from manufacturers, would be discharged as untrustworthy. The case of the bribed railway official is in certain respects even worse. He serves a corporation which enjoys peculiar rights and which in return is bound as a common carrier to serve all patrons alike. If he forms a conspiracy to help one shipper at the expense of another, he is guilty of a crime not merely against his employer, but against the public.

Senator Patterson's promise to the people of Denver that, if the municipal ownership ticket was defeated this year, he would run for Mayor of the city next year on that issue, should not be remembered against him. Undoubtedly, the Senate would spare him resignedly, but it is most unlikely that Denver would put him at the head of her city government. At the election on Tuesday week, when six important franchise propositions and five charter amendments were voted upon in addition to aldermanic candidates, county supervisors, and election commissioners, a two-to-one vote was recorded against the municipal-ownership programme. Among the propositions favored were those to grant franchises to the Denver Gas and Electric Company, to the Northwestern Terminal Company, to the Union Pacific, to the Municipal Traction Company and the Denver Terminal Company. The charter amendments were concerned with the regulation of charges by public-service corporations, the purchase of a lighting plant by the city, the voting of $5,000,000 to beautify the city, the making of a ten-year contract for street lights, and a police pension scheme. The opportunity for a straight fight between the "M. O.'s" and the "corporation slaves" was an exceptional one; the fact that Senator Patterson deserted Washington and had been for two weeks working continuously for the ownership ticket, showed how earnestly the issue was pressed. Denver's negative and decisive verdict should give the public-ownership enthusiast something to think about.

By passing the Shurtleff direct-primary bill, the Illinois Legislature ended ingloriously a dismal special session that had lasted since April 10. On that date Gov. Deneen called the lawmakers together at Springfield to remedy the mistake of a year before, when an unconstitutional measure was passed. It is probable that the Shurtleff bill will stand the test of constitutionality, but it will hardly satisfy those who really want the direct primary. As explained by the Chicago *News*, candidates for elective State and county offices, for municipal offices to be filled in November, for clerkships of Appellate Courts, and for the House of Representatives and the Senate are to be voted upon. The delegates to the nominating conventions are to be bound to the candidates selected in the primary "for at least one ballot" only; and to the County Central committees, which are not named by the party voters, is left the definition of the delegate districts. With such an imperfect bill before him, it is not surprising that Lieut.-Gov. Sherman, who declared that "there is not a line in the bill that gives the people a right to say whom they shall nominate," should have denounced the session as a humiliating failure. It is to be hoped the report that Gov. Deneen will sign the bill is not true.

A "lawyers' ticket," proposed by the bar of the city for the action of the voters in November, when ten new Supreme Court justices are to be chosen in the First Department, should have an excellent chance to win. Not only are the ten thousand and more lawyers of the New York bar competent to select a ticket free from entanglements with Tammany or Quigg, but they know how to run a campaign in which they are deeply interested. Almost to a man, the Jerome workers last fall were lawyers. They supplemented the District Attorney's enthusiasm with hard work and an unexpected ability to organize and convert. This year there is no possible reason why these practitioners should not disregard every offered political alliance and say: "Here is our ticket; take it or leave it." We believe that prompt action of this kind by a really representative body of lawyers would force sufficient endorsement from the party organizations to insure the success of the ticket. But, even if it did not, the city is in a mood to appreciate a vigorous independent campaign, based on the demand that the judiciary shall be absolutely free from the dictation of politicians, while the machine is horrified that the lawyers and the Citizens' Union do not propose to "wait."

George W. Jimenez, a New York patrolman of Cuban birth, has just returned from Panama after an unsuccessful attempt to reform the police of the republic. His experiences, though doubtless serious enough to him, are diverting reading for others. He took charge of a corps of 360 policemen, many of whom were crippled derelicts of ancient revolutions; a good half the force were detailed as butlers, coachmen, and waiters to the Government officials;

about 150 were on daily duty. Chief Jimenez variously attempted to make the police of Panama conform to the New York standard, but very soon found that the chief and only imperative duty of an officer was to vote early and often for the Administration on election day, and so far as possible prevent the Opposition from voting. Between elections the force was chiefly a refuge for pensioners of the wives of the authorities. Mr. Jimenez also objected to the ill-treatment of persons imprisoned on suspicion, and it revolted his manly soul to see handcuffs immediately clapped upon any person under arrest. It appears that the average Panaman officer is not of a physique to make a compatriot, much less an American, "walk Spanish" without such artificial aid. It is ill dealing as a reformer with a people that abhors reform, and Mr. Jimenez's unhappy experience lends an illustration to Mr. Taft's offhand statement that the United States will intervene in Panama to keep order as it sees fit. Evidently, the Republic of Panama is a poor thing, but our own.

After four years of President Palma, the Cubans are glad to have four years more of his rule. If his Administration has been open at times to criticism, it has, at any rate, brought a new prosperity to the island, has been successful in suppressing irresponsible revolutionists, and in making the people contented. President Palma, of course, had the moral backing of Washington in 1902 when he took office—indeed, he was more American than Cuban after twenty-five years of residence in New York State; but that has not altogether explained his success. It might have accounted for his first election, but not his second. The sensation of self-government has been felt all over Cuba, and it is because Palma has thrown himself enthusiastically into the work of transforming "free Cuba" into prosperous Cuba, that he has strengthened his hold to such a degree that all opposition was withdrawn before the last election. The reciprocity treaty, better sugar and tobacco crops, and the development of transportation and manufacturing have been powerful campaigners for Palma; and the Isle of Pines incident only served to show the good understanding between the Administration at Havana and that at Washington. The President of Cuba has increased his claim to the title of "Cuban patriot."

The French Ministry increased its majority on the second balloting on Sunday, which saw the defeat of the group of Nationalists and other reactionaries left in suspense at the first trial. The victory has been won on a basis of anti-clericalism and of social reform. M. Sarrien is backed by a group of Radicals falling only a little short of a majority, and is less dependent than he has been on the votes of the Socialist Left. The *Temps* accepts the voting as primarily a triumph for the Republic. It points out that for the first time since the Third Republic was founded, no prominent candidate has dared to present himself as its opponent. The various types of Royalists and Imperialists have taken to cover under the vague appellation of Nationalism. When the *Temps* also professes to see in the elections a check to collectivism, its case is not so convincing. If the Socialists languish temporarily, it is only because successive Governments have outdone each other in the attempt to kill their exacting allies by kindness. Most parties will stand an enormous amount of this treatment without giving up the ghost. Paternalism is likely to have full sway for a number of Parliamentary sessions. Fortunately, men of proved sense and executive capacity are in charge. A curious result of the vindication of the Separation Act is to make Rome a far more interesting point for observers of French politics than Paris itself. Will Pius X. follow the advice of the most distinguished Catholics of France and accept a hard dispensation resignedly, or will he oppose the application of the Separation Act and take the chances of a religious war? His decision will be momentous, and will pretty well settle the question, raised by certain skeptics and old-line Catholics, whether the Cardinal-Patriarch of Venice was "popeable" or not.

The rejection of a Labor bill in the Lords is a straw that shows the drift. The particular act aimed to suspend the incoming of all laborers from abroad during a trade dispute. It looked towards a foolish and impracticable embargo, and was well voted down. The incident, however, gives a hint of very embarrassing possibilities for the upper house. Will it dare throw out the trade-dispute bill granting immunity for trade-union funds? What will be its attitude towards the act promising a free meal to all school children? It is years since the calm of the Peers has been so constantly threatened. Obviously, a practice of rejecting bills from the Commons will hardly do. The Lords are not popular enough to risk a course that would point the outcry for their abolition. It is likely, then, that the more radical labor legislation will go through relatively unopposed, and that the negative and amendatory votes will be kept for the Education bill, or on the off-chance that the local self-government bill for Ireland should bear the look of an advance towards home rule.

Delimitation of spheres of influence in Persia, perhaps the most important feature of the Anglo-Russian understanding now nearing final negotiation, would relieve international politics of a particularly dangerous question. It is said that Russia abandons her claim to a port on the Persian Gulf, and Great Britain acknowledges Russia's paramount position in the northern half of the Shah's dominions. British influence was once supreme throughout Persia, and imports into that country came almost entirely from Manchester; but the markets of Teheran, Tabriz, and Meshed have been flooded with Russian goods, and the energy of Russia's agents has destroyed British influence in the north. But if Britain gives way in North Persia, she holds her own with the greatest determination in the south. Every Foreign Secretary, Liberal or Conservative, has recognized the necessity of keeping Russia at a distance. No one within recent years has been more instrumental in maintaining this policy than Lord Curzon. In his book on Persia he says that he would impeach as a traitor to his country any minister who permitted Russia to penetrate to the Gulf. Hence the fact that Russia and England are in agreement is a particularly encouraging sign of the times.

The Duma's reply to the Czar's address held language respectful but firm. It appears to be a body that knows its own mind, perceives the need of extending its powers, while exercising them in an orderly manner, and has clear ideas about the only way in which representative and responsible government can be established in Russia. Its demand that the Imperial Council be either abolished or shorn of its obstructive functions, so that the Duma may express the people's will directly to the Czar, is the most radical that it makes. One must doubt if it will be acceded to without a struggle. Probably the autocracy will consider this an attack upon one of its inalienable prerogatives. The Duma is on surer ground when it calls for the instant repeal of exceptional repressive laws, for the doing away with imprisonment without trial, and for the right of the people's representatives to have a direct voice in all legislation. The reactionary policy could not well be challenged more sharply. The Czar's refusal to receive the memorial of the Duma direct from its president and a deputation is, however natural, calculated to stir discontent to the depths. To the Duma it will be the sign that Nicholas II. is still swayed by bureaucratic counsellors. For the present, the new Legislature proceeds quietly to the land question, assuming its jurisdiction in the premises quite as cavalierly as the Czar has stood on an improvised punctilio, and awaits the first probable concession, at least partial amnesty.

PASSAGE OF THE RATE BILL.

The sudden passing of the amended Railway-Rate bill by the Senate on Friday afternoon may have been due to weariness superinduced by either heat or talk. Of the latter, the Senate should surely have gone through a surfeit cure during the past three months. Be this as it may, the bill now goes to conference, and we are able to guess very nearly what its final form will be, as also to estimate its practical and political effects.

All agree that, but for President Roosevelt's initiative, no such bill could yet have been got through Congress. Senator Tillman frankly gave that as his opinion in the closing hours of the debate; though he added, as in duty bound, that the whole idea was stolen by the President from the Democrats. But that sort of charge hardly counts in politics. No one can file a notice of patent applied for in the case of a political invention; and a radical, accidentally in power in a conservative party, may take his own wherever he finds it. Accordingly, the reluctant acceptance of the Rate bill by the Republican Senators must be reckoned as the personal achievement of Mr. Roosevelt. Unluckily for him, the very hour of his triumph has been clouded by revelations which have unquestionably damaged his reputation more seriously than anything that ever befell him in public life; so that he loses the fruits of victory at the moment of plucking them. A dozen Rate bills could not make up for the Chandler letters and diary and the unrefuted assertions about the President's tergiversations made in the Senate. Even if this withering of the laurel at the instant of putting it on had not occurred, it would still have been necessary to ask just what it was the President fought for, and precisely what it is that he has got.

From the first, it was clear that the bill had some excellent features. But these were chiefly non-contentious. Certain abuses had grown up in the development of railway practice, which everybody but their greedy beneficiaries agreed to be abuses, and which everybody but themselves was willing and even eager to correct. These were such matters as rebates, jugglery about terminals and terminal charges, the outrages committed by private-car companies, extortion under the guise of payment for refrigeration, etc. There was no objection on the part of any member of Congress having the slightest influence to the passage of laws rigidly forbidding and punishing these public evils. They were of a sort to clamor for regulation under the interstate-commerce clause of the Constitution, and every measure aimed at them met with instant approval in Congress. Indeed, the Senate itself went far beyond the House in the stringency of the provisions aimed at such railway wrongs. In general, it tore the Hepburn bill to pieces, so that its printing in the amended form looks very much like a map of the earthquake section of San Francisco; but in no respect did the railroad-ridden Senate outstrip the House more clearly than in sweeping clauses levelled at these incidental railroad abuses. It restored the criminal clause in the law against giving rebates. It reduced the pass mischief to a minimum. It brought sleeping cars and express cars under the scope of the act. It forbade railroads to own coal mines. It made pipe lines common carriers. There was, in a word, a perfect enthusiasm and unanimity of reform in all these respects. The President's recommendations were, in that sphere, far exceeded. There was practically no opposition to these wholesome reforms; and they could have been enacted into law in a month as really non-contentious, had they not been mixed up with the bitterly and long-contested clause conferring upon the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to fix railroad rates.

This was the one thing for which President Roosevelt went to battle, and we need take only the testimony of his friends to conclude that he comes back defeated. It is not necessary to go over again the acrimonious charges and countercharges of the past fortnight. It is sufficient to go to President Roosevelt's messages and speeches, and even his letter of May 14 to Senator Allison, to put it beyond mistake that he desired to give all power to the Commission, and to keep railway rates out of the courts so far as could be done constitutionally. But the bill, as amended, throws everything into the courts, which may "enjoin, suspend, or annul" any rate whatever made by the Commission. As a last rallying-point, the President and his friends stood for the words "in its judgment," as defining the powers of the Commission. Commissioner Prouty thought it vital that these words should remain in. But they were stricken out, 50 to 24. The point is, of course, that they seemed to warrant the exercise of both legislative and judicial powers by the Commission. It is highly doubtful if Congress can delegate any such powers; but, to solve all doubt, the Senate struck out the last thing in the rate-making clause which made it look as if it had what Senator Bailey calls "teeth."

The bill, as we have said, contains many meritorious and needed features —depending, however, Bunsby-like, upon their application. If rigorously enforced, they will go far to cure long-standing evils. But, we may be sure, the people will at once pass to other things. If the bill had failed, there would have been a great outcry and agitation; passed, it enters at once the limbo of things fully discounted, and of which the country is "tired," and politicians will turn restlessly to other issues.

REPUBLICAN FOREBODINGS.

Worried before over the outlook for the Congressional elections this year, the anxiety of the Republican managers is visibly heightened by the occurrences of the past week in Washington. It may well be. Such strained relations between the President and the leading members of his party have not been seen for years, if ever. The most damaging charges against the President were made in open Senate, and not one Republican Senator rose to defend Mr. Roosevelt. Even Lodge left off running to the telephone. When the breach between Cleveland and the Senate was at its worst, there was always some Senator to speak up for him; but the Republican oracles have all been dumb. The President was attacked with the greatest directness and particularity; Messrs. Tillman and Bailey challenged the Republican Senators to reply, but they all sat silent. Their silence was most eloquent, politically. It testified strikingly to the distrust and dislike which Mr. Roosevelt has excited in the minds of the chief Republican Senators. So extraordinary a party situation cannot fail to be reflected in the Congressional campaign.

The troubled Republican managers at Washington are, reports the *Herald*, pointing to the fact that "no Republican President ever before sought deliberately to defeat his own party with Democratic aid." The effect of the disclosure that Roosevelt was concerned in such a scheme will, they fear, have "a stunning effect upon the straight-party men and paralyze the organization." Accordingly, their efforts are to be directed to restoring the shocked patient, and causing the symptoms of paralysis to pass away. This they propose to accomplish by calling in the physicians of the American Protective Tariff League. The plan is to rally the demoralized party by a galvanic stand-pat campaign. It is to be opened in Philadelphia this week, with Speaker Cannon as chief lauder of the all-wise and unchangeable tariff. By making a loud noise in that way, divergent voices within the party are to be drowned out.

These tactics are the natural resort of a certain order of mind, but they are not even shrewd, in the circumstances. If the party is divided about Roosevelt, it is still more badly split by the tariff. The revelations about cheap sales abroad by protected manufacturers who exact the uttermost farthing from the American consumer, have stirred many Republican consciences to revolt. We have not forgotten what Gov. Guild of Massachusetts wrote to the President last fall. Of what advantage would it

be to the stand-patters to keep Pennsylvania but lose Massachusetts? Tariff revision sentiment is strong among Republicans in many parts of the land, and cannot be stilled by the loudest beating of stand-pat drums. "President Roosevelt and the Republican party which he leads are for tariff reform," declared the Portland *Oregonian* of May 11. With Republicans all over the country believing and asserting this, how can you turn the Congressional campaign into a hurrah of the stand-patters?

A more skilful, if equally insincere, strategy is advocated by the *Oregonian*. This consists in drawing party lines taut. "The true test of Republicanism is to vote the Republican ticket." That is, in effect, the platform which the *Oregonian* lays down for the June election of Representatives from its State. A Democratic county convention had affirmed that "a party exists to maintain principles"; but the Portland editor shows the folly of that. He denies that it is the true function of a party to "sit perched forever like a fat Buddha on a pedestal and eternally utter abstract propositions." "No party that is worthy of public confidence exists merely to maintain principles." Precisely: the main thing is to win elections and get the offices. So let tariff reformers and stand-patters sink their differences and vote alike for the grand old party that doesn't know its own mind except on the point of liking uncommonly to be in power.

Even, however, if there could be agreement upon such a policy of waiving principles and going in for the offices, Republican reasons for apprehension would scarcely be lessened. The party has suffered blow after blow. Perhaps the heaviest one came from the revelations of the way in which previous Republican campaigns have been corruptly financed. The managers have had their ignominy disclosed. *That* they could endure, but they have also lost their insurance money for this year at least. The two things together make a burden greater than they can bear. It is not strange that they look forward with trepidation to their task of saving the country without the aid of funds stolen from widows and orphans.

Behind all these uncertainties of policy and ways and means, lies the uncertainty how the President will interpret the election. If the Democrats win, he will be tempted to say to his party: "There, you see what comes of not listening to me. Besides, I always did get on well with Democrats." If the Republicans succeed, he would probably, in like manner, take it as a personal endorsement, and demand that all of his miscellaneous programme be written into law at once. But there are thousands of influential Republicans who would prefer, rather than that, to see their party beaten. This adds dubiety to the prospect. Prophecy is always the most gratuitous of blunders, but this may be said with perfect safety: if the Democrats do win the next House, even by the narrowest margin, it will be accounted a great Republican disaster, in view of the large Republican majority in the present House. And President Roosevelt will be held, justly or unjustly, accountable for it, exactly as President Cleveland was for the Democratic *débâcle* of 1894. In that event, the President's philosophy, personal resource, and political skill will be put to a ruder test than they have yet had to undergo.

CHEAPENING THE CANAL.

Lovers of logic and consistency, among whom we venture to reckon ourselves, must be profoundly disturbed by the course of the Administration in purchasing supplies for the Panama Canal. If we are to stand pat, let us stand pat, without shuffling and compromise. If the glory of the country, the development of its manufactures, and the wages of its workmen demand that we pay from 25 to 500 per cent. more for home than for foreign products, let us all, including our rich Government itself, put our hands into our pockets and settle our heavy bills like gentlemen. What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander, even if that sauce happens to be the blessed protective tariff.

This question of alien machinery and materials for the Panama Canal is not raised for the first time to-day. Some time ago the Administration bought some foreign-built vessels on the wretched pretext that they were much cheaper than anything to be had in this country. Then Secretary Taft, in a letter published last January, appealed to Congress for specific direction whether or not he should continue to purchase in the cheapest market; but the oracles of Congress have remained dumb. And now a new case vexes the soul of Mr. Taft. A Scottish firm is the lowest bidder for some dredges; the Maryland Steel Company comes next. Shall the Government pay a domestic corporation from $60,000 to $70,000 more and thereby protect American capital and labor; or shall it turn to the Scot and thereby strangle an infant industry in its cradle? If the Government, which is far from bankrupt, is justified in patronizing the canny Scot, why should not the individual enjoy the same privilege? Government money is certainly not so tainted that beneficiaries of the tariff will haughtily spurn it. Indeed, your protected interest is notoriously as insatiate as the daughter of the horseleech.

The sophistry by which Mr. Taft persuades himself that he should buy in Scotland could be torn to shreds in a moment by Speaker Cannon or Secretary Shaw. As a precedent, the Secretary of War cites the purchase of large amounts of meat in Australia for the army in the Philippines—merely because the Australian meat cost about half as much as that brought from the Pacific Coast. But this example proves nothing except Mr. Taft's callous indifference to the prosperity of American packers. The foreigner pays the tax; and embalmed American beef is better for the stomach of any patriot than the juiciest sirloin produced by the pauper labor of Australia. Still another plea advanced by Mr. Taft is that Panama is "outside the tariff wall." That, on the face of it, is a mere quibble. He should view the tariff wall not as a physical entity, but as a spiritual conception. The appropriation act of 1875 expressly declares that the Government must give preference to American material; and to that act he should conform in spirit as well as in letter. The mere fact that the material is to be used in Panama does not alter essential relations. When Mr. Taft refuses to buy of the Maryland Steel Company, the Maryland Steel Company is in so far forth denied the boon of protection, and a deadly dagger is driven into the heart of one of Dingley's darlings.

In the course of this discussion some men who are secretly tariff-reformers—whatever creed they profess—have maintained that, unless the Government can buy abroad, our home manufacturers will form a combination to charge extortionate prices. No argument could be more irrelevant. The great practical benefit of protection, as we have learned by abundant experience, is that it makes possible just such effective combinations. That is exactly what the tariff is for. It is intended to give the American a weapon by which he can extort from the consumer the highest possible price. If the tariff failed to accomplish this, it would fail in everything. Adherents of protection who complain that the life is squeezed out of them by the Trusts, are about as consistent as a clergyman who should object to religion on the ground that it converts men from sin. So long as we are bound to have a tariff, let us look it squarely in the eye and know it for what it is.

Toward the end of his latest utterance on this topic, Mr. Taft lets the cat wholly out of the bag. "Some purchases," he says, "have already been made abroad and a saving effected in the purchase of comparatively small quantities of cement. In the construction of the canal an enormous quantity of cement will have to be purchased"; and presumably there might be enormous savings. In fine, Secretary Taft has a sneaking desire to build the canal cheaply. We have known some men and more women who are inspired by this sordid wish to get their clothes, their furniture, and even their houses at a cost as low as

may be consistent with good quality. These bargain-hunters have been sternly rebuked by the high priests of protection. Every devout worshipper of the McKinley and the Dingley schedules thrills when he recalls President Harrison's apothegm of the stump, "A cheap coat makes a cheap man." If a cheap coat casts such a terrible blight on intellect and character, a cheap canal would utterly corrupt our national conscience. The higher the cost, the greater our happiness, the more exalted our virtue.

SCHOOLS FOR GENIUSES.

A demand for special schools for the specially gifted is making itself heard in Germany. Notable among those advocating the plan are Wilhelm Bölsche, in his 'Weltblick,' and Dr. J. Petzoldt, in his 'Separate Schools for the Conspicuously Gifted.' Dr. Petzoldt of the gymnasium of Spandau feels his heart going out to "the highly endowed, who, misunderstood by those nearest to them, see their divine spark being slowly extinguished," for lack of proper training.

The neglected genius has always been more abundant in Germany than elsewhere, but Herr Bölsche and Dr. Petzoldt show us how to foster both unrecognized genius and the less elusive variety. The Doctor makes it clear that he is not lacking in sympathy for those slighted by nature. There are in Germany numerous schools for backward and feeble-minded children. In nearly 170 cities and towns about 12,000 of them are being educated by the State. In thus providing for them, Dr. Petzoldt asks, "Do we not allow the impulses of our heart to get the better of cool reason? Are not the especially gifted far more entitled to pity than the mentally disinherited?" He makes a strong showing for the feasibility of establishing special schools without throwing additional burdens on the State or sacrificing existing schools. He would select, say, from the fourth class of the gymnasium, twenty of the brightest pupils, to form the first class of the *Sonderschule*. The teachers, a picked corps, must be able to recognize clearly the peculiar mental gifts of their scholars. A special diary is to be kept for each. The natural sciences are to be given first place in the curriculum, the main object of all the courses being to train the student in "thinking to the very root of the subject, until hatred of superficiality becomes an instinct." The study of biology is expected to lead to a higher conception of art than prevails among the moderns, whose bizarre creations, Dr. Petzoldt incidentally remarks, are simply the result of ignorance of natural science. Psychology, biography, and English and Italian are to be compulsory subjects in the lower classes; the higher are to provide elective courses, scientific, technical, artistic. The hours of instruction are to be limited to four a day, and two hours daily are to be given to gymnastic exercises in the open air. Singing and drawing are not to be neglected.

The entire plan of instruction, by condensing two years' teaching at the higher classes of the gymnasium into one, is to enable the student to devote the time from the fifteenth to the eighteenth year to subjects usually taught only at the university. A specialist in nervous diseases, of thorough pedagogic training, is to be constantly on the lookout for any sign of over-exertion or abnormal behavior. As to the cost of establishing these *Sonderschulen*, Dr. Petzoldt argues that the 400 gymnasia and 100 *Realschulen* in Prussia would, through the elimination of their brightest pupils and teachers, save enough money to endow twenty-five *Sonderschulen*, while the gain to the country from an estimated steady supply of 3,000 unusually bright and specially trained young men would be incalculable.

There is, of course, no particular originality in the plan itself. The need of providing suitable instruction for gifted pupils has often and in various ways received practical consideration, not least in Germany itself. In the town of Mannheim, for instance, the most talented school children—about 10 per cent. of the total—have for some time been specially taught, though in the same class with those of average capacity. But there is a novelty in the almost aggressive attempt to lay down hard-and-fast rules for the treatment of genius, in disregard of the great difficulty which educators and philosophers have from time immemorial experienced in even defining the very term. If Lessing be right in maintaining that it takes genius to awaken genius, Dr. Petzoldt's initial difficulty would seem to lie in discovering the genius of the teacher. Nor is this all, for, in the new education, environment plays a very important part. Apparently, Dr. Petzoldt would as nearly as possible provide for the budding Moltkes, Bismarcks, and Kants the conditions that made their prototypes what they were. "Could a Moltke in time of peace and a Bismarck under a ruler like Frederick II. have attained their full development? Did not Kant employ all his ingenuity in the service of theological metaphysics until awakened by Hume from his dogmatic slumber?" It is true that the Faradays, Liebigs, and Schliemanns triumphed over a thousand obstacles, but Dr. Petzoldt would spare their successors an equally hard struggle—fatal, he thinks, in many recorded and unrecorded cases. It appears to him highly probable that, under adverse circumstances, even Goethe would not have given to the world his masterpieces (Schopenhauer has confessed as much for himself). He maintains stoutly—*pace* Lessing—that Raphael could not have become a great painter had he been born without arms.

Dr. Petzoldt is well aware that genius may be simultaneously creative in various directions. But varied stimulus, while imperatively called for in some cases, must never degenerate into coercion. The obstinacy of genius in rejecting instruction is often only wise recognition of its own limitations—*vide* Alexander von Humboldt, "who ought never to have been forced to take music lessons." As the object of the *Sonderschulen* is eminently practical, it may be asked what test as to the quality of genius fostered in any given pupil will be applied on graduation. Or is the output to be measured in quantity? Productivity of the right sort was defined by Goethe to be the surest touchstone of genius, though its results be only an occasional song like Béranger's. But we fear there are many perplexing problems for the teachers in charge of genius at the *Sonderschulen*.

A SELECTIVE ART MUSEUM.

At the organizing meeting of the Association of American Museums, on May 15, Mr. Benjamin Ives Gilman, Secretary of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, made an important contribution to the new science of museology by advocating a selective or anthological principle for public art museums. Mr. Gilman believes that the duty of an art museum is not primarily to afford instruction in archæology, but to minister to the pleasure that comes from the undisturbed contemplation of beautiful objects. With this end in view he would select from the possessions of a museum its finest objects, and exhibit them under the best conditions of light and space. The rest of the collections he would store or exhibit compactly for the use of students and investigators, holding such study collections open, however, to all applicants. In both the public and the study collections the arrangement would be chronological, but in the public galleries the arrangement would be based on æsthetic, in the study halls on scientific, considerations.

A twofold plea is made for this somewhat revolutionary theory of dualism. First, it is obvious that the public is unequal to the task of picking out the excellent exhibits from the mediocre or merely curious. As collections increase, the task becomes ever more vexatious. An entire public is forced to plod through miles of galleries, many of which appeal only to the professional student of art, possibly the hundredth part of the museum's public. Hence the duty of sifting the collections into an anthology. An ideal director would treat his possessions much as Matthew Arnold did the works of Wordsworth, making such a selection as should at-

tract interest and minister to culture. The special student, it is plausibly maintained, would also profit by the introduction of the selective policy. The greater part of the collections would be accessible to him, with a more compact and convenient installation, under favorable conditions for undisturbed study and in handy proximity to libraries, workrooms, and the offices of consulting curators.

The chief objections to the anthological idea were raised by Professor Goodyear of the Brooklyn Institute in a very trenchant but courteous rejoinder to Mr. Gilman's address. Professor Goodyear held that the selection of the best is practically impossible, being based simply on individual taste or caprice, and that our only certitudes are of an historic sort. Hence history and chronology are the only safe guides for a director, and the best arrangement for the student will turn out to be the best also for the man in the street. Professor Goodyear's agnostic attitude as to decisions of taste represents a way of thinking widespread among scholars. It is based partly upon a praiseworthy caution, partly upon a less commendable distrust of the emotions. As a matter of fact, the dictum, *de gustibus non est disputandum*, is practically ignored by those who preach it most vehemently. There is an absolute consensus as to the finest periods of art and as to many individual works. No archæologist hesitates to affirm that the Greek sculpture of the fifth century B. C. excels that of the fourth and third. There would be no dispute of the dictum that the Dutch painting of the seventeenth century surpasses that which precedes and follows it. Nor would any well-informed person deny the supremacy of French painting in the nineteenth century. If it were really true that taste is merely personal and helpless, there would be no such consensus of judgment.

Within these great periods, also, one does not hesitate to distinguish the varying merits of different works. The comparative mediocrity of Rubens in portraiture is generally admitted; the greater significance of Rembrandt's later works has become a truism; conversely, every one is familiar with Van Dyck's degeneration into an elegant but meaningless mannerism. We perceive in Vermeer an exquisiteness beyond that of the Dutch school, and we balance the merits of his score of surviving canvases as exactly as the tea-taster sorts tea by quality. There remains a fringe where judgment is varying—a certain number of debatable examples of art; but in all main matters these accepted verdicts of taste are quite as sure as the date on a birth certificate. Practically, a jury of connoisseurs and artists which should be asked to pick out from any museum the tithe best worth exhibiting, would agree in about three-quarters of the cases. As to the rest, a broad-minded director would give them the benefit of the doubt, exhibiting all that obtained the suffrages of two or three competent judges.

As to historical considerations, it should be noted that Mr. Gilman and Professor Goodyear, representing the advanced and the orthodox schools of museology, would treat three-quarters of the exhibits in any given museum in precisely the same fashion. The difference would be not in internal arrangement, but in conditions of public admission, and in the disposition of, say, a quarter of the exhibits. Mr. Gilman believes the finest should be selected and advantageously shown; Professor Goodyear believes that no sorting should be made by the museum, but that the duty of selection should be left to the average visitor. Mr. Gilman looks forward to a large public enjoying impressions of art, and a small public deeply studious of its history; Professor Goodyear is skeptical as to the æsthetic public, but hopes for a great increase in the number of the studious.

We hold no brief for either view, and are willing to believe that both sorts of museums have their value. But, clearly, the unwieldiness of modern collections plays into the hands of the anthologist. Wherever the number of pieces is too great for complete exhibition, the anthological idea holds. For example, print and coin departments rarely show more than a mere fraction of their treasures at one time. Resourceful curators in such departments ordinarily arrange a small permanent exhibition of the choicest pieces, and offer also periodical exhibitions from the reserve. This is precisely the policy advocated by Mr. Gilman and likely to be adopted by the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, when it moves into its new building. One may readily foresee a state of things where the general collections of museums will be as congested as the print rooms are from the outset. The cumbered state of such museums, the fatigue and distraction of their casual visitors, the increasing inconvenience of their overgrown and badly dispersed collections to investigators, will eloquently plead the cause of the selective idea.

THE COMMERCIAL CONQUEST OF SINALOA.

FUERTE, MEXICO, March, 1906.

In three years a subtle change has stolen into the life of Sinaloa. Where there was formerly vague talk of progress, with an occasional electric-lighting plant or municipal water-works adduced as an example, while knowing ones insisted on their superior knowledge of the time when the railroad from Chihuahua would reach Topolobampo, and when steel rails would entice the slumbering lead mines of Topia to activity, now there is nervous restlessness in the face of the actual fact that a great wave of industrial development is sweeping upon the State; that a railroad, with all the power and determination of the Southern Pacific Railway Company behind it, is actually being built through the fertile coastal plain; and that a well-financed land company is laying its hands upon the richest agricultural and grazing areas in the region. The effect of this, combined with the spectacle of in-rushing hordes of adventurers and investors, has been to disquiet a goodly portion of the people, who see in it, with more or less reason, the prospect of changes subversive of the old standards of living and threatening the existing social order. The wealthier classes, who hold the reins of power, number many who have travelled widely, have read much, and are not ignorant of the dominant habit of the Anglo-Saxon when he strikes deep root in a foreign soil. Already the foreign colony refers to this or that Mexican notable as being "anti-American," which is significant. The distrust of the impending commercial invasion has been communicated to the well-to-do masses, and the old-time cordial hospitality is less conspicuous than formerly, coupled with a sharp discrimination in prices, not to the advantage of the newcomer.

The working people—we may as well cease calling them *peones*, since even local usage is attaching the implication of a slur to the term—are indifferent to the ultimate results of the awakening which steam and labor-saving machinery, and their masters, may effect. They are conscious only that there is a keener competition for their services than formerly, and that this has raised the compensation from one hundred to two hundred per cent. At the same time the small planter has felt the scarcity of labor, and has raised his prices for corn and fodder and mules. The excessive rains which for two years past have damaged crops, are chiefly credited with the advance in prices, but this is only part of the truth. There is no doubt that the area under cultivation has declined because sufficient labor has not been available at the usual wages. It is difficult for the man used throughout his life to paying thirty to forty cents silver a day for ranch hands, to acquiesce in the demand for fifty cents to a dollar. He has not yet become as profoundly impressed as the common laborer with the urgent cry, from the mines in Sonora and across the Gulf of California at Santa Rosalía, for workmen, and ever more workmen, at two and a half to four dollars a day. He has not seen the shiploads of laborers disembarked at Santa Rosalía, nor the trains from Guaymas crowded with eager seekers after opulent rewards, hurrying towards Cananea, and he tries in vain to cling to the ancestral conditions while the formerly-contented workers around him are having their standards of values profoundly altered by the tales of riches so quickly won at the mines and in the service of the railroads. By not taking warning from the changes already wrought, he is thus widening the opportunity for the aggressive colonists who are coming to fill the gap.

The wiser heads perceive all this, and foresee its consequences. Hence the anti-American sentiment already noted as be-

ginning to spring up, the general increase in land values, and the unwillingness of many of the largest landholders to sell at any price. It will be hard to dispossess these sturdy Dons of their broad acres, though a multitude of the lesser ranchers must inevitably succumb. One device for their undoing is destined to hasten their catastrophe far beyond the effects of normal competition. Several years ago the Mexican Government granted a so-called survey concession to Don Luis Martinez de Castro, one of the most astute lawyers and politicians in the State of Sinaloa. The avowed purpose of this contract was to eliminate all faulty land titles, and to determine with exactness what lands were held by perfect title, all others then becoming *baldío*—that is, public and open to location. The concessionaire was accordingly required to survey, at his expense, all the lands of the State, and was given power to summon all landholders to produce their titles, in accordance with which and the laws touching the questions of *demasías* and *excedencias* * the boundaries were to be adjusted and permanently fixed and marked. The gaps thus discovered between neighboring estates would, of course, be *baldío*, as likewise would be all other lands to which perfect title could not be proved. In compensation for these services the concessionaire was to receive one-third of all lands declared *baldío* in the State, and to have the right to locate in accordance with the land laws as much more of such lands as he might choose. The only limitation of this right was that conceded to the original occupants of lands whose title proved faulty, whereby they might, within a specified time, rehabilitate their claim to ownership by purchasing the land back from the Government and the concessionaire at the Government price per hectare, which at present is $1.30 silver, or nearly 53 cents per acre.

This method of farming out a public function to an individual, whose self-interest would naturally cause him to subvert rather than sustain the old claims to title, is one with which the foreigner can have no quarrel, if it pleases the people who choose to adopt and submit to it. In fact, at the present time, it is operating distinctly in the interest of the foreigner, since this princely grant has been conveyed by the original concessionaire to the Sinaloa Land Company, a corporation financed and managed in the United States. Whether it pleases the people of Sinaloa is another question. It undoubtedly is acceptable to many who have valid titles; and its necessary effect in bringing order out of the existing chaos of conflicting pretensions to ownership can be only beneficial. It makes tremendously for financial stability and ultimate progress, but it is producing grievous distress among a large, industrious population, which finds itself threatened with reduction from a state of agricultural independence to one of complete dependence upon daily wage, or to possible tenancy under landlords.

To appreciate the opportunities for the acquisition of valuable lands through the operation of this survey concession, one needs to go back to the rise of an old institution in Mexico, which had the sanction of ancient usage in almost every country in Europe, with Far Eastern prototypes carrying the custom back into the unremembered past. This was the village community, from which so many of our common-law ideas as to *meum* and *tuum* are derived. In its essence it is a social solidarity, confirming by official instrument, in an extended and more highly differentiated form, the tribal relation of individual to individual and to the group. The rapid growth of the missions in Mexico among a people of sedentary habits, and the co-fraternity established in these groups, which were as essentially industrial as they were religious, tended naturally to just such a democracy as one of these village communities finally became. The recognition of absolute equality among all the members of a group was necessary as a means for discipline under that theocracy which the priests sought to establish, and in large part did maintain. Accordingly, royal letters-patent were issued to such groups of individuals for lands to be held and enjoyed *en mancomunidad*. A *fundo legal* of the "pueblo" was set aside, 1,200 *varas* square, with the village church in the centre, forever inalienable from the pueblo or community as a whole; a very close analogue to the old English village-green. Outside of this lay the *ejidos*, for residences and private gardens, and surrounding these in turn lay the *terrenos* for general agricultural and pastoral uses. The boundaries were determined by reference to well-known geographical features as landmarks, all duly set forth in the royal patents; but unfortunately these documents undertook to declare the areas of the lands included within the boundaries, which necessitated rude guesses at the distances between landmarks. In level country the errors need not have been very great, but in the mountains it was nearly all the result of surveying by the eye and the judgment of the observer, aided now and then by a compass. This laxity on the part of the *peritos* or estimators (we dare not call them surveyors) extended to all lands, so that in effect a recognition and certificate of landmarks was about the sum total of the benefits secured through their services. From this has arisen the conflict of boundaries which the recent survey concession is destined to remove. Whether copies of these ancient titles were kept in Spain or not, certain it is they were not recorded in Mexico. It was assumed that a man would guard his own. If he lost the very necessary royal charter to his ancestral acres, so much the worse for him, regardless of warfare, fire, and the "moth and rust" that doth corrupt. It probably assumed also that the Church was the greatest and most enduring fact in these communities, and that the priest, with his strong-box, was the natural protector of the people's interests; therefore, that the pueblos' titles would rest securely in the inviolable sanctity of the house of God. Such, in truth, is the view expressed by many a padre in his memoirs and correspondence.

To-day it is indeed a rare pueblo that has its priest; that does not see its church in ruins; that does not hunt in vain for its precious titles, or treasure some torn, discolored fragments, or perhaps a rude copy, lacking in some essential to establish its authenticity. Sometimes, in the last extremity, after loudly proclaiming "Tenemos los titulos ilesos" (We have the titles free from injury), they produce in court an unattested document, setting forth that such a one conveyed to such another his rights under a title, etc., giving dates and extracts perhaps from the original title, but insufficient to do more than establish what the universal testimony of all men for leagues around would have equally and better confirmed, viz., that the parties pretending to ownership had inherited from their immemorial ancestors lands recognized as theirs by virtue of an ancient royal grant. To the mind of the layman the existence of the pueblo, with its population so long rooted to the soil; the tradition in favor of inheritance from early ancestors who as a group received recognition of an ancient sort of tribal right to the soil, thus generously and justly confirmed by monarchs zealous, as all the world knows, for the welfare of their Indian subjects; the general assumption that the land is more likely to belong in strict justice to those who, as well as their fathers and grandfathers before them, were born and reared upon it, than to some one else who perhaps never even looked (unless perchance once or twice in envy) upon the soft beauty of its fertile *vegas* and swelling wooded uplands—to the mind of the layman these things are sufficiently conclusive, and he would know how to frame laws to protect helpless men and women and children in such rights. But the law flourishes in a realm of logic apart; and in the end, after the wave has swept over, others will come maintaining a tenure which will bear analysis under this inscrutable logic. After all, it is no more inscrutable than nature's disregard of the individual in the general scheme of racial development.

The immediate effect is that vast seeming injustice is to be done, people rendered homeless, desperate ones robbed by disreputable lawyers, who, instead of advising their clients to "agree with thine adversary quickly, whiles thou art in the way with him," will encourage them to cast aside the scanty relief which the law affords, in reliance upon a hopeless contest on flimsy documentary evidence of rights, exhausting the last dollar that had better have been paid out for a new title. Some of the *herederos* (for the owners of right in these pueblos are, in both common speech and in legal phrase, called heirs), have taken refuge in the arms of the money-lender, sacrificing large areas to protect their houses and garden plots, which, however, is the most rational procedure, under the circumstances, for those communities which are financially powerless.

The tide of foreign colonists is just setting in upon Sinaloa. It will be at full flood in about twelve months, by which time, the Yaqui, Guadalajara and Pacific Railway, as the Southern Pacific calls its west coast line, will be well on the way to Culiacan. It is now completed from Guaymas to Torin, on the Yaqui River, and is being built northward from Mazatlan at the same time. Shiploads of steel rails have arrived at Guaymas and Mazatlan, and other shiploads are afloat. It is significant that the Southern Pacific Company has found the cheapest market for steel rails for Mexico to be, not in the United

* See the *Nation*, vol. 77, No. 1993, p. 205.

States, but in the English-managed iron and steel works of Spain. It was widely reported at one time that the Gould interests were supplying the sinews for the Kansas City, Mexico and Orient Railway, which contemplates a trunk line from Kansas City to the splendid port of Topolobampo, of which a portion is now built in the United States, another section completed and operating on the central plateau of Mexico to the eastern base of the Sierra Madre, and a third section open for traffic from Topolobampo, sixty miles eastward to Fuerte. It is difficult to understand how such experienced railroad managers could have permitted so important a concession as that for a north-and-south coast line through the broad, fertile plain fronting the Gulf of California to escape them. It was a vital point in the success of the transcontinental railroad; necessary as a feeder, without which practically no through freight to and from the west coast can be expected to choose that route. The Southern Pacific has made a great strategic move in securing the concession. It makes that company master of the situation, able to develop one of the few rich virgin areas of large size north of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and to offer an outlet via Mazatlan, Tepic, and Guadalajara to the central plateau, the City of Mexico and Atlantic tide-water at Vera Cruz, and in the other direction via Guaymas, Mex., and Benson, Ariz., to the great transcontinental trunk line east and west.

The agricultural and mineral wealth of the territory thus controlled is enormous. It is a fair presumption that systematic advertisement of the region as one with lands as rich as, and a climate softer than, California will produce here a vast boom in real estate, and a crowding in of fugitives from Northern winters to revel in the balmy air, and to make merry amid the ideal beauties of rocky promontories and blue sea and dashing surf of Mazatlan, at once the most picturesque and salubrious port in the southern latitudes of North America.

COURTENAY DE KALB.

JAPAN'S FIRST POST-BELLUM BUDGET

TOKIO, April 24. 1906.

Let me begin this letter by saying that, misled by a usually trusty source, in my letter of March 31 I included in the list of foreign war loans a 4 per cent. 100-million loan which antedates the war. The part of war costs thereby balanced is covered by loans authorized in the new budget.

The Diet met on December 25, organized, was formally opened by the Emperor, and immediately adjourned till January 22. Meanwhile, the Ministry changed. The Katsura Cabinet, first organized as a makeshift, was the longest-lived and most eventful since the Constitution took effect. In war, it won the people's trust and praise. It became a victim of unpopular terms of peace. Deaf to rising clamors for an extra session of the Diet to let the nation share in plans for peace and fiscal readjustments, it meanwhile placed large foreign loans in July and November. After the "Portsmouth surrender," unwise police methods turned protests into riots. A late promise to convene the Diet on the return of the peace commissioner from Portsmouth endangered treaty ratification, and so, unkept, became a *faux pas*. After that, prolonged discussion and small concessions at Pekin brought more surprise and disappointment. Strong restraints on press and agitators kept firm the Ministry's grasp on Government, but acted as a ceaseless irritant. In time, the nation saw that Russia's vitals were safely wrapped in thousand-leagues, that "awakened China" is; like other States, a suspicious ingrate with new confidence of strength, and that some such terms at Portsmouth and Pekin were after all inevitable. Meanwhile cleavage between Ministry and nation became a chasm. Unusually late assembly and the long New Year vacation of the Diet allowed the Ministry unhindered to bring negotiations for ending war to a close. Then, even before Baron Komura was back from Pekin, it adroitly passed the reins of Government over to the Saionji Ministry, and so smoothed the way for post-bellum readjustments.

The change of Ministry before the Diet could strike a blow deftly dissipated a pent-up storm. Many things favored the smooth and rapid working of the Diet, and gave an amazing sum of legislative grist. The new premier, Marquis Saionji, enjoys the twofold prestige of liberal views and aristocratic associations. Successor of Marquis Ito as head of the Seiyukai (Friends of the Constitution), he was sure of devoted support by the strongest political party—for in Japanese politics personal attachments have greatest weight. By a catholic choice of colleagues, he avoided the resentment of those who oppose party government, and also conciliated a variety of influential interests. While others had sharply criticised the recent policy of the Katsura Cabinet, he kept an "open mind," and rather upheld the unpopular measures as unavoidable. Aid and sympathy, won by his tactful leadership, made expeditious and fruitful what was expected to be a stormy and intractable Diet.

In presenting and explaining the budget, both Premier and Finance Minister disarmed opposition by the frank avowal that the new Ministry had perforce adopted the budget of its predecessor, and so could be responsible only for its execution; that for want of time it had been unable to shape post-bellum plans for industrial and commercial expansion. In its main features, the budgetary scheme includes the budget proper, which is divided into ordinary and extraordinary parts; two supplementary budgets to cover deficits; a special supplement to complete the war budget, which is treated as a unit; a bill to continue the special war taxes; and a bill to create a sinking fund for extinguishing the war debts—the last two features being embodied in separate laws. With only slight changes, this scheme was made law. In the normal budget and in each supplementary budget, some part of the expenditures had been paid and some part of the loans placed by authority of Imperial decree. Furthermore, the war policy of economy by postponing public works of less urgent nature was continued, and the sums so saved were used to balance budgetary accounts. But, as much analysis and detail would be confusing, a summary statement of the main results will best show post-bellum fiscal measures and conditions.

The first supplementary budget covers, out of Treasury surplus, a war contingent fund deficit of 7.2 million yen for the last fiscal year. The second supplementary budget pays another deficit of 46.7 million yen, viz., 43.35 millions debt redemption paid from the last foreign loan, and 3.36 millions military pensions and sundry expenses paid from Treasury surplus. The war supplementary budget borrows 450.45 million yen to pay costs of repatriating troops, military and naval rewards, enterprises in Mantchuria and Korea, and deficits caused by rising prices. Of this sum, 88 millions had been borrowed, leaving only 362.45 millions to be placed. Furthermore, in connection with the purposes of the first supplementary and the war supplementary budgets, payments of 28.8 and 60 millions respectively had already been made by authority of Imperial decree, and so do not figure in the budgets. All the supplementary budgets were voted as proposed.

In the normal budget, the main change made in the Government proposals was a reduction of five millions in expenditures for army and navy restorations, and a corresponding reduction in the amount of loans required to balance the budget. As adopted by the Diet, the normal budget for 1906-07 balances thus:

	Revenue. Yen.	Expenditure. Yen.
Ordinary	391,186,958	354,925,475
Extraordinary	96,711,614	132,973,097
Total	487,898,572	487,898,572

The ordinary revenues are drawn from taxes, stamp and custom duties—together 278.3 millions; from Government enterprises and property 104.4 millions (tobacco monopoly 30.3 millions, salt monopoly 26.3 millions, railways 10.1 millions, posts and telegraphs 30.2 millions, forests 5 millions, convict labor 1 million), from interest and income from special funds 6 millions, from miscellaneous 2.5 millions. Extraordinary revenues include mainly 14.2 millions yielded by the sale of state properties, 2.2 millions taken from the forestry fund, 2.9 millions miscellaneous, and a balance of 75.8 millions raised by loans.

On the side of expenditure, the most striking fact is its increase. Put beside the average expenditures for the last three years before the war (1902-1904), the facts are (million yen):

	Yearly average. 1902-04.	Budget, 1906-07.	Increase.
Ordinary	167.1	354.9	187.8
Extraordinary	101.5	133.	31.5
Total	268.6	487.9	219.3

To the increase of ordinary expenditure the war added directly 172.5 million yen, viz., sinking fund for war-debt interest and redemption 110 millions, pensions and annuities 32 millions, expansion of the army 10 millions, for the navy 4.9 millions, posts and telegraphs in Korea and Mantchuria and Saghalien 1.7 millions, costs of salt monopoly and tax collection 14.5 millions. These expenses must continue thirty years or more. Of the extraordinary expenditure, the war gave rise to 79.5 millions, which go through a contingent fund to army and navy restorations (45 millions), establishment and maintenance of garrisons in Mantchuria and Korea (20 millions), and

sundry purposes. About 40 millions of this sum represent instalments on expenditures which must continue for at least six years. Other extraordinary expenditures are likewise of a recurring nature. Hence the normal budget of the next six years, if constructed on the basis of the present budget, would require at least 93 million yen yearly extraordinary expenditure, thus making a prospective yearly total expenditure of 447.9 million yen, *i. e.*, an excess over the average for the years 1902-1904 of 179.3 millions. With no change of revenues, that would mean after this year a yawning deficit of some 50 millions.

But in fact the present budget was constructed mainly on the basis of retrenchment adopted during the war. For new subsidies and enterprises and for resuming works suspended in the war, it appropriates only about 10 million yen. Besides, the schemes for post-bellum industrial and commercial expansion—long and much talked about—are promised by the Ministry for the next session of the Diet, and they must entail enlarged expenditures. Finally, the capital of the permanent funds which was used for the war should by law be restored. The Finance Minister informed the Diet that the Government could not now see its way to replenish those funds. Presumably, it will soon try to do so. In the face of all these facts, increase seems more likely than any reduction of expenditures in the next few years. Meanwhile, the 16 millions this year obtained from the sale of war prizes will in the future fall away from the present amount of extraordinary income. Also, a loan of 75.8 million yen was needed to balance the present normal budget.

In brief, the financial situation presented to the Diet in the budgetary scheme was this. The war adds to the bonded debt over 1,800 million yen, with yearly interest charges (after proposed conversions are made) of 82¼ millions. To pay this interest and cancel the principal, the Government proposed to set aside a yearly sum of 110 millions as a sinking fund. War pensions and annuities, military expansion and other new needs require an additional yearly recurring sum of 62.5 millions. As a resource to meet this 172.5 millions of yearly recurring expenditure, it was proposed to perpetuate the new and increased war taxes, with an expanded yield of about 160 millions, and to draw the remaining 12.5 millions from the Treasury surplus. Again, in the extraordinary part of the normal budget, the war causes an expenditure of 79.5 million yen for army and navy restorations, for creation and maintenance of garrisons abroad and sundry purposes. For this year, that expense is covered by sums obtained from the sale of war prizes and by loans. But about 40 millions of this sum must recur yearly for six years, and no source of revenue now exists to cover it after this year. The net result therefore is, that the normal budget this year could be balanced only by borrowing 75.8 million yen, and that at least 40 millions of the sum so covered must recur yearly for six years. But, from the normal budget so balanced, the continued policy of retrenchment has eliminated the less urgent expenditures by postponing the execution of works for which they were planned. Furthermore, it is commonly understood that schemes for post-bellum expansion, involving new and additional expenditures, must be adopted by the next year's Diet.

The whole scheme thus outlined is now law, but it was a big and bitter pill. In three points especially it was assailed by Diet and press, viz., the creation of a sinking fund, the continuation of the war taxes, and the resort to loans for balancing the normal budget. The sinking fund of 110 millions is solely to pay interest, and in about thirty years to cancel the principal of the war debt. Many thought it unwise thus to pledge a yearly sum equal to 65 per cent. of the whole ordinary revenue just before the war. It would hamper fiscal administration, put on the people unduly heavy burdens, surrender control of resources which might at times be more advantageously used, restrict the power by limiting the means for post-bellum expansion. Such an engagement now was hasty, because fiscal readjustments are not yet clear and settled. Worst of all was the means to maintain the sinking fund, viz., to continue the hastily devised and temporary war taxes *en bloc*, and still to balance the normal budget with new loans—a course that would injure the nation's credit more than the sinking fund would raise it. Finally, the Opposition was irritated by the report that the Government had, without authority of the Diet, through its financial agent in England, stated its intention thus to deal with the war debt. Against perpetuation of the war taxes, it was urged that they were hastily devised and contained some specially bad features; that the nation accepted them with slight consideration or discussion, from patriotic motives and because of the clear provision that they should end within a stated time after the end of war; that to continue them without revision was to break faith with the people after their loyal support of the war, and deliberately to fix on a heavily taxed people a radically bad scheme of taxes. Finally, the critics argued that the Ministry props up its bad financial scheme by balancing the normal budget with loans which seemingly must be recurrent. Hence, in their opinion, the sinking fund to maintain the nation's credit rests partly on a bad tax system and partly on recurrent loans. In short, the Government proposes to pay its debts and provide means for expansion by making more debts. This leads Count Okuma and others to deprecate "the present Government's loan policy."

In reply to anxious questions in committee—for there and in party councils the struggle was decided—the Government said that the sinking fund was absolutely necessary to maintain national credit, especially with foreigners; that it would be efficacious in doing so; that such maintenance of credit was needful both to bear the war burdens and to get means for future expansion; that continuation of the war taxes was an indispensable support for the sinking fund and other new expenditures; that the Government would seek new sources of revenue to substitute for loans in the future normal budget; that, while the Government regretted the necessity of both measures, there was no other way out of the present situation; that therefore the creation of a sinking fund and the continuation of the war taxes were the main basis of the present budget and of future financial policy. The Government pressed these measures with all its power, and it was rumored that their failure would cause the Finance Minister to resign. Strong elements of opposition in all the political parties brought, as usual, a compromise. The Lower House agreed to pass the measures. The Ministry agreed to appoint a comprehensively representative tax commission which should make exhaustive investigation and report within two years a scheme for tax revision, the Ministry to ask this Diet for an appropriation to pay the costs. The appropriation to pay the costs of a tax commission was, however, rejected by the Upper House. Meanwhile the budgetary scheme became law. This is in itself a feat, for Japan's budget is usually born in travail—sometimes with the aid of the Emperor's prestige; and sometimes it is still-born, being, by constitutional provision for failure of the Diet to act, merely a continuation of the last year's budget.

A few other facts will complete the survey of Japan's financial condition as shaped by the new budget. After deducting from the loans authorized in normal and all supplementary budgets those which had already been raised, there remained a total of about 425 million yen to be borrowed. The Finance Minister hinted that the indemnity receivable from Russia for prisoners' maintenance might be used to reduce this sum. But, assuming that the whole 425 millions are floated at 5 per cent. at home, then Japan's national debt will by present plans take this approximate form:

DEBT GROWING OUT OF THE WAR WITH RUSSIA.

	Amount (million yen).	Yearly interest (million yen).
Foreign bonds @4½%	600.	27.
Foreign bonds @4%	500.	20.
Home bonds @5%	705.	35.25
Total war debt	1,805.	82.25

DEBT NOT CONNECTED WITH THE RECENT WAR.

Foreign bonds @4%	100.	4.
Home bonds @5%.....about	475.	23.75
Total of other debt	575.	27.75
Grand total national debt..	2,380.	100.00

Of the above debt not connected with the war, two blocks of "Home bonds" aggregating 93 millions were in the past sold in London. Of the war debt, "Home" 6 per cents, which are being converted into 5 per cents, were sold abroad to the amount of about 130 million yen. The new sinking fund to deal with the new war debt and other existing provisions to pay the debt not connected with the recent war will, if the plans are carried out, extinguish the whole national debt within the next thirty-five years.

To sum up, Japan's first post-bellum inventory shows, as liabilities, her debt quadrupled by a net addition of 1,800 million yen, her yearly expenditures almost doubled, most revenue organs hard-worked, her financiers still seeking some needful revenue resources. As assets, she finds still growing trade and industries, a larger field with much natural wealth, release from some overhanging dangers, an alert Government and people, a new national consciousness, credit and prestige. For her, the fruits of war weigh heavily in both scales.

E. H. VICKERS.

Notes.

We learn, pleasurably for the author's sake, that Mr. James Ford Rhodes's great task, a history of the United States from 1850, is now closed with two final volumes which will appear in November (Macmillan). As it stands and may stand, it covers a little more than a quarter of a century, for Mr. Rhodes has receded from his original intention to make 1885 his goal, and ends instead with 1877—that is to say, with the culmination of the reform movement which thwarted Grant's third-term adventure, which signally revived in 1884 and again in 1892, and has since been nearly dormant except sporadically.

A new translation of the Arabic fables known as the 'Kalilah wa Dimnah' is at present in course of preparation by Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., of the University of Pennsylvania, together with two of his students, the Rev. William J. Hinke and Mr. Ellwood Austin Welden. Though the work is rapidly progressing, the book can scarcely be finished before a year or so. The authors expect to make a comparison of the text of the Beirut edition, on which their translation is based, with the other Arabic versions, and later to compare the Arabic with the Sanskrit, Syriac, and Hebrew's recensions. The book, when completed, will make two volumes, the first being devoted exclusively to the translation, and the second containing a general introduction, together with notes and illustrative material bearing on the text.

The University of Chicago Press is on the point of publishing 'The Legislative History of Naturalization in the United States,' by Frank George Franklin.

'The Mother of Clubs: Caroline M. Seymour Severance: An Estimate and an Appreciation,' edited by Ellen Giles Ruddy, will issue from the Baumgardt Publishing Company, Los Angeles, Cal.

The "World's Classics" of the Oxford University Press are to be augmented by a thin-paper pocket edition of Shakspere in seven volumes or thereabouts, the text edited by Mr. Watts-Dunton, who supplies also a preface and a bibliography to each play, while Mr. Swinburne will give an introductory discourse on Shakspere and his art. A part of the set will appear in the autumn.

The seeker after out-of-the-way knowledge will find much satisfaction in the 'Allegations for Marriage Licenses Issued by the Commissary Court of Surrey between 1673 and 1770,' transcribed from the original documents. Of the said allegations, those dating from the year 1674 to the year 1692 are bound up in a volume preserved in the Faculty Office; for all the later ones it has been necessary to examine the original records, many of them in a very dirty and dilapidated state. It is reckoned that there must be at least 9,800 of them in the MS. and not less than 20,000 names. The contracting parties appear to have belonged to every rank in social life, almost every town and village in Surrey being represented. A large number of the names known in past times in the Surrey parishes will be found in the collection. The book will be put out by Messrs. Goose & Son, No. 19 Rampart Horse Street, Norwich, in an edition limited to 100 copies.

Forewarned, forearmed. The first-fruits of the lesson taught by the destructive fire in the Library of the University of Turin is a facsimile reproduction of a surviving codex, 'Il Messale Miniato del Card. Nicolò Roselli (detto il Cardinale d'Aragona).' The prospectus of this enterprise, which is under the direction of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Turin, proceeds from the firm of Fratelli Bocca in that city (New York; Lemcke & Buechner). The reproduction promises to be in all respects generous, as befits a codex of such importance in the history of miniature illumination.

A second edition of Thomas Gold Frost's 'Incorporation and Organization of Corporations' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) brings the book—a very good one for its purpose—down to January 1, 1906 (it was in 1905 that the first edition appeared). What has made a new edition necessary has been "the material changes made in the Business Corporation Acts" by State legislatures in a single winter. The author has revised his forms and added five hundred cases. His Digest of Incorporation Acts covers one-third of the book; it begins to look, therefore, as if an annual reissue would be called for. One of the White Man's most serious burdens is his State legislatures. It is, of course, monstrous that incorporation acts should be continually overhauled and changed as they are—frequently in the interest of jobbery. A rational and well-drawn act ought to last for a generation at least.

'Fiscal Reform: Speeches delivered by the Right Hon. Arthur James Balfour, M.P., from June, 1880, to December, 1905' (Longmans), betrays further on in the title the politico-controversial quality which pertains to this volume of nearly 300 pages. It embodies, to wit, also "a reprint of the pamphlet 'Economic Notes on Insular Free Trade,' and letters from and to the Right Hon. J. Chamberlain, M.P. (September, 1903)." The author offers it as a time-saving work of reference, and while it would suggest and bear a great deal of comment, we think none is necessary. Its place is in the hands of party men in England and in libraries generally.

Similar remarks are in order respecting 'Lord Curzon in India: Being a Selection from his Speeches as Viceroy and Governor-General of India, 1898-1905' (Macmillan), which has, what is lacking in Mr. Balfour's collection, explanatory notes, an index, and a portrait. This volume is much larger, too—of double the size, in fact, and is more manifestly a displaced statesman's apologia. Lord Curzon's political future, granted health, is likely to outshine Mr. Balfour's. His selected speeches are for those who have to reckon with him in domestic politics, and again for all libraries.

Mrs. Elizabeth (Robinson) Montagu (1720-1800) was a great lady in London, where she had a salon, knew everybody, and was called "Queen of the Bluestockings." In 1742 she married Edward Montagu, who died in 1775; he and the husband of the more famous Lady Mary Wortley Montagu were cousins. Elizabeth has a small place in literary history as author of an Essay on Shakspere (1769), answering Voltaire, and of three "Dialogues of the Dead" in Lord Lyttelton's book, but chiefly by four volumes of her Letters, published in 1810 and 1813 by her nephew, Lord Rokeby. Her great-great niece, Mrs. Emily J. Climenson, has now edited, with great diligence, her correspondence to 1761, and so much more than edited it that the two handsome and liberally illustrated volumes (E. P. Dutton & Co.) might be styled a memoir. According to this filial biographer, her subject was a wholly admirable person, "purest of the pure," beloved by her dependents, and "adored by men of all opinions." "She was one of the first people to institute Sunday schools. She was as interested in Betty's rheumatism as she was in the conversation of a duke or a duchess; a discussion with bishops and Gilbert West on religion, or with Emerson on mathematics, or Elizabeth Carter on Epictetus, all came alike to her gifted nature." Yet this publication will hardly add to her laurels, for, though it contains letters from Burke, Johnson, Sterne, Young, and other eminences, it offers little beyond everyday gossip. Thus, the numerous references to Conyers Middleton, his books and his wives, include nothing more vital than his deathbed comment on the uselessness of medicines, and Mrs. Montagu's complaint (1751) of "an insolence in the booksellers, . . . a set of wretches that live by other people's wits," in proposing to print by subscription his works, for which they had paid his widow £300. More elaborate is this sarcasm (1740) on her connection, Lady Mary: "She is a woman of great family merit; she has banished her children, abandoned her husband." Mrs. Climenson has all her great-great aunt's letters (between 7,000 and 10,000), enough to fill "a large bookcase" if printed entire. As she intends to handle the rest of them (probably the great majority) from 1761 to 1800, we may hope it will be done with stern compression.

The latest issue of "Newnes' Art Library" (Frederick Warne & Co.), devoted to Fra Angelico, is true to type. There are the usual large number of fairly good reproductions of works by the artist and the usual unimportant text, and there is no perceptible improvement in arrangement. It will be neither more nor less useful than its predecessors.

'The Drawings of David Cox,' as published in the Newnes-Scribner "Modern Master Draughtsmen," will hardly add to the reputation of an artist already much overrated, at least in England. As a man, Cox was deserving of affection and admiration, but his art is only a *bon ordinaire*.

Cox is one of "The English Water Color Painters" treated of by A. J. Finberg in his little book on that subject in the Duckworth-Dutton "Popular Library of Art," and Mr. Finberg treats him sanely, but the author's remarks about Turner are more novel. Briefly, he maintains that much of Turner's later work was dominated by the desire for immediate effectiveness; that it made him vastly popular and successful at the expense of some of the finer qualities of his art; and that it is as far as possible from being the natural expression of his personality indulged in in spite of public misunderstanding. "He wishes either to conciliate, or to astonish, or to flout his audience," and produced little work of pure inspiration, most of it being tinged with wilfulness and theatricality. The illustrations tend to reinforce the judgment of the reviewer that, taken all in all, John Sell Cotman was the finest artist among English landscape painters.

Those who may wish to know what the art of Goya was like, and why he is so much talked of, will find little to their purpose in Richard Muther's monograph in the Langham series (Scribners). There is a good deal about Goya's relations to politics and history, something about his personal character, a little about his relation to earlier and later painters, but nothing that gives any idea of his methods of painting, his technical merits or defects, the essential qualities of his work. It is a book about a painter, but not about painting.

'Jerome Bonaparte,' by Philip W. Sergeant, B.A. (Brentano's), is a work made up from the best-known sources for this subject. Jerome had most of the Bonaparte defects and few of the Bonaparte virtues. Mr. Sergeant writes only for the general public, but his literary powers are not sufficient to impart freshness or interest to such a personage. The author appears capable of better work.

Dr. Hyslop's 'Enigmas of Psychical Research' (Boston: H. B. Turner & Co.) is essentially a compilation from the records of the Society for Psychical Research, interspersed with censures on the apathy of the religious and on a generation which remains stubbornly indifferent and unwilling to consider these matters scientifically. For the rest, the book has the well-known qualities of Dr. Hyslop's work, which are not precisely calculated to stir the masses. It may be hoped, nevertheless, that he may be more successful in raising a permanent endowment for the scientific prosecution of these researches than the British Society, which has not yet collected the $40,000 it demanded as a minimum.

The 'Robert Louis Stevenson Reader' compiled by Catherine T. Bryce, an Eastern primary-school teacher, will find acceptance outside the schoolroom. It is a mixture of simplified Stevenson biography and of his children's poems. The numerous illustrations in color are anonymous, but successfully catch the Willcox-Smith and Greenaway manner and are truly decorative.

A useful and suggestive list of books for boys and girls about gardening is appended to the May Bulletin of the Boston Public Library. It includes the making and care of gardens, a few stories and poems, as, Celia Thaxter's "My Island Garden," famous works containing descriptions of them, as, Homer's account of a Greek garden in the Odyssey and Hawthorne's of an American garden in 'The Old Manse,' and the leading American works on school gardens.

Three years ago, Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. put forth a blank book for original memoranda and for critical quotations called 'Plays I Have Seen'—a record over which (if the playgoing was indiscriminate) the maker might gloat or blush, like Pepys, in secret. Now the same firm issues in corresponding shape a ruled tabular blank-book for 'Magazine Articles I Have Read.' The sections are classified by topics, and for those who feel the need of this sort of aid to memory it will be just the sort of aid they will like. The duodecimo volume is neatly bound in green cloth.

The last number of the *Archæologia*, the tracts of the Antiquaries of London, contains a particularly interesting series of articles. Four relate to things Roman or Romano-British, viz., the account of the Excavations at Silchester for 1903 and 1904, by Mr. St. John Hope and Mr. George Fox, Mr. Ashby's account of those at Caerwent (Venta Silurum) for 1904, "The Linares Bas-relief and Roman Mining Operations in Baetica," by Mr. Horace Sandars, and Mr. Fox's "Notes on Some Probable Traces of Roman Fulling in Britain." There are two on English churches, viz., Mr. Cheales's description of the Wall-paintings in All Saints', Friskney, Lincolnshire, and Mr. Webb's "Notes on the Augustinian Priory of St. Bartholomew, West Smithfield"; there is a paper on the price of Judas, "The Thirty Pieces of Silver" and the part they played in mediæval legend, by M. G. F. Hill; a paper by Mr. Clement Reid on the Island of Ictis and the Ancient Trade-routes to Britain, etc., etc. Most striking of all is Doctor A. J. Evans's account of the Prehistoric Tombs of Knossos, making up a third of the whole volume. This number (vol. 59, part 2), like all the Society's publications, is profusely illustrated.

A study of the situation in the Far East resulting from the recent war, and one to be warmly commended, is that of M. Louis Aubert, 'Paix Japonaise' (Paris: Armand Colin). One might nearly guess that the author has been a student of the École des Sciences Politiques from the care and thoroughness of his method and from the impartiality of his point of view. He allows no preconception of Japanese altruism to run away with his judgment, but, by copious quotations from Japanese statesmen and publicists, draws reasonable conclusions as to the near future of the East. If for a policy of a "Japanese peace" of the Orient the author had substituted a policy of "Hands off, Europe," he might have been a shade closer the mark, but he would also have missed a good title for a good book. American commercial and political relations with the Far East are treated in chapters on "Japanese and Americans" and "The Struggle for the Pacific."

We have received and, what is more, examined with interest and profit the 'Catalogo Completo' of the publications of the firm of Ulrico Hoepli in Milan, from 1871-1905. The first date is that of the year following the enterprising Switzer's arrival in Milan, and with a just pride he gives the chronology of his "vita editoriale libraria," with all the appointments, decorations, and royal gifts which have attested his merit. Another shows his small beginning with two volumes in 1871, and his output of 144 in 1904 (in 1897, 157). Next follows a list, year by year, and month by month, of editions from July, 1896, to May, 1905, complementary to a similar one for the first twenty-five years in Hoepli's jubilee catalogue (1896). An author-catalogue succeeds, and finally a classed subject-catalogue. The volume well betokens the compiler's sense of his honorable profession. Among his clients have been Rosmini, Scartazzini, Beltrami, Gubernatis, Lanciani, Fogazzaro, Leo XIII. and Cardinal Mai, Luzzatti, G. Negri, Schiaparelli, and Villari. There is a notable line of manuals, dictionaries, and "libraries"; and juvenile books even of "indestructible" make are not *infra dig.* with this house.

To the energetic bibliographical publisher H. W. Wilson, in Minneapolis, belongs the honor of having given American librarians for the first time an adequate and convenient record of their professional literature. The first (April) number of his new periodical, *Library Work*, contains a "Bibliography and Digest of Current Library Literature" for the year 1905. Eventually the material will be cumulated, and it seems to be the publisher's intention to cover some day the literature of past years also. A large number of the titles are accompanied by excerpts or summaries. In addition to this, the number before us contains various notes and news of interest to librarians, and a short account of the H. W. Wilson Company, with pictures of its new building. *Library Work* is sent free to librarians on request.

The *Library* for April is a Shakspere number. It opens with some "Notes and Additions" to Mr. Sidney Lee's Census of Copies of the First Folio, by Mr. Lee himself. Fourteen new copies have come to his knowledge since 1902, making a total of 172 copies now known to be extant. One of the new copies was in this country in 1902, five more have followed since. In all, 61 copies of the First Folio are in America at the present time, and Mr. Lee predicts that about 1915 there will be as many copies here as in Great Britain. As he already has announced in the *Athenæum*, the copy which is now the property of Mrs. Leiter in Washington (No. LIII. in the Census) is really a perfect copy; the preliminary leaf headed "A Catalogue of the Severall Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies contained in this volume" being not missing, but bound in an unusual place. Among the other articles we might mention Mr. H. R. Plomer's story of the vicissitudes of the "Printers of Shakspere's Plays and Poems," all, or nearly all, of whom seem to have been given to illicit printing, and Mr. Arundel Esdaile's survey of the most important Shaksperian publications of the years 1091 to 1905, numbering nearly 170, with upwards of forty editions and translations of his works.

The San Francisco earthquake is the prominent subject treated in the *National Geographic Magazine* for May. Mr. F. L. Ransome, of the United States Geological Survey, gives his reasons for believing that it was of tectonic origin. He sketches the geological history of California, and maintains, from the frequency of quakes—there were 768 shocks in California from 1850 to 1886, of which 254 were recorded in San Francisco—that the Coast Range is young and still growing. Hence the region, which is cut by long north-northwest faults into narrow blocks that are in turn traversed by many minor dislocations, is in unstable equilibrium. "Under the operation of the unknown forces of elevation and subsidence, stresses are set up which finally overcome the adhesion of the opposing walls of one or more of the fault fissures, an abrupt slip of a few inches or a few feet takes place, and an earthquake results." The records of the earthquake written by the seismographs at Washington and Cheltenham, Md., are also described, from which it appears that the time taken for the waves to cross the continent, 2,450 miles, was 6 minutes and 46 seconds. Mr. H. L. Bridgman gives an account of a voyage up the Nile to the head of navigation, Gondokoro, the most novel part of which was the passage through the sudd. He received a very fa-

vorable impression of the country under Anglo-Egyptian rule, and prophesies a prosperous future from the inexhaustible richness of the soil and adaptiveness for raising cotton, wheat, cane, rubber, and tropical fruits. The remaining articles are upon the recent eruption of Vesuvius and the spring "break-up" of the ice of the Yukon.

An International Type-Facsimile Society ("Gesellschaft für Typenkunde des 15 Jahrhunderts") has recently been formed with Dr. K. Haebler of Dresden, Dr. E. Voullième of Berlin, Dr. H. O. Lange of Copenhagen, and Dr. I. Collijn of Upsala among the leading spirits. The purpose of the Society is to issue facsimiles of the types of as many incunabula as is practicable, giving two facsimiles for each type—Firstly, one full page of each in the original size, containing the M- or Qu-form on which Dr. Haebler based his classification in the 'Typenrepertorium,' and also a set of facsimiles of as many of the letters of the alphabet used as possible. Each member of the Society will have the right to ask for the inclusion of one facsimile. The annual fee is not expected to exceed 25 marks. The life-membership fee is 500 marks. The treasurer is the bookseller, Rudolf Haupt, in Halle a. S., who will handle the publications of the Society.

The expedition fever has taken hold even of Switzerland, notwithstanding its inland position. The privat-docent of zoölogy in the University of Bern, Dr. Walter Volz, will head an exploring expedition into the practically unknown Hinterland of Liberia, penetrating from Sierra Leone. The funds are furnished by the Geographical Societies of Switzerland, and the purposes in view are as much commercial and industrial as ethnographical and geographical. The scientific collections are to become the property of the museums of the Republic.

The first of the North German universities to agree to the matriculation of women is Jena, the territorial institution of the Thuringian States. Women are to be admitted to all the faculties. As is well known, only the six universities of South Germany have hitherto consented to this innovation, while those which in scholarship and prestige stand highest in the Empire, namely, Prussia's, are almost aggressively hostile to it. Not a few of the professors in these universities, in the list of courses offered, expressly advertise the fact that women will *not* be admitted to their lectures. Still, even here the ice is gradually breaking. The authorities in Berlin have announced that hereafter women students need no longer secure the special permission of each docent to attend his lectures, except in cases where the professor has especially announced that such permission is indispensable. In the office or "Quaestur" a list is displayed of those who do and those who do not admit women. Leipzig, again, has just decided that, beginning with the present summer semester, women, with the proper *testimonium maturitatis*, may be matriculated, but they will not be admitted to examinations in the law and the theological departments.

—The third volume of Smyth's Writings of Benjamin Franklin (Macmillan) continues the chronological development of Franklin's career as scientist and politician. His activities in this period, 1753-1759, were many. The Academy was a favored scheme until it ran down under Dr. Smith, against whom Franklin had a grievance. Electricity, water-spouts, and house-heating gave rise to many an experiment and homely examples in illustration of his fondness for theorizing. The Almanac appeared regularly, and the immortal 'Way to Wealth' was thrown together in 1758. As postmaster, Franklin gained influence and favored his newspaper; as a public man, he supported a militia law, opposed the claims of the proprietaries to be exempt from taxes, and drew up a plan of union for the colonies. He was sent to England to present the case of Pennsylvania, and the letters written to his wife during this visit are among the most characteristic in the book. The description of an outfit needed by a printer in 1753 is of high interest, and it is shown that Franklin was interested in printing-offices from Antigua to Boston, aiding his nephew Mecom in the West Indies and Parker in New England. The editing is well done, and only one slip attracts notice—a variation in the spelling of the name Lutwidge. Mr. Smyth's resort to the original manuscripts shows that former editors have made one letter from extracts of two or more papers, and our editor has proved in more than one instance that matter has been omitted for no good reason, and that a draft is fuller than the letter as sent. Corrections in names and dates enhance the value of this edition.

—'The Transactions of the Royal Historical Society' (vol. xix., new series) for 1905 contains, besides the presidential address, some eleven research papers communicated by as many investigators. The retiring president, Dr. G. W. Prothero, delivered his farewell on February 16, 1905, his central theme being the relation of history to both literature and science. In general his attitude is a well-balanced reaction against the ultra-scientific conception of history. The gist of his contention is that "a well-written book is a work of art; and the writing of history partakes at least as much of art as of science. If it is said that history is science, I reply that history is *not* science, and never can be science in the proper sense of that word—the sense that applies to astronomy, to physics, or to biology—the sense that differentiates science from knowledge. I grant that the preliminary processes are scientific, or rather semi-scientific; for absolutely scientific they can never be. . . . But in compacting these results into a finished whole, in laying them before the reader, we pass into another field—the field of art" (p. 20). The somewhat labored conclusion is sound enough, if not exactly original. Incidentally Dr. Prothero lets drop the interesting remark that competent historical scholars would, for the most part, name Gibbon as "the greatest of modern historians."

—It so happens that of the eleven monographs contained in this volume the two from women's pens are of peculiar interest. Miss Enid Routh recounts from documentary sources the English occupation of Tangier (1661-1683), and the story sounds like an early Philippine experiment in miniature. Pepys's sententious remark is cited: "It is plain that we do overspend our revenue; it is of no more profit to the kingdom than it was the first day . . . no more people of condition willing to live there, nor anything like a place likely to turn his majesty to account; it hath been hitherto, and for aught I can see likely only to be, used as a job to do a kindness to some lord, or he that can get to be governor" (p. 70). This has a very modern ring. Miss E. M. Leonard discusses the inclosure of common fields in the seventeenth century, and insists that this process, instead of being temporarily arrested in that period, was continuous. A curious bit of biography is rescued for us in the Rev. J. Neville Figgis's paper on the mediæval jurist, Bartolus (b. 1313). The claim is made that it was Bartolus and not Grotius who is the real source of International Law. The scholastic bent of Bartolus is well illustrated in the story recounted of his legal discussion of the property rights of Lazarus after he rose from the dead. The part that Americans are taking in the investigation of English history is shown by the fact that one of these eleven monographs—that on the Beginning of the King's Council—is the work of Prof. James F. Baldwin, associate professor of history at Vassar; while the Report of the Council makes mention of the recent presentation before the Society of a paper on The Midland Revolt and the Inquisitions of Depopulation of 1607, by Prof. Edwin F. Gay of Harvard, and also of the impending issue of 'The Minute-Book of a Presbyterian Classis in the Reign of Elizabeth,' edited by Roland G. Usher, a Ph.D. of the same university, already reviewed in these columns.

—Dr. Grenfell and Dr. Hunt, the Oxford scholars who from the first have been in charge of the field-work of the Græco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund, and have proved themselves as skilful in editing as they are expert in finding ancient papyrus documents, have recently made an informal preliminary report of the results of their excavations during last winter and the early spring, at Oxyrhynchus. They report the most remarkable discovery yet made of literary papyri, with dates ranging from the second century B. C. to the sixth century of our era. In a Roman mound a heap of broken literary papyrus rolls was discovered. Amid hundreds of smaller fragments there were a couple of cores of rolls, each containing ten or twelve columns, several pieces containing five or six, and many containing one or two. One of the longer pieces contains about 150 verses of Pindar's pæans, with the authorship proved by a coincidence with an already known Pindaric fragment. The text is accompanied by elaborate explanatory scholia. Another long poetical fragment is from the lost play, "Hypsipyle," by Euripides. Of the prose MSS. several belong to extant works of Plato, Demosthenes, Lysias, and Isocrates. The most valuable of the prose pieces is part of an unknown history of Greece, possibly by Ephorus or Theopompus. Another prose text is part of a commentary on the second book of Thucydides, different from the extant scholia. In another Roman mound, fragments were

found of a library of which the owner had been interested in the lyric poets, and seems to have owned two or three MSS. of Sappho's poems, as well as one of Bacchylides. One of these fragments of papyrus contains more than seventy lines of Cercidas, of whom only fourteen lines were known before. A Byzantine mound yielded a vellum leaf (forty-five lines in all) from a MS. of a lost gospel, telling of the visit of Jesus with his disciples to the temple at Jerusalem, and their meeting with a Pharisee, who reproaches them with their failure to perform the necessary ceremonies of purification before entering the holy place, and describes in some detail the formalities which he himself had observed. The question of the nature and value of the gospel to which this fragment belongs, is likely to provoke much controversy.

—We will add that American scholars and libraries have not given to the Græco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund the support which it deserves and might expect. It has published already in six volumes about a thousand documents of the Ptolemaic and Roman periods in Egypt, of high importance for philological criticism and for historical and archæological studies; each document being provided with introduction, commentary, and translation. Now we learn of the most important discovery of all. Another season's work of exploration remains to be done at Oxyrhynchus, and subscriptions to the fund are urgently needed. The concession for excavation closes next year. The volume containing the documents just discovered is expected to be published in the summer of 1907, and will be sent to all subscribers to the fund. The double volume of Hibeh papyri will be ready in a few weeks. Annual subscriptions (five dollars) may be sent to the secretary of the Fund, Miss Grace I. Gay, Pierce building, Copley Square, Boston.

—A third collection of historical portraits, this time of the worthies of the eighteenth century, is on view at Oxford. In the earlier portion of the series are specimens from the brush of Sir Godfrey Kneller (*e. g.*, his portraits of Addison, of Trelawney, of Atterbury, etc.), and others of the foreigners by whom English art was largely dominated at this period, side by side with works by a younger school, essentially English in spirit and style. Chief of this prosaic but most praiseworthy band was Jonathan Richardson, represented here by his portraits of Matthew Prior (Nos. 14 and 15) and of Hans Sloane (65). He was followed by Thomas Hudson—his Archbishop Potter (64) is a magnificent figure—and by such excellent portrait painters as William Hoare (George Grenville, 81) and Joseph Highmore (Edward Young, 77). The first, however, to shake off the tyranny of Kneller and the fashion of the "face-painter" was Hogarth. Number 83, representing an "Assembly of Artists," is from his hand. Had it not been for him and Hudson's great pupil, Sir Joshua Reynolds, the British school would most probably have died a natural death. The work of Reynolds and of Gainsborough, Romney, Hoppner, Lawrence, the other great figures of the golden age of British portrait-painting, not to mention that of a number of other artists only inferior to these, is splendidly exemplified in the latter half of the collection. Among the masterpieces are Sir Joshua's portraits of the poet Warton, of Lord Rokeby, of Archbishop Markham, and the famous Gibbon lent by Lord Rosebery; so, too, are Romney's Warden Oglander and John Wesley, Gainsborough's Doctor Buckler, and Lawrence's Lord Auckland, an astonishing performance for a youth of twenty-two. A word of mention must be given to the portrait of the Duke of Portland, by the American Benjamin West, and to the George III. and Queen Charlotte Sophia of the Scotchman, Allan Ramsay, who won court favor despite the claims of Sir Joshua.

—Taking it as a whole, the exhibition of this year compares more than favorably with those of 1904 and 1905. The persons represented, ecclesiastics, judges, doctors, statesmen, soldiers, are no less distinguished, while the works of art are far more attractive and more varied. Not only so, but, with the exception of three portraits of Gibbon—we have already mentioned the Reynolds—all these fine pictures have been brought together from the halls, common-rooms, and official buildings of this one university. The catalogue, as usual, is excellent; Mr. Cust's introduction is valuable, and the notes on the pictures, with their racy morsels from Hearne, Wraxall, Walpole, etc., are capital reading. An illustrated edition will appear shortly after the close of the exhibition on the 24th of May (H. Frowde).

BIELSCHOWSKY'S GOETHE.

The Life of Goethe. By Albert Bielschowsky, Ph.D. Authorized translation from the German, by William A. Cooper, A.M., Assistant Professor of German, Stanford University. Vol. I., 1749-1788, from Birth to the Return from Italy. Illustrated. Pp. xvi., 439. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

Was man in der Jugend wünscht, hat man im Alter die Fülle. To those who began their study of the great German in the good old days when texts were slovenly, and explanatory notes conspicuous by their absence, and one had to construct one's own biographical notions out of the clever flippancy of Lewes and the dry dust of Düntzer and Goedeke, the need of a real life was heartfelt. Of late years, indeed, much help has come. Apart from carefully annotated editions, there have been many essays and monographs from some of the soundest and most brilliant scholars in Germany. All these writings, however, were only partial; they gave us either views of Goethe from individual points, or discussions of certain periods or sides of his activity. It was reserved for Bielschowsky to make the bold venture of giving us the whole Goethe as he lived and wrought and triumphed, of drawing not merely the poet and student, but the *man.* And this was a venture after Goethe's own heart, for was it not Goethe's doctrine that in every writer the essential thing is the man? Further, in addition to his courage, Bielschowsky has brought to his task the two indispensable requisites: on the one hand, familiarity with the details of Goethe research, a world of scholarship by itself; on the other hand, the ability to think and feel and enjoy independently and to write with clearness and charm. The present reviewer, who has waited long and impatiently for such a life, may well be forgiven, then, for beginning his remarks with one of Goethe's favorite adages.

Yet, alas, to quote another well-worn adage: *Habent sua fata libelli.* Just as Bielschowsky was about completing his monumental work, he sank into the grave. Never very robust, he was doubtless worn out with his absorbing devotion at the age of fifty-five. The first volume of the German original appeared during his life, the second (and concluding) volume appeared the year after his death. The translator says in the preface: "The second and last volume was so nearly completed before his death that it was an easy matter for others who were familiar with his methods and aims to finish it." What is meant by *finishing?* If nothing more is meant than bringing the book to a typographical and editorial conclusion, the judgment may pass. But if to *finish* means to preserve the same vital, informing spirit to the last page and sentence, then the translator is much too optimistic. One consideration will be quite enough to make us pause. In the second German volume 112 pages are given to "Faust." Now the veriest tyro ought to know that "Faust" is the reflex and running commentary upon the poet's innermost life, almost from boyhood to the grave. When we read in the German preface, then, that only the first 22 pages are by Bielschowsky and the rest by Theobald Ziegler, we can only shake our heads and ask, Do twenty parts Bielschowsky and ninety parts Ziegler form the *Einheit* indispensable to any treatment, however humble, of the "Faust"? Verily, one need not be a witch at a riddle to suspect more than one discord between Bielschowsky and his "finisher." The very opening sentence of Ziegler (p. 591), "Faust ist eine wirkliche Persönlichkeit gewesen, vielleicht ein Schwabe aus Knittlingen," etc., comes upon us, after Bielschowsky's glowing generalizations, with the shock of a cold douche.

There are other discrepancies in this second German volume; some of them may even be due to Bielschowsky's own method of composition, to a slight weakening of his hold upon the complex subject. All such considerations, however, need not interfere with our enjoyment and appreciation of the volume before us, the first of the translation. Covering the first 417 pages of volume i. of the original, it ends with Goethe's return to Weimar from his travels in Italy. It is, to speak in German, *aus einem Guss:* a clear, homogeneous, sympathetic, and illuminating narrative and estimate of the first thirty-nine years of Goethe's life. We lay stress upon the term "narrative"; for the biographer's method is essentially that of the narrator, who tells first and explains afterwards, or, rather, who lets the explanation grow out of the narration. The method is, we repeat, after Goethe's own heart; the abstract and general are evolved from the concrete. At all events, we learn to know Goethe the man, we gain an intuition of the creative spirit shaping things to its conscious or sub-conscious impulses. And those thirty-nine years determined Goethe's individuality. Though he lived almost for-

ty-four years longer, though he produced after 1788 some of his best-known works. "Iphigenie," "Tasso," 'Hermann und Dorothea,' the 'Meister,' 'Elective Affinities,' not to mention his scientific and critical writings, all these later products emanated from a mind and were embodied in a style definitively formed. From 1788 on, there is endless variety, but there is no change.

Our first volume, then, presents to us Goethe in his formative period. The study is one of surpassing interest and value. To watch the growth of any productive spirit is a gain; how great the gain when that spirit is one which touches life at almost every point, enters fearlessly into joy and sorrow, struggles on and on toward an ever higher goal, until it reaches the clear consciousness of its powers and its limitations, an object-lesson for all thinkers! Through a good part of this volume, nearly one-half, the biographer is inevitably in competition with his hero as author of 'Dichtung und Wahrheit'—a hopeless competition, of course; yet Bielschowsky has, it seems to us, kept very happily the middle path between a mere echo and résumé of Goethe's autobiography and a sham independence. He supplements, occasionally (though rarely) corrects, often presents the situation from a different side, and always guides his readers to a more comprehensive understanding. Even the professed Goetheaner will return from Bielschowsky to Goethe with enhanced pleasure.

The core of the volume is that part (pp. 254-367) which treats of Goethe's establishment in Weimar. Not that we think lightly of the concluding chapter, Italy; Bielschowsky's handling of Goethe's peregrination in the land of art leaves little to be desired. Still, the ordinary reader knows at least something, right or wrong, of Goethe in Italy; and, after all, the connection between literature and art is self-evident, whereas Goethe's early residence in Weimar is, even to the well-informed Anglo-American, quite *terra incognita*. In truth, it is not too well known even to the Germans themselves, all but the chosen few. Court dissipation, frivolity, favoritism, desertion of the poetic vocation—all these sins and many more have been discovered in the first Weimar period. How fundamentally wrong such a conception is, our readers can learn from Bielschowsky. True, he is not the pioneer in this field; notably he was preceded by Adolf Schöll in the series of studies entitled 'Goethe als Staats- und Geschäftsmann,' published originally in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* and republished in Stoll's volume, 'Goethe in Hauptzügen.' For the ordinary reader, however, Bielschowsky's account is the more useful because simpler, briefer, more genuinely biographical. At any rate, we behold now for the first time in English garb the man who literally made Weimar, made it the centre not merely of literary and artistic impulse, but the starting-point in social and political regeneration. One of the pettiest of German states, Weimar became under his guidance the model for its more powerful neighbors. That harmony of interest which we call modern Germany and which was sealed in blood forty years ago on the field of Sadowa, started in Goethe's Weimar; we refer our readers to the conclusion of Herman Grimm's romance, 'Unüberwindliche Mächte.' When, in 1782, Goethe accepted his patent of nobility and the presidency of the Weimar Council, he had already given more than he was receiving. No man saw more clearly, carried out more strenuously, the motto: *Noblesse oblige*. During the eleven years from 1775 to 1786 he had but one abiding purpose—the regeneration of the duchy through the upbuilding of the young Duke. Accordingly, we see him throwing himself with wisdom and energy into everything, into finance and army reform, into drainage, agriculture, forestry, mining, even into the fire department. Common sense, improvement, enlightenment, humanity—above all, *economy*—were his ceaseless preachment. Never has a young ruler been moulded for the right with such utter frankness, yet with such marvellous tact, as Karl August was moulded by his prime minister, only eight years his elder. When at last in 1786 the prime minister literally ran away to Italy to seek rest for the body and rejuvenation for the overworked spirit, he could whisper to himself, as a *nunc dimittis:* My Duke is now able to rule without my daily presence.

Naturally, the unsophisticated will exclaim with honest regret: But all these years were lost for literature, for poetry; the genius of the German folk was fretting himself away over dollars and cents, ministerial squabbles, court intrigues, bureaucratic red tape. In truth, Goethe thought as much in moments of despondency. More than once Pegasus was on the point of kicking over the traces and bolting. Yet Goethe's calmer mood always led him back to reason. He learned thoroughly the lesson which many of his readers are only now beginning to apprehend dimly, namely, that a great writer's final training-school is life. In wrestling with the hard, arid actualities of life, Goethe acquired that poise of thought, that delicately adjusted moderation of utterance, which were to be thenceforth his chief distinction.

A single quotation will make our meaning clear. A sufficient number of our readers are acquainted with 'Werther,' the masterpiece of Goethe's youth. It is a work of which any writer might be proud, and—in a sense—Goethe himself never produced anything better. It is powerful, elemental. Nevertheless, in the light of Goethe's maturer genius, it is crude; it is lacking in poise and moderation. We ask our readers to compare with it the following, from the paper on Granite, based on the notes taken by Goethe during his Harz trip in December, 1777, though not worked out until 1784 (pp. 340-341):

"I do not fear the reproach that it must be a spirit of contradiction that has led me from the observation and description of the human heart, the most recent, most complex, most mobile, most changeable, most perturbable part of creation, to the consideration of the oldest, hardest, deepest, firmest son of nature. For it will readily be granted that all natural things have an exact relation to one another, that the searching mind does not willingly allow itself to be excluded from anything attainable. Let me, who have suffered and still suffer many things from the variations of human emotions, through their quick changes in myself and in others, enjoy the sublime peace which that lonely, silent presence of great whispering nature bestows, and let him who divines something of it follow me.

"With these sentiments I approach you, ye oldest, worthiest monuments of time. Sitting upon a lofty, barren summit, and overlooking a wide landscape, I can say to myself: 'Here dost thou rest directly upon a ground that extends down to the deepest places of the earth; no newer stratum, no heaped-up, washed-together fragments have been deposited between thee and the solid bottom of the primeval world.' . . . In this moment, when the earth's inner powers of attraction and motion are exerted upon me directly, as it were, when the influences of Heaven hover about me more closely, I am attuned to the higher thoughts of nature, and, as the human mind is wont to see a soul and life in everything, there dawns upon my mind a comparison, the sublimity of which I cannot resist. 'So lonely,' I say to myself, as I look down from this utterly barren summit, and even at the foot in the distance can scarcely see a bit of puny moss—'so lonely,' I say, 'will that man be who opens his soul to none but the oldest, first, and deepest feelings of truth.' Indeed, he can say to himself: 'Here, upon the oldest eternal altar, reared directly upon the depths of creation, I offer to the Being of all beings my humble sacrifice.'"

'Werther' was completed in the midsummer of 1774. We can now estimate the progress in these Weimar years. The transition illustrates Goethe's brief essay on Imitation, Manner, Style, which, although aimed directly at art, is also applicable to literature. 'Werther' is in the author's best "manner"; the Granite essay is in his noblest "style."

High as we rate Bielschowsky's treatment of Goethe's first Weimar period, we feel constrained to admit that it might have been fuller in one respect, namely, in the elucidation of the purely personal element in the relation between Goethe and the Duke. Herein our biographer is less satisfactory than Herman Grimm in his 'Goethe Vorlesungen,' ii. 1-22 (ed. of 1877), the lecture entitled "Carl August und Goethe in den zehn Jahren." Grimm's tone could scarcely have been more delicately sympathetic had he been an eye-witness of this extraordinary friendship. His charm is due for the most part to his appreciation of Goethe's poem "Ilmenau," given entire in Von Loeper's edition of the 'Gedichte' (ii. 36-41). Composed for the Duke's birthday, September 3, 1783, it remained in manuscript until published by Goethe in the 1815 edition of his works. In 191 verses the poet sketches with all his cunning a daring situation. The language is veiled, yet—to the initiated—the thought is obvious. The poet pictures a hunting party camped by a fire in the woods; some of the portraits are still recognizable. Their youthful leader, however, is apart in a hut, asleep. Approaching the hut, the poet is challenged by his double, watching over the sleeper. The watchman refuses to reveal clearly who and what the sleeper is. With an indescribable mixture of delicacy and firmness he intimates his own shortcomings and their half-justification, but is scarcely able to tell whence he has come or how: *Wer kennt sich selbst?* As for the sleeper—

"A noble heart turned aside from Nature's path by narrow destiny. . . . Assuredly the years will give to his powers their true direction; meanwhile, with all his fondness for the truth, error is his passion. . . . Gloomily wild in mirth, boisterous without gayety, bruised and wounded in body and in spirit, he falls asleep on his hard couch, while I, silent and scarcely breathing, my eyes directed towards the free stars, half awake, half dreaming, can hardly shake off the dream-spell."

Truly, a unique blending of devotion and admonition.

A word or two upon the translation. Evi-

dently it has been made with scrupulous care and regard to our English idiom. It reads smoothly and reproduces the original closely. The passage quoted from the paper on Granite is a fair specimen of the translator's skill in overcoming difficulties. In view of this labor of love kept up through hundreds of pages, the generous critic will refrain from harping on minutiæ. We note only a few passages in which the translator has made what may be called a slip. The description of Wilhelm Jerusalem (p. 157) is scarcely intelligible without the original (p. 159). And the same holds good of the paragraph (p. 207): "It was woman's work that *compromised* the misunderstanding between Goethe and the Jacobis, etc." The italics are ours; the original (p. 211) reads "Es war Frauenwerk, das den Zwiespalt zwischen Goethe und den Jacobis . . . ausglich." At page 231 the translator renders: "In 'Lilis Park' he [Goethe] has given us an exaggerated picture of such situations, portrayed in passionate Storm-and-Stress style." This is a sheer perversion of the original (p. 234); Bielschowsky wrote: "In 'Lilis Park' hat er einen mit genialer Heftigkeit gesteigerten Reflex solcher Situationen hinterlassen." That Goethe would ever have admitted his charming little poem to be in passionate storm-and-stress style, we take the liberty of denying; "Lilis Park" was *in* the storm-and-stress, but not of it, and Bielschowsky has not said that it was of it.

In the matter of illustrations, the American publisher has been generous where his German colleague was decidedly parsimonious. In this first volume alone we got ten, against two in the whole German original. Still, we should gladly have exchanged Goethe's House in Weimar for the Tischbein Goethe in the Campagna, which opens the first German volume; this Tischbein Goethe is the fitting accompaniment to the Italian Journey. Paper and press-work are excellent.

ENGLAND'S WHIG PARTY (1807-1821).

Further Memoirs of the Whig Party (1807-1821). With some Miscellaneous Reminiscences. By Henry Richard Vassall, Third Lord Holland. Edited by Lord Stavordale. With Portraits. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

This is an Old-World book, containing Old-World gossip, and written by an Old-World politician. Of new information it contains little or nothing; the topics with which it is filled can but slightly interest the readers of to-day. Few care to hear about the indubitable virtues and the equally indubitable dulness of the irreproachable Francis Horner. The vagaries the follies, the doubtful virtue, and the certainly hard treatment of Queen Caroline can now evoke neither a tear nor a smile. The meannesses of her contemptible husband are almost too petty to arouse indignation, and now too unimportant to kindle active contempt. Who can really care much about the dulness of Mr. Perceval or even the so-called Peterloo massacre, which, after all, to any student of the State trials, will seem to have been no massacre at all? The plain truth is that the heroes, the patriots, the intriguers, and the villains of 1815-21 were a very poor lot. Their goodness and their wickedness are equally interesting. Yet the Old-World character of Lord Holland's book lends it a curious interest. The reader who learns from it nothing which is, taken in itself, of any great importance, is yet perplexed by one question which well deserves consideration: Wherein consists the "Old-Worldliness" of the society of which Lord Holland was at once the member and the chronicler. Why is it, in other words, that the England of 1807-1821, which is divided from us by not quite a century, seems almost as unlike the England of to-day as are the times of Charles II.?

The first answer to this inquiry is, that the English society whereof Lord Holland has painted to the best of his ability the interests and the follies, formed, even in his day, but a small part of the life of England. It was, after all, little else than a circle of Whig noblemen, of Whig writers, and of Whig politicians. It was a little world which derived its importance from the special conditions of public life at the beginning of the nineteenth century. These conditions have changed, and no society now exists which really resembles the class of superior persons who met together at the dinners of Holland House. The reform of Parliament and all that went with it meant much more than a mere redistribution of seats, the parliamentary enfranchisement of the £10-householders; it meant at bottom the overthrow of a constitutional system under which the Crown, the nobility, and a certain number of rich merchants were virtually the body who governed England. No doubt men took a part, and an active part, in politics who were neither landowners nor men of wealth, but it was difficult for any man to obtain entrance into Parliament or to take any effective part in public life unless he found a patron in the Crown, or in some nobleman or man of wealth who could dispose of seats in the House of Commons. True it is that the Parliament more nearly represented the sentiment of the mass of the electors than is generally supposed by observers who note only the anomalies of a representative system which might seem framed for the very object of not representing the will of the people. A curious remark of Lord Holland's, that even the borough of Calne, where the Lansdowne "influence" was almost supreme, could probably not have been induced to return a member who should advocate the resumption of cash payments, is significant. Boroughs which were close or corrupt might occasionally, under the pressure of strong public opinion, show an unexpected independence. It may, indeed, be doubted whether on any great question, such as the resistance to the American Colonies, or the war with France, the unreformed Parliament ever substantially misrepresented the dominant feeling of the nation.

The system, however, which gave immense weight to influence and connection, made the personal character of a small body of statesmen and politicians of extraordinary importance. We feel through every page of Lord Holland's book the immense weight attributed in the political world of his day to the characters, the peculiarities, and even the manners of leading politicians. Hence the best feature of the Memoirs: they contain valuable pictures of individuals. Lord Holland, indeed, was not, from a literary point of view, a great artist. He was, moreover a thoroughgoing party man. He never for a moment forgot the principles or the prejudices of a good Whig—every one who opposed Fox was, in Lord Holland's eyes, in the wrong. But, for all this, he was a man of sound sense and of great good nature, and was born with a certain natural kind of fairness; hence his sketches of contemporaries are always worth consideration.

Few things are better in their way than this summary of the character of the Marquis of Wellesley: "He had," writes Lord Holland, "more genius than prudence, more spirit than principle, and manifestly despised his colleagues as much as they dreaded him. Unlike most English politicians, he was rather a statesman than a man of business, and more capable of doing extraordinary things well than of conducting ordinary transactions with safety or propriety." Even to George the Third he is fair; at any rate he sees, what few Whigs could bring themselves to acknowledge, that the King, by whom at every turn they were defeated, was a monarch of some virtues and even of some remarkable though limited talents.

"He was," to quote Lord Holland's language, "a man of principle, honest, and anxious in forming his rule of action, sagacious in the application and steady in the observance of it; but then his views were narrow and mischievous, his judgments warped, and his feelings illiberal. His distrust of mankind made him deem insincerity necessary and justifiable. He practised dissimulation, and in some instances simulation likewise, without scruple. If he had the heart of a courageous and the talents of a dexterous or shrewd man, he wanted the enlarged understanding which constitutes wisdom, as well as all elevation and refinement of sentiment which shed so much lustre on rank. He was, too, a stranger to every generous affection which renders a prince either amiable or benevolent. There was nothing great, nothing kind, nothing open, nothing graceful in his character or manners."

This summary of George's character makes, at any rate, intelligible the power which he in fact exerted. But even the authority which a King of England endowed with high courage, a strong will, inexhaustible industry, and, above all, unfathomable cunning could exercise for nearly half a century, is a far less sure proof of the existence of a state of things utterly unlike the social and political situation of to-day, than the power ascribed by men of ability to a worthless and cowardly voluptuary such as George IV. Lord Holland's Memoirs make it clear that, in the opinion of the Whigs, the Prince of Wales could, on becoming Regent, have transferred political power to the friends and the flatterers of his youth. He could, they certainly believed, have reversed the policy of the nation. Whether, indeed, the faith of the Whigs in the power of the Regent would have turned out better founded than their trust in his promises and expressions of good will, may admit of question. It is, however, certain that the Regent, with all his defects, might, if he had possessed the requisite ability and character, have exercised an authority perhaps as great as that which falls to-day to an ordinary prime minister. However this may be, the expectations formed by friends and foes of

the change which might be worked by the Prince of Wales becoming Regent, is proof, if proof were needed, that the Government of England lay, during the times in which Lord Holland was the chronicler, in the hands of a small body of wealthy men. It was in fact, though not in name, an oligarchy, among whom the King could, if he had chosen, or had possessed the requisite ability, have played a leading part.

If, however, the first answer to our inquiry is to be found in the change which the social and political conditions of English social life have undergone since 1821, the true answer must go rather deeper than any reply which depends wholly upon the visible changes either in the form or in the working of the British Constitution. The most satisfactory answer which can be given in a few words, is that the external revolution in the political life of England is merely the outward sign of a changed spirit. A man must be a bold optimist if he can confidently assert that the Englishmen of to-day are better or wiser men than were their grandfathers. The man must be a confirmed pessimist who can express a confident assurance that the changes wrought by a century of so-called progress have wholly or mainly worked evil. All that a sensible observer can venture to suggest is, that the England of 1820, whether better or worse, was in spirit no less than in institutions essentially different from the England of 1906. A whole host of ideas, good and bad, which make up the public opinion of to-day, were, to judge from Lord Holland's Memoirs, almost unknown to himself and his associates. Of theological disputes, except in so far as they touch directly upon politics—*e. g.*, in the conflict over Catholic Emancipation—he writes little or nothing; for political economy or economical problems he and his friends cared, we may suspect, very little. No doubt in 1821 if you stepped outside the society which had its centre at Holland House, you might have heard many things which did not interest the Whigs whom Lord Holland entertained and Lady Holland bullied. For, in truth, the Whigs, whose hero had been Fox, were, with all their merits, behind rather than in advance of their time; their claim to our respect is, that, in a time of political reaction, they preserved their faith (though it was a rather narrow faith) in civil and religious liberty. But they certainly had little prescience of the then coming time. Lord Grey, though the accidental leader in the pacific revolution carried through by the Reform Act, was essentially an aristocrat; he also belonged to the body of Whigs who believed in protection, and believed in it partly because it maintained the influence of landowners. The Whigs of that day did not turn their minds vigorously toward economic problems. During the years, indeed, which elapsed between 1821 and 1832 the younger members of the Whig party who did not belong to the great Whig houses had become steeped in Benthamism, and aided in the production of that change of opinion which is typified by the transformation of Whigs into Liberals. But Lord Holland had, as a true adherent of Fox, very little sympathy with the middle-class Liberalism which became dominant after the Reform Act.

Nor, again, did the Whigs as a body share that passion for national independence which, under the form of the nationality movement, colored European politics say from 1835 to 1870. It was from the Tories, not from the Whigs, that the Spaniards received sympathy in their resistance to the power of Napcleon. The desire to promote constitutional government abroad and to preserve popular government against the threats of the Holy Alliance, was exhibited by Canning; but Canning was the disciple not of Fox, but of Pitt. And Palmerston, who in latter years carried on the policy of Canning, was always in sentiment rather a Liberalized Tory than a Whig. At home no less than abroad the Whig Party displayed a singular incapacity for entering into national feeling. The whole attitude of Lord Holland towards Napoleon betrays a defective appreciation of all that was at stake in the life and death contest between England and the Emperor. But this is not all. The bitter resentment of the Whig leaders at the treachery of the Regent is fully justified if you regard the question from a wholly personal point of view. Anything baser or more treacherous than George's conduct is not easily imagined; nor can one honestly suppose that he was influenced by the belief that, if he betrayed his friends, he was loyal to the interests of the nation. On no single occasion, as far as history can be trusted, did he ever prefer any interest whatever to his own immediate comfort and pleasure. But if the charges brought against the Regent are looked at from a national rather than a personal point of view, George's character is not raised, for no one could suppose that he gave even a passing thought to the welfare of the nation; but the character of the Whigs is placed in the most unfavorable light. It was as clear as day that the one vital matter was that the nation should be united in its resistance to Napoleon. The best of the Whigs knew this, and insisted upon the necessity of every Englishman standing firm on behalf of the independence of England. It was also clear that English opinion supported the Tories, yet the Whigs were prepared to accept office from the Regent, and this though they were apparently divided in their views as to the war with France.

But the strangest matter of all is, that the Whigs who denounced and resented the influence of the Crown when that influence was in the hands of George III., were prepared to use the influence of the Crown when it had been transferred to the Regent for securing the rule of the Whig Party. This, at least, must seem to a candid reader to be the inference necessarily suggested by Lord Holland's Memoirs. It assuredly is completely in keeping with the conduct of Fox as leader of the Coalition, and later, during the debates on the Regency, when the Whigs seemed on the point of driving Pitt from power—that is, of overruling the will of the nation by obtaining the patronage of the Prince of Wales on his becoming Regent. Nor is it fair to ascribe conduct to them which most historians now blame wholly to party spirit; it was due, in great part at any rate, to two features which characterized the Whigs between 1760 and 1830—they were, speaking broadly, a party which in some respects advocated good causes; but they were never able to raise their thoughts above party feeling and to recognize the supreme importance of bowing to the will of what Chatham calls the "Great Public." And though, under the influence of Fox, they sometimes adopted and played with democratic sentiment, they were never democrats; they believed, in reality, not in the sovereignty of the people, but in the sovereignty of Parliament.

MORE NOVELS.

Between Two Masters. By Gamaliel Bradford, jr. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Diplomatic Adventure. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D., LL.D. The Century Co.

The Lady of the Decoration. By Frances Little. The Century Co.

The world-old theme of the soul hesitating between God and Mammon will probably never be exhausted, certainly not abandoned, by novel writers. The modern purely philanthropic novel is now old, too, and begins to specialize itself. To teach the orphan boy to read, the orphan girl to sew, is superseded. There must be improved ways of living, and an equal number of ways of teaching those ways. 'Between Two Masters' is a record of conflict between the opposing forces of good and evil in the very concrete forms of "tainted money" on one side and modern Boston Settlement work on the other. Amos K. Phelps is rich and philanthropic, but his money has been made in the stock market and Trusts; and as "to be rich means simply making some one else poor," he stands for Ahriman. On the other side are the Episcopalian Church, the Settlement, the Tenement; in between stands, hesitant, Harvey Phelps. The millions are his if he will go into business with his uncle—with an easy-going athletic cousin to wife, if he is so inclined. A moderate competence and the approval of his conscience are all that Ormuzd promises, but in the end a saintly girl is thrown in, and virtue not only is, but has, its own reward. On the side of light are an ascetic rector and Diana the Settlement Saint, skilled in all latter-day sanitation and tenement accommodation; the powers of darkness behind the uncle are Phelps's golf-playing daughter, a comic journalist, and a frivolous girl. The love affairs of the group are remarkable for interchangeableness, and for the entire frankness with which the young folk plot and plan for one another's weddings, playing a kind of game of progressive hearts. The kernel of the matter, however, is not the story, but the arraignment of the top-heavy fortune and the exaltation of personal Christian consecration to good works.

A pleasant half hour for the reader lies tucked away between the covers of 'A Diplomatic Adventure.' A Dumas-like set of persons is made freshly interesting by being assigned parts in a Franco-American tangle during the dark days of the civil war, when recognition of the Confederacy was the international menace. Dr. Weir Mitchell contrives, as only an accomplished writer could contrive, to bring into his little novel mystery, conspiracy, comicality, diplomacy and romance, with probability enough to keep unbelief at bay. French and Yankee swashbuckling are contrasted

picturesquely. The diplomatists are reasonable and human, and the fact that he who tells the story is neither the real hero nor his Boswell is refreshing. The valet in the pay of both the Empire and the American Secretary, with his sly, recurring "circumstances," is a crisply modelled little figure of fun. And the hiding-place devised for the valuable papers is far too good a one to be here disclosed.

'The Lady of the Decoration' gives very pretty pictures of Japanese life, landscape, babies and mothers, and very comical ones of the Kentucky woman implanting in Asiatic minds the seed of American knowledge, under missionary auspices. The babies were taught to laugh and romp; the class in physical culture studied "skipping," and initiated the mothers in that tonic exercise. The young teachers were instructed in psychology—effectively, we may be sure, for one of them handed in this definition: "Reflex action is of a activity nervous. It is sometimes the don't understand of what it is doing, and stops many messages to the brain, and sends the motion to the legs." The young Kentuckian reflects in her narrative the flowery charm always to be expected of Japan, and is able even to enhance it by her special experiences, for they include many little every-day contacts acquired in the routine life which she leads as a teacher in winter, with summer vacation journeys into holiday places. With these peaceful affairs is contrasted a glimpse of the Japanese-Russian war, the horrible sights of the hospital, the gay departures of the soldiers, the harrowing bravery of the women. "I hope," writes the American, "I shall never get to the point of believing that it's right for strong, useful men to be killed or crippled for life in order to settle a controversy."

The book is in the form of letters, wherein pluck strives with homesickness for the mastery, and humor—a truly American humor—with a sentiment made rather overprominent by the first person singular. It is to be hoped that the little Japanese did not copy their teacher's wills and shalls, unless, indeed, they reversed them. The missionary accessories tempt her mirthfulness into an occasional lapse from taste; and it may be added that though the letter-writing form makes colloquialism more than allowable, the slang should be tempered with mercy for proportion's sake, since it reaches the reader in cold print. Mr. Henry James has said that Mrs. Kemble "was a constant proof that the richest colloquial humor is not dependent for its success upon slang, least of all (as this is a matter in which distance gilds) upon that of the hour. I won't say," he adds, "that her lips were not occasionally crossed gracefully enough by that of 1840." It may be that in 1980 Miss Little's slang may appear as graceful and gilded as a Japanese fan.

The Cathedral Builders in England. By Edward S. Prior, M.A., F. S. A. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905. Pp. 112.

This is one of the Portfolio Monographs, and although very many of them are of great importance, admirable books to read and to keep within reach of the hand, it may be thought to overtop them all. Mr. Prior is the author of a 'History of Gothic Art in England,' which appeared in 1900 and was duly reviewed in these columns. Since that date Mr. Prior has thought much upon the theme, and what he has to say now is most impressive. The present is not to be regarded as in any sense an abridgment of his former work; yet, treating an important subject from one point of view, it may be thought to give to many readers that which the more exhaustive work will not give. The general title includes much, for, in Mr. Prior's presentation, the mediæval building from the beginning of the pointed style in England until the sixteenth century was very largely in the hands of the same artists who were in charge of the cathedrals.

Of the nine chapters, each stands for a period of time. The first period, 1066 to 1150, deals with the Saint Albans crossing (that is to say, the important open space where the transept crosses the nave and choir), with the crypt and transept of Winchester, the transept and nave of Ely, and so on through eleven churches, all of cathedral rank. There is also the note, given in the place where it is most needed, that in two of the churches in question where "choir, transept, and nave" are studied, the "crossing" itself is a nineteenth-century rebuilding. In this way the reader is told exactly what is under examination—the still unmarred ancient structure in this part and in that of any given church. Thus at the very outset is struck the keynote upon which the whole symphony is to be composed. To draw the sharpest possible line of division between rebuilt, reconstructed, "restored" nineteenth-century copies and the originals, no matter how close the imitation may seem to the ignorant and the careless, and to find out by study of the authentically ancient parts, larger and smaller, what the old artist was after—that is Mr. Prior's worthy and much-loved task. He makes it clear at the beginning that he does not look on the architectural mass alone—the proportions, the majesty, the dignity, the general style—as the characteristic works of the eleventh-century and twelfth-century artist. The detail—the sculpture and the painting and the glass—requires all that the keenest observer and the most fearless critic can express by way of minute characterization.

The fourth chapter has to do with the "Summit of Gothic Art," 1250 to 1290, and names ten parts of churches, such as the choir of Old St. Paul's, the nave of Lichfield, and the chapter-houses of Wells, Southwells, and York. Herein lies the most serious part of the author's attempt to show that the European uniformity of Gothic architecture in those later days may have been largely the result of the French evolution of the style, while the battle begun in the earlier chapters against the general assumption that Gothic architecture is a French art is still continued. We do not much admire that patriotism which makes a writer contend for the origin, in his own little political division of Europe, of some great movement in art or literature; but in the case of Mr. Prior and his patriotism there is a vast knowledge of details—details of building and of ornamentation, discoveries of date and of individual influences, minute comparisons of sculpture with sculpture, arcade with arcade, all over England and Wales. So many foolish theories are here set upon and routed that the chief enemy is left unmentioned until another chapter has been begun. Much is made of the fact that the architecture of Angers and of Anjou generally is about the last which can be thought to have influenced English twelfth-century work; but if any assertion to the contrary was ever made, it must have been by historians of dynasties and foreign wars, not of architecture. One can see the "closet historian" and his suggestion of reasons why Gothic must have come to England from the Continent: "Why, don't you see? Three Angevin kings in a row, Henry II. and his two sons, and just at that period, too, 1154-1216. Of course, it was in this way that the Gothic was introduced." That, however, is not the assertion of the more serious students of the art.

The question as to where the ribbed vault and the vaulting-shaft first came in as a supersession of the Romanesque ways of building, has been answered by non-English writers with the statement that the neighborhood of Paris, the old royal domain of France, saw the beginnings of the new art. One exceptional building is in Normandy and puzzles everybody, but in general a circle drawn with a radius of forty-five miles, with the Cathedral of Paris as its centre, would contain the buildings in which the Gothic vaulting perfected itself; and our quarrel with Mr. Prior is that he seems reluctant to accept the peculiar vaulted structure with constructional ribs and flying buttresses as the one test of what is Gothic. The earnest appeals of the Introduction, the appeal to the sense of mystery, to the love of irregularity, to the love of originality, to the love of color, are to be accepted as a truthful rendering in words of what Gothic architecture says to us. The mistake seems to lie in the assumption that the color design, the carving, the moulding, the irregularities, the originality and dash, are essentially Gothic. They are not Gothic, at least not in a peculiar sense; they are the characteristics of any living art, of an art in its springtime. And if the copies of thirteenth-century Gothic are wretched things, as we are told on pages 15, 18, and elsewhere, it is not an unexplained mystery that they should be so. Given a rebuilt nave, we hate it because it replaces a lost work of the thirteenth century; because we do not feel sure that this was what the mediæval artist intended; because it is very hard and exact, and we believe that the old work would have been less precise; because it has no accidents or failures; because it shows no signs of old, half-effaced painting; because, finally, it disagrees, in its accuracy, with the less methodical old work with which it is associated. It is true that some of our dissatisfaction with new Gothic buildings, when of the highest type, is unfounded. The reasons for our rejection of these are not the lack of the evidences of growth, of the visible "procession of mighty forces" (p. 18), but the mixture of real and imagined inferiority which we find in the new-built piece of work. And if it is found that a good modern design such as Truro Cathedral is still disregarded, or is looked at with disfavor, that is because the modern world is wholly

out of touch with Gothic architecture. Mr. Prior asks (p. 107) why Truro was not built of the material found near at hand, the granite of the hills, and finds a partial answer in the fact that "Pearson, a nineteenth-century architect, . . . having learnt his Lincoln Cathedral, . . . could only use a stone in which the Lincoln detail could be worked." He was "obliged to repeat himself and give his clients what they had been trained to expect." Precisely! And it is because the modern architect cannot build freely, because he is an archæologist in the first place, because he cannot go to a granite country and make a granite Gothic, even as the Breton architects did in the fourteenth century. It is not because Truro Cathedral is like Lincoln that it is not great architecture; it is not even because it is built of foreign stone that it is not great architecture. It is very good and very freshly imagined work; and if it is not still better than that and really a great design, that is because one cannot make a great design all by himself. He must have all the master builders of his time (whatever you call those master builders) working in harmony for a common result. It is only under these conditions that great designs are possible.

Die Ausgrabungen auf dem Forum Romanum, 1902-1904. Von Christian Hülsen. (Römische Mittheilungen xx. 1.). Rome: Löscher. 1905.

One of the best features of the journal of the German Archæological Institute at Rome used to be the publication from time to time of Dr. Hülsen's reviews of recent work on the topography of ancient Rome. The cessation of this series was a cause of earnest regret to many readers of the *Mittheilungen* on this side of the Atlantic, as in Europe. Three years ago the series was resumed in a somewhat more limited form, being confined in subject to recent discoveries in the Forum; but Hülsen's article filled an entire number of the journal, and was later issued in a separate form. The present article is of similar extent, and is illustrated by four plates and fifty-two cuts in the text, some of them reproducing early views and drawings, otherwise practically inaccessible. Between the publication of these two accounts Hülsen has also issued an invaluable little hand-book on the ancient remains in the Forum, which has been mentioned in these columns and has just appeared in a second edition. It is shortly to be published in an English translation by Prof. Jesse B. Carter of Princeton University and the American School in Rome.

The wide interest that the recent extensive excavations in the Forum—more far-reaching, more scientifically carried out, and more richly productive in results for history than any earlier work in the same region—have awakened among intelligent travellers, makes a brief summary of Hülsen's judgment on a few of the especially controverted matters not without interest for other than special students of the subject.

There has been a unanimous wail from students at a distance from Rome that the official journal of all excavations carried on by the Italian Government, the *Notizie degli Scavi*, is so preternaturally slow in publishing full and authentic accounts of the discoveries in the Forum. It may be that Commissioner Boni is too busy with digging to study and write. But prompt publication is as much the duty of the archæologist as active and careful digging, and such work as that in the Forum ought not to be treated as a purely Italian family affair, in which outsiders need not interfere. Prompt and authentic news of the work we need and have a right to request with some degree of insistence; rhetorical and other more scientific discussion can await the excavator's greater leisure. It is some comfort to notice that Hülsen shares in the widespread criticism of the pen's delay in this matter, and some satisfaction that, since his remarks were printed, a fourth report on the prehistoric cemetery has actually appeared in the *Notizie*.

The identification of the piece of hewn native tufa behind the Umbilicus Romæ with the Ara Volcani is, according to Hülsen, not proven, while Lanciani's statement that the altar was discovered in 1548 is shown to be an error. The Græcostadium, which Hülsen himself, like others, formerly assumed to be identical with the Græcostasis, is now ascribed to a situation south of the Basilica Iulia, on the ground actually occupied by the hospital and church of S. Maria della Consolazione. The author also takes serious issue with Richter upon questions connected with the rostra, as set forth by the latter in his programme of 1903, especially on the identification of the Hemicycle with the rostra of Cæsar, and the belief that the rectangular structure is of later origin, clinging to his own earlier belief that the steps behind the Hemicycle served as the original approach to the contemporaneous (rectangular) rostra. Yet he concedes that further excavation is necessary to settle certain difficult points. The church of SS. Sergius and Bacchus is shown, by the help of two previously unpublished drawings, to have stood further to the west than has generally been supposed, its apse near the three standing columns of the Temple of Vespasian, its nave extending to the portico of the Temple of Concord. The modern street now covers the site. Hülsen repeats, with reasons, his belief that the archaic *cippus* under the "black stone" was mutilated and covered at the time of the Julian-Augustan changes in the Forum and Comitium, and argues at some length his points of disagreement with Petersen, in his 'Comitium, Rostra, Grab des Romulus,' previously noticed in these columns, and with Studniczka, in the Yearbook of the Austrian Institute. He doubts decidedly the accuracy of the designation *equus Tremuli*, assigned to the recently unearthed foundation near the Heroön of Cæsar, and suggests, though acknowledging difficulties, that to this structure may belong both the Augustus inscription (CIL. 6. 3747), and the Lucius inscription.

He repeats, with additional argument, his criticism of Boni's declaration that the *cuniculi* of the Forum were constructed for use in games given in that place, and disagrees with Boni further in his declaration that the column hitherto called that of Phocas is really a *columna Diocletiani*, though he is inclined to agree with Boni regarding the identification of the *equus Domitiani*. But he is in doubt concerning the proper interpretation of the archaic, or archaistic, vases found in the base of the last-named monument.

A full list is given of the paintings in the church of S. Maria Antiqua, and of the character and contents of the graves thus far opened in the ancient necropolis. Hülsen is utterly unconvinced by the arguments of Boni and Vaglieri that the Arch of Titus originally stood further to the north, and was removed to its present site to make room for Hadrian's temple of Venus and Rome, pointing out that the one strong argument in favor of that view is totally upset by the fact that the concrete foundations of the Arch of Augustus, which certainly was never moved, were in similar manner planted on an earlier street pavement.

The entire article, so richly filled with information, is characterized by the author's wide knowledge and sanity of judgment, and by his well-known steady determination to declare nothing certain which can be proved only by such lively work of the imagination as distinguishes some of the otherwise excellent Italian archæologists, and makes distant scholars smile and doubt.

Common-Sense Gardens: How to Plan and Plant Them. By Cornelius V. V. Sewell. New York: The Grafton Press. 1906.

The title well describes this book, if seemingly a little arrogantly since the shelves are now full of books upon gardens and gardening; and now comes one which professes to deal with the whole subject from a common-sense point of view. What is the matter with the rest of the shelf? The author presents to the owners of small estates and even much more humble holdings useful suggestions as to making the best outlay of time and money in beautifying the home grounds *with* or without the help of the landscape architect. Nearly all the other works on this topic assume that the householder is to do all his own planning with little aid outside of the book in hand. Now making a garden is very much like buying a horse. If you use your own knowledge acquired solely from reading about the desirable points of the ideal beast you want, you are in a fair way to acquire a large amount of experience with great rapidity and mortification. A little assistance at the outset goes a long way towards success in either of these enterprises. But, nevertheless, one must be on his guard against following all advice too closely. The author says: "Architects, garden and otherwise, have a way of talking their clients into doing or allowing them to do many things that the clients do not desire. It is part of their profession, and the more languages they can use, the more successful they are." But, on the other hand, "consult a garden architect of good reputation, one whose work you have seen and know to approach more or less to your ideal; but do not let him do more than offer a few suggestions at a time concerning the points about which you are most in doubt. . . . The architect will be useful in suggesting the shape of the garden and the best materials to use for the enclosure, and he may be better able than you to see the

possibilities of the natural features of the land, because his eye is trained to such work and is ever on the alert." That is common sense. And now, "Do not follow his suggestions about planting, however, but do that, the first year at least, yourself." And that, too, is common sense. There is very sound counsel, also, in the direction to beginners to patronize (1) nurserymen near one's home, for these will willingly advise you and perhaps make good your occasional losses of plants; and (2) if you have to buy your plants from a distance, try to get them from some place farther north than your place, since these will probably prove more hardy.

There are some interesting words to be met with, here and there, throughout the book, for instance, "cuppy," as applied to clayey soil in which shell-like horizontal cavities form, collecting too freely water that stays too long. And there are many pleasing turns of thought, rather out of the conventional line. Thus, an account of moving large lilac-bushes is well presented, closing with, "I have moved lilacs when in flower, and they have gone on blooming just as if they were used to a carriage drive every day."

The instructive volume is illustrated by good reproductions of photographs, and decorated in excellent taste at the beginnings of the chapters. It is almost too well printed upon too fine a paper for a Garden Handbook, but our modern *éditions de luxe* of Country Life have accustomed us all to the very best. Therefore it is perhaps well that this work, with its good common sense, should be issued in a highly attractive form, that it may be more likely to fall into the hands of those who need it most. Among those who would do well to heed its precepts are the thoughtless ones who are guilty of erecting gas-pipe fences, and with this citation of good counsel, we commend the book to all:

"The most ungainly fence that has ever been devised is made by running lengths of gas-pipe through upright wooden posts, and coupling them together. From an æsthetic point of view, such a fence has not one redeeming feature; its ugliness stands out uncompromisingly and detracts from whatever beauty the house and grounds may possess. It is strong and easy to construct, and is quite cheap, considering its substance, and it has a smug appearance that many people cannot resist. They excuse the use of it by saying that they intend to cover it quickly with vines. They may cover it, but they cannot hide it; the most luxurious [*sic*] tropical growth would be unable to veil its protruding personality. You would know it was a gas-pipe fence if it was boarded up and vines trained over the boards, and you would shudder when you passed it and instinctively anathematize the plumber who invented it. If men are known by their works, you would recognize a man who built such a fence around his yard or garden as one who, although he might be rich, yet was penurious—perhaps kind to his wife and children, but possessing no real affection; and you would pity his family. You would place him as a tradesman who had risen from the ranks, but who certainly deserved to be degraded again, and sum up by adding that, whatever he was, he possessed no soul; for souls and gas-pipe fencing are farther apart than earth and heaven."

Corporations: A Study of the Origin and Development of Great Business Combinations and of their Relation to the Authority of the State. By John P. Davis. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

These volumes, as appears from the author's preface, were intended to serve as an introduction to a volume on the subject of modern corporations. Although superficially complete in themselves, they can hardly be regarded as more than a very elaborate foundation for a work which Mr. Davis's unfortunate death cut short. They are inconclusive, and the reader can only surmise what conclusion the author would have reached. They are full of learning and research on the nature and history of corporations of all kinds—guilds, municipalities, ecclesiastical corporations, joint-stock companies, colonial companies, and eleemosynary corporations; but in the end we are left rather in the dark as to the author's drift. The concluding sentence of the book consists in the epigrammatic statement that "citizenship" has been "largely metamorphosed into membership in corporations, and patriotism into fidelity to them," while elsewhere (vol. i., p. 31) he lays it down that a "private corporation" is a contradiction in terms, and "has no place in a sound organization of society." He makes war, as others have done, upon our old fiction—surely a convenient one still—that a corporation is an "artificial person." He calls attention to the "virtual exclusion" of the "small stockholder" from participation in the management, though he seems to fail to see that this is highly democratic—the analogue of the virtual exclusion of the average voter from "the ring" which manages his party and his government. He insists that trade unions show a tendency to approach the status of "true corporations," but does not perceive that they always endeavor to keep themselves as far as possible from the responsibility in law which marks a true corporation.

Altogether, we must regard this book as materials collected with a view to the production of a definite theory, rather than any coherent statement of such a theory.

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Baumgarten, Otto. Carlyle und Goethe. Lemcke & Buechner.
Crabbe's Poems. Edited by Adolphus W. Ward. Vol. II. Macmillan Co.
Doughty, Charles M. The Dawn in Britain. 2 vols. Dutton. $3 net.
Everyman's Library. Edited by Ernest Rhys. 50 vols. Dutton. 50 cents per volume.
Farquhar, Edward. The Youth of Messiah. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Graves, Henry C. Lectures on Homiletics. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Headley, John W. Confederate Operations in Canada and New York. Neale Publishing Co. $2.
Joachin, Harold H. The Nature of Truth. Henry Frowde.
Lamprecht, Karl. Americana. Lemcke & Buechner.
Long, John Luther. The Way of the Gods. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Marston, E. Fishing for Pleasure and Catching It. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Seidel's Aus Goldenen Tagen. Edited by Wilhelm Bernhardt. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.

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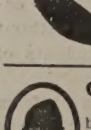

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 31, 1906.

The Week.

The deeper the probe of the Interstate Commerce Commission strikes into the management of the Pennsylvania Railroad, the more shocking the revelations. William A. Patton, assistant to President Cassatt, has admitted that he acquired $307,000 of coal-company securities without paying a penny. J. N. Purviance, Mr. Patton's chief clerk, had become richer by $38,500 on the same easy terms. Mr. Patton said that two former presidents of the Pennsylvania knew that he had accepted stock as a gift, and he supposed President Cassatt was equally well informed about a transaction which was "generally known." In fine, it was "generally known" that President Cassatt's assistant was—to employ the language of cheap and illiterate thieves and blackmailers—"out for the stuff." Shippers who wished to get along comfortably with the ruling powers of the Pennsylvania gave Mr. Patton or his clerk nearly $350,000. Hard-headed business men do not fling away hundreds of thousands of dollars for nothing. Mr. Patton and his clerk, we may be sure, made an adequate return. The scheme, indeed, is so simple that a child can understand it. C. A. Buch, general manager of the Columbia Coal Company, gave a detailed explanation of the process. His company was forced to purchase private cars because it could get no cars from the railway. And yet the Keystone Coal Company and the Berwind-White Company—often spoken of as "Cassatt companies"—were relatively well supplied. Five hundred cars a day were arbitrarily set aside for the Berwind-White Company; and, to avoid the possibility of shortage, two hundred cars were kept in reserve nearly every night—and this when all coal operators were begging for cars. In the light of these facts, Samuel Rea, the third vice-president, was willing to concede that men who control the distribution of cars and the purchase of fuel for the railway should not be interested in coal properties. He himself had invested largely in coal stocks, apparently on the theory that the men who control the men who control distribution and purchase are above temptation.

With a fine mixture of greed and timidity, the Senate Committee on Finance has reported a resolution directing the purchase of all Panama Canal supplies in this country, "unless the President shall in any case deem the bids or tenders therefor to be extortionate or unreasonable." This letting I dare not wait upon I would gives the whole case away. It is a plaintive appeal to American protected interests not to be too rapacious, lest foreign competition be admitted. But that is to accord to a rich government a resource against exaction which is denied to the poor consumer. The latter has no remedy if extortionate and unreasonable prices are demanded of him for the necessaries of life. He has no option but to submit to injustice. No purchases abroad for him, to prevent domestic robbers from taking his last cent. Yet that just relief is exactly what tariff revision would give to American citizens. They would never think of buying from foreigners, in preference to natives, except when natives were trying to gouge them. To this the President need not knuckle down, says the Senate committee, but the average American is to be allowed no remedy. The impertinent lugging in of the President in lieu of establishing a just principle is characteristic of the tortuous methods of the stand-patter.

There is much discussion of the relative claims of a sea-level and lock canal on the Isthmus. Meanwhile, waiting for a plan to be formed is in all conscience sufficiently expensive. Chief Engineer Stevens, for example, is prepared to spend $26,000,000 next year, come high come low. It is true that the uncertainty about the plan has been "something of a handicap," but if he is required he will maintain a furious and non-committal activity pending intelligible directions for the work. We have no desire to plead for haste. In an engineering problem of unprecedented difficulty, upon which the best scientific opinion is very evenly divided, it is emphatically the part of wisdom to take all the time necessary to arrive at a safe and intelligent decision. Evidently, only a minimum of work should be done until the plan is settled upon, and only such work as will fit into any scheme likely to be adopted. But to work around the edges of a ditch still untraced even in the mind's eye is the ungrateful task of Chairman Shonts's staff. This embarrassment is not a reason for haste at the present moment, but an intelligent prevision of the case might well have been a reason for less haste three years ago.

In the intervals of undermining the foundations of our Government, the Senate is having a good deal of fun this year passing bills that nobody expected to pass. The pure food bill was the first; the free alcohol bill is the latest. It has postponed till January 1, 1907, however, the date when this measure shall take effect. This will give the wood-alcohol interests time to adjust themselves to the change. The spokesmen for the wood-alcohol manufacturers have asserted that, without the profits from this by-product, the charcoal and acetate of lime industries cannot be carried on. Time will show the truth of this assertion, but, as Senator McCumber truly said, the interests of consumers are in any event a hundred times greater than those of manufacturers. Even if free alcohol does not seriously damage the Standard Oil Company, as some of its more ardent advocates maintained, it will certainly bring a train of benefits, small in themselves, but very important in the aggregate. A cheap and convenient fuel for power, an excellent illuminant, and an ingredient in a thousand manufactured products from photographic films to scented soap, the tax on alcohol has been a burden distributed very widely, and its removal will be a boon.

The scheme of Philippine currency which Congress adopted two years and a half ago has reached an ignominious pass, and its authors are now demanding a change. Instead of extending the American monetary system to the islands (as it was rapidly extending itself at that time), they adopted a new silver coin about the size of the Mexican dollar, made it full legal tender and redeemable at the Philippine treasury in bills of exchange on New York, bought a large amount of silver bullion (for which bonds were issued), coined it in the mints of the United States, sent it to Manila, and put it in circulation. These new pesos, commonly called "conants," were to pass as the equivalent of fifty cents of American money, and were redeemable at that rate, but their metallic content was then somewhat less, say, forty-three cents. The men who concocted this roundabout scheme were warned that if silver bullion should rise in the market so that the metallic value of the peso would be more than fifty cents each, the "conants" would disappear from circulation. They would go into the melting-pot, or be exported, as our silver coins disappeared before 1853.

The warning was not heeded; but now that very thing has happened. Silver has risen in price so that the Mexican dollar is quoted in the market at 52 to 54 cents, and Senator Lodge reported a bill to reduce the weight and fineness of the Philippine peso, so as to bring its melting-pot value below fifty cents. The dispatches say that the bill was prepared at the War Department. Very likely! No such measure could have received

the sanction of the Director of the Mint, or of any responsible Treasury official familiar with the history of bimetallism. There is no reason to assume that the new ratio chosen will remain satisfactory. Nobody can guarantee that silver will not rise to any assignable figure, and even necessitate another recoinage before the one now proposed is finished A new coinage is an expensive operation, requiring time and involving loss and confusion to the people affected by it. No such operation should be begun at the mere instance of the Bureau of Insular Affairs, or under the direction of the men who have botched their job in the ridiculous manner that Lodge and his advisers did theirs less than three years ago. The whole question should be examined carefully, and the decision reached only after full discussion by economists and financiers, as well as by Congress and the press.

Chasing the devil round a stump is profitable exercise compared with running down a stand-patter. When the Republican tariff revisionists of Massachusetts uttered the complaint that without free hides and other free raw material they could make no headway in the foreign markets, Sereno E. Payne, John Dalzell, and their kind had the answer ready: "The manufacturers of New England do not need a foreign market; the home market, a magnificent domain extending across the whole continent, is large enough." Then the Democrats in Congress showed that some of the most highly protected industries, for example the Watch Trust and the Steel Trust, were so eager for a foreign market as to sell goods there below the price to the home consumer. Thereupon Representative William P. Hepburn of Iowa kindly explained that the charge that our protected monopolies were cutting prices for the foreigner was a campaign roorback. The next movement in pursuit of the stand-patters was made by John Sharp Williams, who spent the better part of two days in piling up evidence as to low prices on goods for export. And now Representative Dalzell of Pennsylvania comes forward with a frank admission that, of course, the protected interest sells more cheaply in the foreign market, for the excellent reason that there is no other way to secure the business. The practice, said Mr. Dalzell, stoutly, benefits the country by keeping mills going, saving the laborer from idleness, maintaining American wages, and giving this country a foothold in foreign markets, and—to a certain extent—command of them. Having now completed the circuit, Messrs. Hepburn, Payne, Dalzell, and Williams are preparing to start on a new lap.

Representative Landis, who made the stand-pat speech in the House on May 25, is described as "silver-haired." He should be, as his argument was hoary-headed. All that he had to urge against the policy of righting the tariff wrongs of to-day was a pained recollection of the hard times of 1893. "Ah, my rash young friends, listen to me as I tell you of the horrors which followed in my own younger days an attempt to revise the tariff"—horrors that, to be sure, came a year before the tariff was revised. But this mumbling about the evils of a former day will be the stock argument of the stand-patters to the end of time. One can imagine President Roosevelt, become Senator Roosevelt, rising in his place in 1930, with bent form and trembling voice to say, "Yes, Senators, it is true that the Dingley tariff has outrageous features. I felt them myself so strongly in 1904 that I prepared a message to Congress on the subject. But I suppressed it then, and I would not renew it now. No one who remembers the terrible depression of 1893 as vividly as I do will ever consent to touch that tariff which alone saves this great nation, unrivalled in natural resources, preëminent in manufactures, able to give the whole world thirty-love and beat it, from going to the poor-house."

Definite announcement is made by the president of the Equitable Life, and by the voting trustees appointed by Thomas F. Ryan, owner of a majority of Equitable stock, that the right to elect a majority of the directors will be conferred on holders of Equitable policies. The plan, which contemplates a vote of policyholders for twenty-eight out of fifty-two directors, was adopted by the Equitable directors a year ago and accepted by James H. Hyde, who then held the majority stock now owned by Mr. Ryan. The purpose was to amend the company's charter by vote of the directors, so as to authorize in perpetuity this controlling voice by policyholders in elections. Before the experiment could be tried, Franklin B. Lord, a minority holder of Equitable stock, applied to the courts for an injunction against the plan. On May 26 last year, Judge Maddox granted the injunction, on the grounds that no such action was permitted to the directors under the law, and, further, that to deprive a minority shareholder of the right to vote for twenty-eight out of the fifty-two directors would prevent him from exercising one of the essential rights of ownership, and was thus confiscatory and illegal. Part of Judge Maddox's argument has now been met by the new insurance law, which adds to the much-discussed "Section 52" the following proviso regarding the power of an insurance company, having capital stock, to amend its charter:

"It may, by a vote of a majority of its directors, confer upon its policyholders, or upon such policyholders as may have a prescribed amount of insurance upon their lives, the right to vote for all or any less number of the directors in such manner, not inconsistent with any provision of this chapter, as may be authorized by a vote of the stockholders representing at least a majority of the capital stock, at a meeting of stockholders called for the purpose."

Having in view this new proviso, Mr. Cleveland suggests, and Mr. Morton and Mr. Ryan agree, that request be made to the court to vacate the injunction, and that directors and shareholders in the Equitable at once proceed to put the new plan into force.

That this step should have been agreed to is gratifying, though, so far as Mr. Ryan is concerned, it merely fulfils an explicit promise, made in writing last June, in his formal published agreement with the voting trustees. It seems to be assumed that Judge Maddox will withdraw his injunction, though the court's theory of confiscation went deeper than any question of amended statutes. Not much notice seems to have been taken of another amendment to the insurance law, clearly adopted with a view to the Equitable's case. Under the old law, it was generally agreed that purchase of its own stock by the Equitable would be impracticable. But the new "Section 95" provides that any domestic stock life-insurance company may be converted into mutual on condition that an amendment to the charter, providing for retirement of the stock "by the payment of an amount fairly determined to be the present value thereof with reference to its par value," shall have been approved by majority vote of stockholders, by the insurance superintendent, and by majority vote of policyholders, taken by proxy or by mail. Although no pledge to such effect appears in the agreement with the voting trustees, Mr. Ryan, in his letter of June 26, to Mr. Morton, professed his willingness to sell his Equitable stock to the company, if such action were desired by its officers. His price, as then stated, was the figure paid by him, or $2,500,000, with interest at 4 per cent. from last June, less dividends received in the interim.

Having to take our law from judges, we are bound to state that, as the case stands, George W. Perkins was not guilty of larceny. Two judges had held that he was, or, at least, that a jury might have found him to be; but now five judges decide that, "on the depositions before the magistrate," there is no "proof" of criminal intent. The decision is obviously made on narrow grounds, as is quite proper, and does not say what the Appellate Division might have held had the Grand Jury indicted Perkins, and had a petit jury satisfied itself that there was evidence of criminal intent. But there is no use in going

into that. Up to date, the weight of judicial opinion is decidedly confirmatory of Mr. Jerome's brief, contending that Perkins could not be convicted of larceny. The Court of Appeals may come to a different conclusion, though that appears improbable as the case is presented, but for the moment we must recognize that the Penal Code, as judicially interpreted, did not make of Perkins's offence a crime. Its moral and political turpitude, however, is not in the least relieved by the court's decision. Perkins slyly took money belonging to widows and orphans, and applied it to a purpose which he had no reason to suppose they would approve, though he well knew that, if the gift of insurance money to the Republican campaign fund were made public, it would cause a scandal of the first magnitude and defeat its own end. Hence the secrecy observed, the roundabout method of giving the money, and the arrangement to keep the sum off the accounts till after the election. This, the court now says, was not the act of a criminal. It was, at any rate, the act of a trickster. For all this campaign money, the judges plainly intimate, those who diverted it are civilly liable.

The committee of the New Jersey Senate appointed to investigate insurance affairs in that State has decided that its work shall be thorough. Any other course would be politically suicidal. The New York legislative committee gave but little time to the New Jersey companies and did hardly more than scratch the surface. Everybody knows that the Prudential Insurance Company and its ally, the Public Service Corporation, have been deep in the politics of the State. The election of President John F. Dryden of the Prudential to the United States Senate was not a mere coincidence; and his candidacy for reëlection is not an accident. The long and profitable connection between the Republican machine and the large corporations has profoundly stirred the people of New Jersey—as is evident from the rapid spread of the Colby movement for reform. The uprising against the old leaders is nothing but a revolt against grossly commercialized politics.

Sir Andrew MacDonald, a former Lord Provost of Edinburgh, and now a member of the City Council, who is visiting Western cities, has indicated what he believes to be the essential weakness of city government in the United States. Chicago's slovenliness had shocked Sir Andrew, and puzzled him, too. "You Americans," he said, "are the keenest and most capable business men in the world. You have reduced commerce from adventurous enterprise to a science. Yet you seem helpless when it comes to managing a city." Later he spoke of the complete separation of national and municipal politics in Edinburgh. He instanced his own case: "In Scotland I am a Liberal Unionist, but I work side by side with Conservatives and Socialists in civic matters." It is an old truth that the Scotch visitor has observed. When business men are content to turn over a city's government to politicians, they resign themselves to bad conditions; when they take the matter in hand, as was done after the disaster at Galveston, as is being done in Baltimore, and as is likely to be done now in San Francisco, they get a clean, well-conducted city. Municipal ownership is an unimportant detail in comparison with the broader question of bringing the citizen to realize that clean streets do not depend upon the political allegiance of the Governor or the success of high tariff at the Congressional elections.

M. Jaurès, who did more than any other leader to create the Radical-Socialist *bloc*, is the first to rejoice at its dissolution. The election returns, which are now subject only to insignificant changes, show 246 Ministerial Radicals and 77 Republicans of the Left—in all, a Government strength of 323 in a Chamber of 584. In other words, M. Sarrien, barring unforeseen accidents, need not depend in any degree upon the ultra-Socialist factions. The *bloc*, having become superfluous, will presumably disappear. M. Jaurès acquiesces in the fact for the sake of Socialism, to which he believes the coalition was always a dead weight. He will be glad to see the Socialists return to their normal work of opposition. Naturally, the Radical Ministry has no regrets in attaining an independent position. From Waldeck-Rousseau's time till the present the Socialist alliance has been an embarrassment for every French Ministry, the price of support being invariably paternalistic laws of doubtful efficacy but of certain costliness. Indeed, but for such an all-engrossing topic as separation of Church and State, the Radical-Socialist coalition must long ago have broken down. It has served its turn, if merely by strengthening the old party of Republican Defence. It was also something of a merit to demonstrate that political Socialism is by no means the monster of hideous mien it is sometimes represented to be. The recent elections have to all intents and purposes restored the era of Moderate Republicanism.

In censuring the Ministry, as it did on Saturday, and calling for its resignation, the Duma virtually demands a responsible Government. Should the Czar retire Premier Goremykin, a precedent would be established, and a long step taken towards establishing the principle of Ministerial responsibility. It is an awkward pass for the Czar and his advisers. If his hand can be forced on a matter of capital importance like this, it would be rash to imagine any limit to concessions. Apparently, three courses are under consideration: to grant the demands, to disregard them, or to dissolve the Duma. The last choice is so hazardous that it will hardly be considered. The policies of acquiescence or drift imply a gradual dissipation of Imperial prerogative. What might save the day—constructive, liberal proposals from the Czar in consultation with the leaders of the Constitutional Democrats—seems a vain hope. Seemingly, nobody with an imaginative grasp of the situation is influential at court. The desires of the Duma are vague and increasing. Already there are indications that the moderate leaders may lose control. The one thing that might unify the clamoring factions—a liberal Imperial policy—is wofully lacking.

In the pause of the argument between the Duma and the Czar, Professor Miliukoff recurs in a despondent article to the everlasting precedent of the French Revolution. Nicholas, he fears, is about to throw away his opportunity as fatuously as did Louis XVI. This is a striking confirmation of a recent remark of that competent student of Russian affairs, M. de Vogüé. He spoke in the *Figaro* of the "obsession of the classic model" which weighs upon all the Russian reformers. They all betray, said this Frenchman, the fact that they keep constantly before their eyes "that terrible model which we gave to all peoples in the throes of revolution." This can be only a disturbing influence, thinks M. de Vogüé. Russians should set their minds intently upon their own problem, with all its distinctive features, and not let their thoughts wander all the time to the *ancien régime* in France and Louis and Mirabeau and Robespierre—not to mention Napoleon. There is, of course, a fallacy in the solemn dictum that history repeats itself; yet there is also a truth in it, and it is probably vain to expect Russians to avoid wholly the fallacy while acting upon the truth. Meanwhile, the reply of the Czar to the demand for general amnesty rests upon the need of preserving order and punishing assassination with a stern hand. So long as crimes of violence, with a political motive, are reported from so many parts of the Empire, the Czar asserts that it is impossible to proclaim full amnesty. His words should remind the Duma how indissolubly reform is now bound up with inviolate peace, as the agrarian relief measure he proposes in the distribution of crown lands should remind them of his genuine desire for the betterment of his people.

GRAFT IN BUSINESS.

Why is everybody so dejected and disgusted at the corruption uncovered in the management of the Pennsylvania Railroad? The reason is not, we think, merely because the repute of a great corporation in which we have all taken pride has now been sadly dimmed. The general uneasiness goes deeper than that. Every man asks his neighbor, Where is this to stop? What business is safe? We have seen the greatest names and the most boastful companies in the insurance world smirched; as if that were not enough, we now behold high officials of what has often been called the model railway of America holding out itching palms, like so many blackmailing policemen; and what branch of private affairs can we believe immune?

This is the ugly thing. The disease which we have complacently assumed to be confined to politicians, we now see infecting business men. When it has been said of a man, "Oh, he is nothing but a grafter!" the implication has been that he is in some public office of trust which he prostitutes for private gain. But that inference is no longer sure. The grafters in business begin to rival the grafters in politics, not only in numbers, but in turpitude. It is an alarming figure, this new apparition in our business life, shamelessly admitting, as Frederick Vroman, Assistant Trainmaster of the Pennsylvania Road, did at Philadelphia last week: "If there was money to be given out, I was there to take it." Add to this the testimony at Kansas City the same day, showing how reputable merchants made large secret payments to railroad officials for secret favors, and it almost looks as if the makers of office signs would find it to their advantage to introduce one, reading, "No Orders Attended to unless Accompanied by the Corresponding Bribe."

It must be frankly admitted that all these disclosures put a new aspect upon the work of grappling with corruption in public life. We have too easily concluded that graft and favoritism and methods that would not bear the light are the vices of politicians. But the evil is shown to be rooted in human nature itself. The corrupt public man is more conspicuous; his exposure causes the greater sensation and his fall the louder echo; but the unobtrusive man in bank or insurance company or railroad or dry-goods house who levies his blackmail, or takes his bribes, is his true brother. The one betrays his constituents, the other only his stockholders; but both are alike in being lost to decency. Of the two, we confess we think the respectable private grafter the more detestable. He not only does what he can to destroy confidence in private virtue, but really fosters public corruption. With his example before them, cynical politicians can sneer at all talk of reform and say: "They all do it. We are as honest as your merchants and railroad men." And the argument of the political reformer is certainly cut into very deeply by the revelations of graft in private business. One of the appeals has been, "Let us apply business methods to politics." But the taunt will now come, "What business methods? Those of the Equitable? Those of the Pennsylvania?"

In part, no doubt, the existence of so much peculation in private business is the seamy side of our prosperity. There would not be so much stolen if there were not so much to steal. The thing might be brazenly fronted out after the manner of Macaulay's dictum that "the quantity of theft is, to a certain extent, an index to the quantity of useful industry and judicious speculation." With that writer we can imagine a boaster about our wonderful prosperity further contending: "That there are ten thousand thieves in London is a very melancholy fact. But, looked at in one point of view, it is a reason for exultation. For what other city could maintain ten thousand thieves? St. Kilda would not support a single pickpocket." But such bravado we shall scarcely see employed. We may be smitten with corruption, but we have at least enough dregs of conscience left not to attempt to defend or palliate corruption. That there remains a strong and even heightened sentiment against dishonesty, whether in public or private life, was testified to by one of the Pennsylvania officials: "These things were not once thought improper. It seems that they are now." What he meant was, we presume, that railroad officials were once expected, if not encouraged, to go into enterprises along their lines which would be of a sort to develop traffic and so swell the company's income. But what may have been comparatively innocent in origin, has plainly become corrupt and oppressive in development. For the taking of such thinly veiled bribes as so many Pennsylvania officials have been shown to have received, for such purchased discrimination, such scheming against rival concerns, such wicked use of a common carrier to ruin one man and enrich another, there is no possible excuse. The guilty men are branded indelibly with dishonor.

Yet they fell before what we must admit is but a besetting sin of the day. If the evil is shown to be more general than any of us thought, the remedy must be equally general. It will never do to stop with laws directed at public officers who accept bribes or claim their rake-offs; the statute against giving "commissions" to cooks and coachmen on their monthly purchases looks almost ridiculous in presence of the revelations affecting their employers which we are getting. Our only hope is in a quickened conscience and a moral toning-up all round. Business men are rapidly putting it out of their power to cast a stone at politicians. It is better to admit that we are all in the same boat. It is evident that the poison has spread through the community up and down; that the politician who discovers that public office "serves well the purposes of private fraud" is only acting on the same principle, or lack of principle, that impels men in private walks to the shameless deeds which now stand confessed. To denounce and withstand and expel this widespread spirit of graft should be the daily business of all who would not see our society and our government fall into the pit.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY.

The Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce has reported the Employers' Liability bill, passed by the House. Partly, no doubt, in the hope that it might become law, several proposals to amend the Rate bill with provisions modifying the common-law rule as to fellow servants and contributory negligence were rejected. This was proper enough. The Rate bill was sufficiently weighted, and the measure to fix the liability of employers for personal injuries to their employees is so complicated as to deserve and even require separate treatment.

At common law, an employer could not be held liable for personal injuries to an employee resulting from the fault or negligence of a fellow-servant, or in cases where the employee could be charged with contributory negligence. The disposition of legislatures to protect certain classes of employees from the rigors of this rule became apparent very early. Thus, Georgia in 1856, and Iowa in 1862, by statute entirely abolished the fellow-servant doctrine as applied to railway employees. Wisconsin adopted a similar course in 1875, and, although the law of that year was repealed in 1880, recent enactments have again done away with the fellow-servant doctrine as a defence where the injured employee was actually engaged in the switching or running of trains. Ohio, in 1890, so limited the scope of the term "fellow-servant" that a defence based upon the common-law doctrine became practically impossible. The Virginia Constitution of 1902 abolished the doctrine with reference to a large class of railway employees, and empowered the General Assembly to enlarge the class and extend the rights conferred to employees of any corporation. Maryland, in 1902, by statute fixed liability upon railways and many other employers, notwithstanding the negligence of fellow-servants, unless a certain plan of insurance, outlined in the statute, had been adopted prior to the accident causing the injuries. In our own State, the liability

of all classes of employers was greatly extended by the statute of 1902, which has recently been upheld by the Court of Appeals.

In view of the diligence of State legislatures, it might appear that this is a subject concerning which the Federal lawmakers need not trouble themselves. This would, perhaps, be true if the Federal courts had adhered to their own early rule, which bound them to administer the law of negligence as it existed in the State where the injuries were sustained. But for a decade the Federal courts have held that there is a general law of fellow-servants obtaining throughout the United States, namely, the common law. Thus we have the anomaly of a plaintiff fully entitled to recover in a State court, divested of his rights if the circumstances are such that he must institute his proceedings under a Federal jurisdiction.

The House bill is extremely broad, going a considerable distance beyond the majority of the State enactments. It is limited in its effect to injuries sustained by employees of railways engaged in interstate commerce, and establishes liability of the owners or operators for all damages which result from the mismanagement or negligence of any of the officers, agents, or employees of such railways. It also provides that contributory negligence shall not constitute a defence, where it is slight in comparison with the negligence charged against the employer. It permits the employer to set up against the damages sustained whatever part he has paid over toward any insurance, relief benefit, or indemnity due to the injured person or his representatives. Another proposition which has been submitted to the Senate in connection with this proposed legislation is contained in an amendment to the Rate bill offered by Senator McLaurin, as follows: "In the trial of any case in a court of the United States to recover damages for personal injuries, the court shall be governed, in determining liability or non-liability, by the laws of the State where such injuries were received." This would, of course, merely restore the old rule.

Without discussing the precise form in which action should be taken, a good case is undoubtedly made out for relieving the employees of railroads, and perhaps of all common carriers, from a strict interpretation of the common-law doctrine of fellow-servants. The public requires that trains shall run at high rates of speed, at all hours of the day and night, and the physical and mental strain imposed on railway employees is most severe. In so far as railway corporations have endeavored to meet the situation by contributions to insurance funds and benefit organizations among their employees, they are to be commended, and should be permitted to set off such sums against their liability. But the law-making bodies of the various States have not considered this form of protection sufficient. It certainly is not wise policy to exclude from additional relief, almost universally regarded as necessary, the comparatively limited class of plaintiffs compelled to apply to the Federal courts for their lawful remedy.

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP INVESTIGATORS.

English municipal ownership will soon be the most thoroughly investigated thing alive. Band after band of American Jasons are setting out after that golden fleece; and we can but hope that too many of them will not come back shorn. The Civic Federation has given a send-off to its own investigators, doubtless with something of the enthusiasm which marked the sailing of our Olympian athletes. Yet it is not prizes which these other picked Americans will bear back to their welcoming native shores, but articles, monographs, statistics dry as summer's dust, and all about the working of municipal ownership in England. America is to be urged to go in for it, or to keep out of it, according as the investigation shows that Englishmen are miracles of wisdom, or else prodigies of stupidity, for having taken it up.

There is little doubt that English experience will be made to support both sides of the argument with equal conclusiveness. It will look to the American eye as the American eye likes the look. As has been said of the Bible, the English practice will be the book in which each his doctrine seeks, and in which each his doctrine finds. One investigator will observe the London County Council's steamboats plying on the Thames, and will say, "What geese Americans are not to insist that their cities own every ferryboat!" Another will look into the complaints of poor service by the same boats, will scan the balance sheet which shows that they have been run at a great loss, and will say: "Heaven deliver us from such disastrous experiments." So of municipal tramways in Manchester, city electric lighting in Birmingham, Government-controlled telephones, and so on. Their bad and good points will be vociferously and contradictorily explained to the American people, who will be expected to be made thereby wise unto their political salvation.

We by no means wish to disparage the investigation. The investigators at least will learn something. And if they offer us divided counsels, the inference that the whole matter is complicated with difficulties will not be without its uses. We already have a sort of advance agent of investigation in the person of Everett W. Burdett of Boston, whose paper on "Municipal Ownership in Great Britain" is published in the *Journal of Political Economy* for May. Preliminary extracts from it vexed the righteous souls of the municipal-ownership enthusiasts in Chicago. But they could not suppress Mr. Burdett's article, as they did the famous Dalrymple report; here it stands in its 56 pages of type.

Its most valuable part is the statistical information which Mr. Burdett has amassed. His arguments may be combated and his applications parried, but his facts must be at least chewed and digested. We can all draw inferences—even a horse can, as the farmer said, if he "gets a good hitch." But the facts and figures we are to hitch to must first be provided; and those which Mr. Burdett presents are very much what was needed. Some things they put beyond reasonable dispute. Whatever else may be said of the policy of government ownership of electric lighting, power, and traction, English and Continental experience shows that it has a hampering effect upon the development of the electrical industry, and that the practical extensions in the way of public service are not nearly so great as in this country. Mr. Burdett's summary is: "The United States, with less than double the population of Great Britain, has six times the amount of apparatus installed for furnishing electric light and power, sixteen times as much for electric traction, twenty-three times as many miles of electric railway, twenty-six times as many motor cars, and five and one-half times as much money invested in such enterprises."

Such differences are, of course, to be explained in part by differences in extent of area and in the distribution of population and in national customs, but the salient fact remains well established. Governments, like monopolies, are not enterprising. They do not encourage invention because they do not offer the great stimulus of a big money prize to either inventor or promoter. On the other hand, relieved of the pressure of competition, they are not forever turning, as private investors and corporations are, to plans for reducing the cost of production and improving while cheapening the public service. Hence the result which Mr. Burdett's studies set forth so impressively: quite aside from the debate about policy and cost, municipal ownership in Great Britain appears to be demonstrably sluggish in taking up with new processes and in venturing upon enlargements of the service looking far into the future. A city-owned trolley-line, for example, would not push out into the thinly-peopled suburbs—such an extension would not immediately pay. But a private corporation could afford to wait for returns; while its directors, by means of real-estate speculation along the suburban lines, would see their way to making a great deal of money. Americans may be

bled by corporations, but they at least get the service. Englishmen may or may not have to pay more for their municipally owned utilities—the actual cost is in dispute—but they confessedly suffer from what Mr. Burdett calls "the inertia and lack of business enterprise which are inseparable from municipal ownership."

If the Government is a fool and the corporation a knave, what woods are we to take to. Reform your governments, say some, and make them pure enough and capable enough to undertake municipal operation. Short of that millennium, however, there are those who would be content if our governments could be made pure enough and wise enough to regulate public-utility corporations. That would not at once open heaven to us, but it would make earth a little more comfortable; and it would give the people more for their money, while at the same time stimulating inventive genius and managing talent by giving them more for their brains.

HENRIK IBSEN.

The death of Ibsen, which occurred on May 23, removes a figure of commanding interest in contemporary letters. No imaginative writer of his generation, except perhaps Tolstoy, so fixed the attention of the entire Western world. Critics might praise or blame, but they felt that they could not ignore. To many, Ibsen is only the later Ibsen—a realistic playwright who handles social questions without gloves and occasionally runs into symbolism. To some, one would think, he is only the author of "Ghosts"—a pathologist who brings loathsome scientific matters upon the stage. But behind the ruthless prober of modern life, back of the remarkable series of plays that began in 1869 with "The Young Men's League," there is a long history of artistic growth and achievement. It is the history of a romantic poet, a keen observer, and a radical thinker, housed together in the same tenement of clay.

Ibsen was born in 1828—at a time, therefore, when romanticism was still a great fructifying influence. This was a part of his inheritance. His birthplace was the little city of Skien in southern Norway, a country which up to that time had produced no writer of international importance—for Holberg, though born in Norway, must count as a Dane. His father belonged to a line of Norwegian sea-captains who had regularly married German wives, save that one of them, several generations back, had varied the procedure by marrying a Scotchwoman. Henrik's mother and her mother were of German stock. Naturally enough, his mixed lineage has been called into play by his biographers to account for his mental traits. His austerity of mind and his predilection for characters of a ranting, proselyting turn have been referred to the strain of Scotch puritanism in his blood; while the German element in him has been made responsible for his *doctrinaire* bent and his propensity for pushing an idea through to the bitter logical end. Better worth noting, perhaps, is the fact that his first childish view of the outer world at Skien took in a church, a pillory, a madhouse, and a jail. When he was eight years old, his father, who had been a well-to-do merchant accustomed to luxurious living and to lavish hospitality, failed in business and was compelled to give up his fine mansion and face poverty in a shabby cottage. Here was a new order of facts which no doubt quickened the brooding child's nascent feeling for "the something that infects the world." Add to this that the atmosphere of the place was an atmosphere of fervid religious discussion, of anxious wrestling with a sinful world, of ascetic resolve and sectarian strenuousness.

At the age of fifteen the lad cut adrift from his impoverished home and found employment as apothecary's 'prentice in the little village of Grimstad. Here he lived some five years, those years of early adolescence which are usually of the first importance in the development of artistic genius. Seemingly a most unpromising school for a dramatic poet with fire in his veins! Yet it served well enough; for the very monotony of outward things threw him back upon himself and favored that intensity of emotional life which, expressed in rhythmical language, is poetry.

"Es bildet ein Talent sich in der Stille."

As a youth he found himself at war with society, the society of Grimstad. The placid villagers, absorbed in their own little affairs and indifferent to his ideas and dreams, moved him to wrath. He felt like a caged lion. The revolutionary excitement of 1848 stirred him deeply. He wrote a fervid poem in which he bade the Hungarians godspeed in their struggle against tyranny. He composed a string of sonnets to King Oscar, in which he urged that monarch to lay aside all paltry considerations and take the field in aid of Denmark. The verses were not printed at the time, and so, as their author drily observed long afterward, did not greatly affect the immediate course of European politics. But the poet was finding himself and finding his place in the eternal party of the opposition.

Such was the soil from which sprang Ibsen's first play, the gruesome tragedy of "Catiline." How naturally does youthful radicalism select a criminal for its first hero! Ibsen had by this time decided to study medicine, and, in getting up his Catilinarian orations for the University, he found his spirit of opposition provoked by the voluble and ever-virtuous Cicero, whom he began to think of as the wordy champion of a self-complacent majority, thundering conventional morality at a man he did not understand. Catiline's conspiracy and death took on in his imagination the character of a tragedy of political idealism. The vision once caught, the young apothecary proceeded to fix it on paper in glowing verse. The play was written in the long northern nights of 1848-9, and is a nocturnal affair throughout.

One who reads "Catiline" for adumbrations of the Ibsen that was to be, will find but little to reward his search. To be sure, the intuition of the born dramatist is there. There is life, movement, power. But the total impression is one of unreality. Catiline as romantic dreamer, bent on destroying Rome for Rome's good, and finally done to death by the fiendish hatred of the vestal Furia, does not convince. One feels that he is but the mouthpiece of his creator's longings for a wider and more stirring life. There is autobiography, too, in the words of Furia, in the first act:

"Hvor trang en tumleplads for al min fylde
af vide formål og af hede ønsker!"*

In the spring of 1851, Ibsen turned his back on the sleepy Grimstad and went up to Christiania to finish his preparations for the University. "Catiline" had already been rejected by the theatre, but a second effort, a viking play called "The Warrior's Tomb," met with better luck. It was played with some success—enough to dissipate all thoughts of the medical profession. Its author was, indeed, to become a wonderful diagnostician and a far-famed dispenser of bitter pills, but not in the domain of physic. Leaving school he cast his lot with the local journalists, and soon found himself a member of a radical coterie whose business was opposition. He attended the meetings of the Socialists, wrote for their paper, learned their jargon. Presently, in conjunction with two friends, he started a new radical organ called *Manden* (*The Man*), which attacked conservatives and liberals alike. In his disgust with the faint-hearted liberalism of the day he wrote the operetta "Norma, or a Politician's Love," and published it in *Manden*. It was a slight affair, wherein Bellini's characters were replaced by Norwegian politicians. The young Hercules, idealist through and through, had caught his first glimpse of the monster Expediency; and, not yet having found his club, he fired at the beast a paper-wad of satire.

Toward the end of the year 1851, being now a rising man, Ibsen accepted a position in connection with the new theatre at Bergen, and entered upon his duties under a contract for five years at $300 per annum. The works of this period are "Lady Inger" and "The Feast of Solhaug," both romantic plays of the remote Norwegian past, with no suggestion of ethicism or of any bearing upon present-day problems. In this stage of his career, Ibsen appears as a specifically Norwegian writer, carried along by the general enthusiasm for a *Heimatkunst* that should assert its independence of Denmark. He operates with the familiar resources of romanticism, giving to his work a warm local color, and endeavoring to impart to it, as he once said in explaining the mission of the national poet, "those ground-tones that echo back to us from mountain and dale, from hillside and shore, but especially from our own hearts."

In 1857 he returned to Christiania to take charge of a theatre which had lately been started, under the leadership of Björnson, to represent the national principle and focus the opposition to Danish influence. He had lately been reading certain Icelandic sagas, in Petersen's translation, and, attracted by their peculiar savor, had planned a viking tragedy which should reflect the direct speech, impulsive action, and fierce passions of those rude and predatory forebears. He had convinced himself that the romantic conception of them was wrong, and that the conventional iambic verse was not suited to a national theme. Having come to the conclusion that the best form would be a close imitation of the saga style itself, he

*How mean a stage for all my plenitude
Of vast intentions and of hot desires!

wrote "The Warriors of Helgeland," a sombre tragedy of demonic passion, unrelieved by any glint of sunshine. From this time he rapidly lost sympathy with the ideals and conventions of the romantic drama. The moods of the questioner, the skeptic, the satiric commentator, began to prevail. Nevertheless, his public took him for more of a pessimist and doctrinaire than he really was. The entertaining "Comedy of Love," wherein a pair of romantic lovers, begirt on every hand by the prose of betrothal and wedlock, renounce each other lest they too fall from the heights, was received with a chorus of indignant protest as an attack on the sacred institution of matrimony. Ibsen was supposed to have intended a demonstration that marriage is and must be the *coup de grâce* of ideal love; and this although he himself was now happily married, and although the other side of the question is admirably stated in the play itself.

What wonder if he began to feel uneasy in Norway? Conscious of high aims and devoted to his art, he saw his efforts misunderstood and assailed by the local philistines, who insisted on making him out a doctrinaire instead of an artist. His income, too, was pitifully small. In a well-known poem of the period he likened himself to a bear compelled to dance in a heated caldron. One may guess that he already dreamed of making his voice heard beyond the limits of the Northland, for there is surely a personal note in the tragedy of "The Pretenders," in which King Haakon carries all before him, because he believes in himself, while his rival Skule is borne down by the creeping paralysis of self-distrust. Ibsen had faith in his own destiny, but he felt that he needed a *πού στῶ* in the free, wide life of the Continent. A Government stipend, obtained with some difficulty, finally brought the coveted boon within his reach. In the spring of 1864 he left Norway for Italy, to spend the next quarter-century of his life in voluntary expatriation, at first in Rome, then in Dresden, later in Munich.

The first-fruits of the long exile were "Brand" (1866), and its pendant, "Peer Gynt" (1867); the tragedy of fanaticism and the tragic-comedy of easy-going selfishness. In these great poems Ibsen incidentally freed his mind with regard to certain shortcomings of his countrymen. Both heroes are undeniably made to a scheme rather than copied from the book of life; but the largeness and audacity of the scheme, the vigor of the drawing, and the novelty of the situations make the strange poems a never-ending delight to the reader. In Brand we have a character for whom the only merit is the strong will unswervingly devoted to a transcendental idea of duty. The fanatical priest, who has none of the weaknesses that make men lovable, and who sacrifices wife and chi. and finally himself to the inner *daimon*, i. a repellent figure, but grand in his isolation. Brand was conceived as the passionate enemy of all half-and-half natures—all who are a little of this and a little of that, according as the wind blows, and who go through the world talking about consequences, feasibility, and expediency. To regard him as the mouthpiece of Ibsen's own opinions is partly right; only one must not forget that the whole drift of the play is to show how such an iron rule of conduct makes havoc of life. But how futile it is to speak of a fine poem as if its "tendency" were the principal thing! What counts in "Brand" is the poetry of it—its imaginative intensity, its vivid portraiture, its terrible pathos. And the same holds of "Peer Gynt," save that the pathos is here replaced by fantastic humor of a vein new to modern literature.

In elaborating "Brand" and "Peer Gynt," which apprised the world that a new star had arisen in the North, Ibsen had deferred for the time being a dramatic plan of still larger import. His first visit to Italy in 1864 had brought home to his imagination the "glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome," and had suggested the problem of "Emperor and Galilean." This problem was to represent the form and pressure of life at that pregnant epoch when ancient paganism was making its last stand against the religion of the cross. It was a theme to tempt the ambition of a world-poet, but the materials proved intractable, and the final result was a dramatic colossus which is bewildering rather than impressive. It was its author's last experiment in historical tragedy.

Even before the publication of "Emperor and Galilean," in 1873, Ibsen had already begun to work the vein with which his fame is now mainly associated. "The Young Men's League," with its delectable Stensgaard as the representative of demagogic humbuggery and shiftiness, appeared in 1869. Its satire now seems good-natured and innocent enough, but, at that time, the play was fiercely resented by "friends of the people," who saw their favorite doctrines cutting a rather sorry figure. And yet, just as in the later plays, we have to do not with a strenuous pamphleteer pressing home doctrines that are dear to his heart, but rather with a cynic—a Democritus minus his laugh—looking out upon the shibboleths, humbugs, illusions, and hypocrisies, and showing how they work in concrete cases.

In this brief review there is no room for anything more than a passing reference to the great quintet of plays that mark the meridian stage of Ibsen's career, and which may be described—imperfectly, to be sure—as probings of the social organism. Their scheme is to present, under a fair-seeming exterior, a situation that is rotten at the core; and then to make the play disclose the miserable facts and the damage done by trying to cover them up. "The Pillars of Society" (1877), the mellowest of the five, was given a happy ending, which is morally if not æsthetically edifying; Consul Bernick, whose greatness rests on lies, was merely made to confess his sins in public and turn over a new leaf. In "A Doll's House" (1879), the ideal demand of equality and candor in the marriage relation was pushed to a semi-tragic conclusion. In "Ghosts" (1881), Ibsen dipped his pen in the blackest of ink, and paid his respects to the critics who charged him with thinking too meanly of conventional morality. "See," he said, "how your conventional morality works when it is taken too seriously by a high-minded woman who is tied for life to a profligate." In "An Enemy of the People" (1882), the ideal demand of public honesty was pitted against municipal corruption; while in "The Wild Duck" (1884), on the whole the finest of the later plays, the ideal demand itself was made the target of delicious persiflage. Whoso is inclined to think of Ibsen as a preacher only, and to deny him the impartiality of the true artist, should study "The Wild Duck."

In the final phase of his work he became more and more a pathologist. The elemental passions of human nature had by this time become an old story, and in the search for something new he chose to occupy himself with men and women in whom exceptional fortune has produced a mental habit amounting to an obsession. With this tendency came an increasing fondness for symbolism and the mystic association of ideas. The consequence is that his latest works, with all their perfection of technic and delicacy of drawing, seem much less vitally human than the earlier ones. Such plays as "The Lady from the Sea," "Little Eyolf," and "When We Two Dead Awaken," are admirable enough as subtle studies in eccentric psychology, but they will hardly take a place among the masterpieces of dramatic literature. They appeal to the curious mind, but fail to stir the deeps of universal human nature.

One who looks back over Ibsen's long literary career and takes note of the number and heterogeneousness of his productions will be impressed, first of all, with the difficulty of finding any form of words that shall fitly characterize his versatile genius as a whole. We have to do with an evolution in which one stage is not like another, and also with astonishing diversities in one and the same stage. "The quintessence of Ibsenism" is hard to extract and describe—little less so than the quintessence of Goetheism. To search his writings for a coherent doctrine of ethical or sociological import would be futile, for he can be quoted copiously on both sides of every question. This is only another way of saying that his endowment was that of a dramatist—a species of artist for whom the two-sidedness of questions is a fundamental postulate. To discover the real Ibsen behind the opposing tirades of his characters is a difficult matter, just as in the case of any great playwright. And then, he had a way of making one play grow out of another in such wise that the second should be a sort of antidote to the first, or should let the light play upon the old problem from another direction. Such is the relation, for example, between "Brand" and "Peer Gynt"; or between "The Wild Duck" and the plays that immediately preceded it.

But if Ibsen has no very definite philosophy he has temperament; and we have heard that a work of art is a corner of life seen through a temperament. His was a vehement nature, always intent on being itself and going its own way. At no time was he ever in danger of the fate that threatened Peer Gynt at the hands of the lean button-moulder—that of being melted up as mere scrap for lack of a positive individuality. Speaking broadly, one must say that Ibsen's artistic temperament is deficient in humor. Taken by and large, his plays present a rather sombre view of life. The Genius of Laughter brought no gifts to his cradle. He saw the seamy side of things and only that. He heard the discords and the jangles, but to hear them as elements

of a larger symphony was not his affair. There was in him but little of the buoyancy of hope or the tenderness of an infinite pity that pardons all because it knows all. Yet there are sunny scenes of pure romance in some of the earlier plays, and in the later ones there is no lack of sardonic humor in certain situations and characters. Even so savage a critic of Ibsen as Max Nordau has recorded the opinion that Gina in "The Wild Duck" is "one of the profoundest creations in the world's literature"—a female Sancho Panza who falls but little below her Spanish prototype.

Of Ibsen's realism it is necessary to speak with some caution. The fact is that his plots are in the main highly artificial concoctions; only, the grave improbabilities are hidden away in the presupposition. In accumulating his mass of combustibles which it is for the play to explode, he pays little attention to ordinary probability, but brings together and piles up what suits his purpose. His exposition usually reveals an ancient entanglement which in actual life would hardly have come about at all, or, if it had, would have straightened itself out long ago. But given the presupposition and the characters, what one sees and hears upon the stage is a very plausible counterfeit of reality. And how surpassingly clever is the technic! Where shall we find another modern playwright who is such a virtuoso in the management of dialogue? Who else can crowd so much of *Stimmung* into a word or a phrase, or produce such intense dramatic effects by means of what is ostensibly mere conversation?

Will his fame endure? There are signs that outside of Scandinavia his vogue is on the wane, and, truth to tell, he has little claim to the august title of world-poet. He will continue to be played more or less by the theatres and to be read by students of the drama; but it is not likely that his books will be extensively read in translation as "mere literature," because, with the exception of "Brand," they are lacking in all the elements of higher edification. Moreover, "Brand" is so intensely Norwegian that no translation can fully preserve its savor. Indeed, take him as a whole, Ibsen is Norwegian to the core, and at his best where his work is most strongly redolent of his native soil. The superb opening scene of "Brand" is worth a whole volume of exotic imaginings like those in "Emperor and Galilean." But the best of him—his poetry, his suggestiveness, his wonderfully pregnant style, his subtle intensities and illuminative flashes—are to a great extent lost in translation. It would not be very surprising, therefore, if the world at large should decide to neglect him. But in the Northland, and particularly in Norway, where the language that he wrote makes music in the heart, his fame will abide with increasing lustre.

CALVIN THOMAS.

IN BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

KAMPALA, UGANDA, March 18, 1906.

At the present day, a trip to Africa, and indeed to Darkest Africa, has become a very simple affair for the eager tourist. To be sure, an American will have to go to Europe first, unless he prefers the longer road through India; but from Europe itself there are now many and, for the most part, sufficiently comfortable steamship lines to all the principal African ports. Leaving out of consideration the Africa of the north, of the Mediterranean—for in climate, natural productions, population and history, it is not really part of Africa at all, from which it is cut off by the desert—there remain the three other great regions of varying degrees of attractiveness. Of these, the West Coast is not likely, for a long time to come, to appeal to the casual traveller. It is too hot and unhealthy, and, though railway building is going on apace, there is still too much difficulty in penetrating well into the interior except by railway and steamer up the Congo—doubtless an interesting trip, but as yet hardly a comfortable one. South Africa is, of course, an old story. The journey from London to Cape Town is simple, and in many parts of South Africa one can find and enjoy all the comforts of civilization if one is willing to pay for them. The railways stretch many hundred miles to the northward, and the great Victoria Falls are now accessible enough to have been visited by the transplanted British Association. Historically, the interest in South Africa has so far turned not so much on the relations of the dominant white race to the black majority, though this is the question of the future, as it has on the struggle between the near-akin Dutch and British elements.

East Africa, broadly speaking, is composed of a series of large territories, belonging to Portugal, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, and France. They have to be visited separately from the coast, as the holdings of France in this part of the world are chiefly confined to the island of Madagascar, and the possessions of the other Powers, though contiguous on the map, have but scant means of communication with one another, except by sea. For the present, at least, the British possessions are the most interesting. They are easily accessible far into the interior, for they have been opened up by a great railway enterprise. They include, among their populations, one of the most intelligent native peoples on the continent, and they probably possess the most resources for future development. They are divided into two separate administrative regions, British East Africa and the Uganda Protectorate, but the division is artificial, and hardly likely to be permanent. Both Protectorates have recently been well described by competent authorities, and in both even a hasty visit enables us to recognize the usual characteristics of British colonial rule. A large savage population is being taught the principles of law and order by a handful of honest, determined, and devoted white officials. Life and property are generally secure, even-handed justice is dealt out, roads are built, production and trade are increasing—all in the way we expect wherever we find the Pax Britannica. These admirable phenomena have been described many times. Here I shall attempt only to touch on two or three features of the country that are peculiar to it.

To begin with, there is the famous Uganda Railway, which, by the way, runs towards but not in Uganda, for it stops on reaching Lake Victoria at a point still distant from its destination, whither we have to proceed by boat. The line constitutes a unique departure in the history of British colonization. In no other case has the mother country made such a present to one of her newest and weakest children. The situation, however, was an extraordinary one. In the early nineties there were many strong reasons for establishing and maintaining a firm protectorate in Uganda. Its people had awakened profound interest in England, and English missionaries had already converted thousands of them, but the country had just been rent by civil and religious wars, there was more than a possibility, on the part of both Germans and French, of attempts to annex it, and it was in serious danger of coming under Mohammedan rule, which would soon have wiped out the promising Christian churches. English public opinion demanded that Uganda be held, but how could it be effectively administered when to reach it from the coast a journey of two months was necessary, through a region in great part almost uninhabited, and where the prevalence of the tsetse fly made the use of pack animals impossible? The cost of transportation was thus enormous, and the only obvious way out of the difficulty was to build a railway. This the home Government, being at that time in the hands of the Conservatives, made up its mind to do. The engineering difficulties to overcome, though considerable, were not very great (the bridges were made in America and put up on the spot by American workmen); but, as there was no native labor available, thousands of coolies had to be brought over from India, and there was difficulty in feeding and supplying them properly. Then, too, a certain number of mistakes were made in construction, so that, when all was finished, the total cost came to the heavy sum of about £6,000,000 sterling. As the receipts have only just begun to exceed the running expenses, it is not likely that much will ever be repaid to the mother country, which may thus be regarded as having made her new colonies a magnificent gift.

Mombasa, the starting-point of the road, was a native town captured by the Portuguese in the days of their greatness, and held by them amid many vicissitudes for over a century, until, after a long siege, it was taken by the Arabs of Muscat. The old Portuguese fort still remains intact, to-day serving as a prison. Later, the city came under the rule of Zanzibar, from which it passed to that of Great Britain. It is a thriving place, with some twenty-five thousand inhabitants, many of them Hindus. The harbor is small; but, three miles away, on the other side of the island, is the splendid port of Kilindini, where the larger steamers anchor. The ride by rail to Kisumu on Lake Victoria takes a little less than two days. About halfway up, we come to Nairobi, the capital of British East Africa, a raw settlement of no particular natural attractions. Soon after leaving the coast, the line begins to rise, and runs henceforth through an elevated region, mounting and descending several times. At its highest, it is over eight thousand feet above sea-level. The scenery from the car windows is often really fine. In some places, much of the formerly uninhabited land close to the line has been taken up by white settlers, and the natives are gathering in increasing numbers, especially about the stations. It is true, the

warlike, picturesque Masai have a tendency to withdraw from the approach of civilization, which has deprived them of their chief occupation, that of raiding their neighbors. The rest, attracted by the new opportunities for wealth created by the stranger, do not shun contact with him, even if they have not yet accepted all his ideas, especially as regards clothing. At the stations the traveller frequently sees most astonishing costumes, or the lack of them. Among the Kavirondo, a tribe on the northeast corner of Lake Victoria, the head dress is often very elaborate; the spear still commonly serves the men as walking-stick, a series of bracelets about the limbs and body seems to be a favorite form of female attire, and in the market-places at Kisumu one can view hundreds of both sexes, ornamented, but in a state of complete nudity, or so arrayed as to show that their garments have no connection with our ideas of decency. Except when approached by a camera (a thing some of us also object to), the Kavirondo appear perfectly unconscious that there is anything uncommon in their appearance, and they have the reputation of being decidedly more moral than the average.

Interesting as are the curious people visible along the Uganda Railway, to some travellers the wild animals are more attractive still. As game is protected to a certain distance on both sides of the line, it has got used to the iron horse, which does no harm to it. Especially along the Athi plain the spectacle is extraordinary enough. Of course, the old resident will tell you that the animals used to be far more numerous and you must not expect too much. There are no elephants within a good many miles of the track, and you are not likely to get a look at a rhinoceros even if one did charge a train a year or so ago; the buffalo have been killed off by cattle plague; you go through the giraffe region at night, and do not pass near enough to any lake to catch a glimpse of a crocodile or hippopotamus, though all these beasts abound. The leopards, too, a plague of the country, seldom show themselves when they can help it. On the other hand, you can count on seeing numerous flocks of ostriches and herds of zebra, also the great hartebeest and deer and antelope of many kinds and sizes by the thousand. They all mingle together with perfect freedom, forming a charming picture. On the approach of the train they will, if near the track, be startled into running a few dozen yards, but they soon subside again and look at the strange monster with the carelessness of familiarity. In addition to these peaceful creatures, if you are in luck, you may get a view of a prowling hyena or even of the lion himself, for there are plenty of them about. East Africa is indeed "a sportsman's paradise"—a fact the authorities are well aware of, as they show by their strict game laws. A shooting license costs a stranger fifty pounds, not to speak of many extras, and the number and kinds of animals he may kill, except for noxious ones like lions and leopards, is strictly limited. Even the colonists have not much more freedom, though their licenses are cheaper. These wise measures, besides bringing in the Government a tidy little income, keep alive the goose that lays the golden eggs.

There is one question which can be applied to but few thoroughly tropical regions, but which is of the utmost importance for the future of East Africa. Is it what is generally called "a white man's country"—that is to say, a land where the white man and particularly the Anglo-Saxon can not only live himself, but rear children who will not degenerate? East Africa is situated directly on the equator, and the low-lying coast is obviously as unsuitable for the reproduction of the white race as it is everywhere else in the same latitudes; but the interior is made up of mountain and plateau, several thousand feet above the sea-level. To be sure, there is no winter, but the nights are cool; indeed, if you go high enough up, really cold. Also, the native population is so sparse that there is plenty of room for immigrants. It has thus been enthusiastically proclaimed, and by competent authorities, that here, in the heart of the tropics, is a future home for the virile development of millions of Englishmen. Nay, more, not long ago the Jews were offered a district in which to found a new Zion, though nothing has come of the idea. On the other side, it has been urged that because land is high it is not necessarily healthy. Marshes, noxious insects, and fevers can be found at very lofty altitudes, and though drainage may effect a great deal in time, deluges of tropical rain and a sun that beats down vertically on the head are not phenomena which can be modified by man. Altogether, there is room for diversity of opinion, and the question is one which can hardly be settled definitely for two or three generations, if then. Even the passing tourist can notice two things in this connection—first, that there is already a considerable white immigration, part of it from South Africa, and, second, that there is plenty of fever about.

The Uganda Protectorate in any case, even if much of it has an elevation of two or three thousand feet, is not, nor will it ever be, "white man's country." In compensation it contains within its borders perhaps the most promising negro people on the whole African continent. We must keep in mind, by the way, that the kingdom of Uganda is only a part of the Protectorate, which is an artificial creation, including many different territories and tribes. Its northern portion along the upper Nile is one of the hottest regions in the world. Uganda proper is extremely interesting. The scenery, with its rolling country and wealth of tropical vegetation, even if it is not difficult to match in these parts of the world, is none the less a never-ceasing delight to the stranger. The inhabitants are obviously superior to any of those we have seen on our journey, the last of whom were the naked Kavirondo. Here, in the depths of the continent, the first explorers, Speke, Stanley, and others, found to their surprise not only a State with a real organization, but men scrupulously clothed, a nation intelligent, quick and anxious to learn what the newcomers could teach them. That was a generation ago. Now that the country is well known and under British sovereignty, there is no reason to accuse the earlier travellers of undue exaggeration in their reports. The progress since that time has been remarkable. A mass of converts have been made by French and English missionaries; in fact, it is hardly too much to describe almost the whole people, with the exception of a certain number of Mohammedans, as at least nominally Christian. The King Daudi is a bright, attractive little boy of nine, under the charge of an English tutor. During his minority, the Government is carried on by a regency and the different districts are administered by the native chiefs, who are said to be active and intelligent. The public peace is maintained, justice is dealt out, roads and bridges are built and kept up, all with very little English intervention. European articles of many sorts are being introduced or imitated. Schools are increasing in number, and the children are bright as well as anxious to learn. There is even a beginning of literature. Altogether, though the phrase "the Japanese of Africa," which has been applied to the Waganda, is, of course, inflated, they are certainly a well-endowed people, from whom the friends of the negro may hope for much.

There is, unfortunately, another and terribly dark side to the picture of life here. Within the last quarter of the century the population has decreased from perhaps four millions to one. There have been devastating wars, entailing great loss of human life, but now, in times of peace, the diminution still continues. The land is too full of marshes to be healthy, even for the natives; there has been a certain emigration; and then the birth-rate is very low. This may be due, at least in part, to the widespread immorality prevalent, as was the case already before the coming of the white men. The Waganda kept up their numbers by carrying away the women of their weaker neighbors. Now that this source of supply has ceased, they are declining. To crown all, we have the terrible "sleeping sickness." Coming probably from the Congo, it was first noticed at Lake Victoria in 1900. Although its ravages have been confined chiefly to the lake and only to the northern portion of that (for it has not yet penetrated into the German sphere), it has counted its victims by the tens and perhaps by the hundreds of thousands. The once thickly settled Sesse Islands are now, many of them, practically uninhabited. The disease, as has been recently discovered, is communicated by the bite of a kind of tsetse fly. The victim may live two or three years, but there is no known case of recovery. As yet, only three or four white men in this vicinity have caught the malady, but it hangs like a pall over the region.

It would be a pity, however, to end these remarks in a sombre tone. To the traveller this part of the world is too beautiful, too fascinating for him to be easily pessimistic about it. The "sleeping sickness" may go as suddenly as it has come, or modern science, which is studying it actively, may discover some remedy against its ravages. There is fever here, but health depends largely on proper precautions, and, as compared with most other tropical climates, that of Uganda is delightful. The tide will turn, too, in the decline in population, for the race is strong enough physically; and improved morality under Christian teaching, together with improved hygiene, will strengthen it still more, while its mental qualities, already most promising, ought to develop quickly under the stimulus of the contact with civilization.

In the meanwhile the country is well worth a visit and is easy enough to reach. Mombasa is hardly further than Bombay from Europe, the interesting railway journey from the coast is not uncomfortable, the steamers on Lake Victoria are excellent, the scenery about the shores is delightful. Entebbe, the seaport of Uganda and the residence of the British commissioner, is a new, pretty town, with pleasant English society. A few miles inland is Kampala, perched on seven hills, with its royal palace and its Christian churches, built, and well built, by native labor. There are a few white missionaries, officials, and others, and some keen Indian traders, but around and about it is Africa, the real Africa we have read of in our childhood, the great Dark Continent only just opened out in full to the gaze of the white man.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

TOPOLOBAMPO AND THE FUERTE VALLEY.

FUERTE, MEXICO, March, 1906.

Topolobampo is something more than the port of entry for the rich valley of the Fuerte River. It is a strategic point in international commerce. Its importance was appreciated by the founders of that communistic colony which undertook to establish a mundane Paradise upon these shores some twenty years ago, and yet had the temerity to risk contact with the openly selfish outside world by projecting, and feebly beginning, the trans-continental railroad which later was revived and pushed with energy by Mr. A. E. Stilwell, a promoter of rare judgment and ability, ably seconded by the financial strength and skill of the accomplished governor of the State of Chihuahua, Don Enrique Creel.

Kansas City is very nearly the geographical centre of the United States, and the natural distributing and assembling point for commerce between the Eastern States and railroads leading towards Latin America and the Orient. This long-recognized fact, and the existence of an important virgin area through Indian Territory and Texas to the Mexican border at Presidio del Norte, led to the adoption of Kansas City as the northeastern terminus of a new transcontinental trunk line (the Kansas City, Mexico and Orient Railway), developing also a very rich agricultural and mineral district in Chihuahua and Sinaloa, ending at the superb harbor of Topolobampo, on the Gulf of California. This is the shortest possible railroad route between any point on the longitude of Kansas City and the Pacific Ocean; and the continuation by steamer route to Australia and New Zealand is almost directly on the line of a great circle connecting Kansas City with these antipodal centres of trade. The advantage does not lie with Topolobampo so far as ocean trade with China and Japan is concerned, the arc of the great circle carrying the steamer route within less than a day's steaming from the California coast. The saving in rail haul, however, where costs per ton mile are, at the smallest ratio, three times those by steamer, throws the advantage distinctly, though not heavily, in favor of the Mexican port. The advantages of port dues, through concession of the Mexican Government, also weigh conspicuously. It will be seen, accordingly, that Topolobampo has possibilities as a rival of San Francisco and the newly created port of San Pedro, the "young hopeful" of eager Los Angeles. Its importance, and the peril of it, were sufficiently great to awaken the Southern Pacific Company to bide their chance to make a clever move in this game of international trade, by securing a concession for the West Coast Railway through Sinaloa and Tepic to Guadalajara. This line, aimed partly at future possession of Topolobampo, if possible, will cross the Fuerte River at the lowest point on its course compatible with safety to its permanent way. It is manifest that the most feasible crossing, keeping in view the desire to pass near to Topolobampo, is just above La Constancia.

Topolobampo is one of four important Pacific ports, the others being San Francisco, Guaymas, and Mazatlan, which possess in common the peculiarity of being deep bays surrounded by isolated groups of volcanic mountains on the edge of low-lying coastal plains. Of the four, San Francisco and Topolobampo are the most remarkable. These are two of the finest harbors in the world. The entrance to Topolobampo harbor is along a tortuous but ample channel from 400 to 600 feet in width, on a general northeasterly course, veering northward at the straits, where a deep channel, entirely free from rocks, and averaging 500 feet in width, leads for a mile around the great bulk of Mt. Joshua to the wide expanse of the inner bay, called Ohuira, the latter affording fully one and three-quarter square miles of anchorage in forty feet of water. Beyond Ohuira Bay north and east the plains stretch level toward the Sierra de San Blas, unbroken save for low, isolated, conical hills about twenty miles away, known as Los Mochis, which in the Mayo Indian dialect signifies "the turtles." From the same tongue comes the name of Topolobampo, meaning "hidden water," a most appropriate appellation, for no one would guess, viewing these rugged mountains of Navachiste from the sea or from the land, that so splendid a sheet of water was surrounded by their protecting heights. No stream leads the way to Topolobampo. It seems as if when the forces of nature lifted these mountains they caught up a portion of the sea along with them. Tradition credits the Fuerte River with once having emptied into Ohuira Bay, and some ox-bow lagoons and other evidences point that way, but one of the advantages enjoyed by the port of Topolobampo is that there are no streams bearing silt to choke it. Thus it will remain always a deep harbor without dredging. The vulcanism that once was active here subsided long before the outburst of the rhyolites that heaped up their great terraces on the Sierra Madre. Since the andesites of the Navachiste range were ejected, they have been tremendously eroded, and the sea had cut deep fjords with towering precipices, which in turn formed each its talus. In the course of millenniums these taluses have grown until they have rounded off all vestiges of the ancient cliffs to their very tops, except the high pinnacles of Fernandez y Leal, which rise rugged and impressive 1,300 feet out of the sea.

The sheltered bays and coves of Topolobampo, teeming with fish and waterfowl, and abounding in oysters and clams, have from ancient times been the abode of man. The present railroad town is built upon a vast accumulation of kitchen-middens, stretching for more than half a mile along the water front in solid beds from two to five feet thick. On the northwest side of the narrow neck of land on which the town is situated, is a mangrove swamp, and just where this gives way to open water was an ancient canoe landing, by a level spot on which the heaps of shells and charcoal are piled from ten to twenty feet deep down to the water's edge. The existence of these splendid middens seems to have awakened no curiosity, so that the ethnologist still has here an attractive opportunity. For the most part the heaps consist of clam-shells, with great quantities of oysters, whelks, and winkles.

Remnants still remain of the former communistic colony disillusioned by the volcanic outbursts of the old Adam which demolished their idyllic hopes of peaceful association in a common effort to banish poverty, and disrupted the enterprise. Most agreeably disillusioning, perhaps, was the discovery which most of them have made that individual initiative, forbidden under the ordinances of the Crédit-Foncier Company, with which they originally cast their fortunes, is the surest course to peace and prosperity. That they have prospered, and in many cases grown fairly rich, in a land hitherto devoid of modern transportation facilities, starting as they did without funds, is a proof of the natural advantages of soil and climate which have favored their unaided efforts.

The staple crop of the lower part of the Fuerte valley is sugar-cane. Three large plantations with modern sugar-mills are now in operation at Los Mochis and Ahome, and near La Constancia. The cane yields an average of 16 per cent. saccharine matter, and in practical work a normal output of 175 pounds of washed sugar and 5 litres of 96 per cent. alcohol is obtained per ton. The small planters market their cane at the factories, receiving $4 Mexican silver per ton.

Extensive plantations of *mezcal* are also being established. In this general term are embraced several species of agave, all remarkable for their excellent fibre, commonly known as sisal hemp, and many of them famous as a source of alcoholic distillates. The use of the name *heniquen* for the same plants is becoming common, and incidentally confusing, since this is a liberal extension of the old Spanish name of *jeniquen*, originally applied exclusively to the *Agave rigida*, var. *sisalana*, grown solely as a fibre plant in the States of Vera Cruz and Yucatan. The varieties yielding both fibre and liquor are mostly *Agave Americana* and *A. lurida*, though others are used, all being species of the genus Agave, next to the cacti the most characteristic and conspicuous plants of Mexico. The experience of planters has shown that the cost of setting out 500 plants to the acre amounts to $115, and that the cost of subsequent tillage averages about $11.43 per acre each year for the seven years needed for the plant to reach maturity. The gross yield of fibre alone is worth about $250 per acre, showing a net profit of over $7 an acre per annum. It is certainly one of the most attractive new industries now inviting the attention of agriculturists in

Mexico, particularly for those who acquire lands at the present prices, the highest of which are only $2 gold per acre.

The leading products of the Fuerte valley, aside from sugar and mezcal liquor and fibre, are corn and cotton, and extensive vineyards are being established. The climate is in no sense tropical, in many respects resembling that of southern California, with the difference, decidedly in its favor, that the winter rains are light, while the largest precipitation occurs during the growing season, from the middle of June to the middle of September. During the last two years the rainfall has been excessive, occurring inopportunely through all seasons, to the dismay of the corn-planters, who have suffered severely in consequence. This phenomenon is doubtless related to the extraordinary precipitation throughout the southwestern portions of the United States for the same period, which has broken the seven years' drought that had reduced large areas of that region to a more waterless desert than ever before, and had even threatened southern California with financial disaster.

The aspect of the Fuerte valley is singularly pleasing. The broad alluvial lands by the sea are broken here and there by isolated hills, growing more numerous toward the east, where the rugged cliffs of the San Blas range stand like a gigantic palisade separating the coastal plain from the rich *vegas* and rolling uplands of the interior, which extend beyond Fuerte to the base of the Sierra Madre at Choix. The great wall of the mountains makes an eastern sky-line of diversified contour, and ever-changing aspect of light and color. The vision northward is likewise limited by mountain peaks, tumbled in confusion along the border of Sonora, culminating in the aspiring cluster of perpendicular walls and turrets, like a natural fortress guarding the silver treasures of far-famed Alamos.

Though fortune has never cast her fleeting smile upon the Fuerte as it did upon her sister city of Alamos, she has been blest with a greater abundance of fertile land, and more than silver mines has the unfailing flow of precious waters in her river brought prosperity and the certainty of a still more brilliant future. Still, she is not without her mines. The San Blas range is attracting attention as a source of copper. Placer mines are reported in the very heart of the valley. Choix has long been known in the mining world as the source of very showy copper ores, which have been mined in desultory fashion for many years by *gambusinos*, and shipped abroad through the port of Agiabampo, which is a shallow roadstead, within shorter striking distance by mule train than the harbor of Topolobampo. The unstable and commonly low gold value in these ores, with the bunchy habit of the copper deposits themselves, has repressed enthusiasm in the past for this isolated mining district, but an American corporation has now entered the field with a promise of development to demonstrate whether it can be made a reliable producer of copper on a commercial scale. Just over the State line in Chihuahua, but economically as well as geographically linked to the Fuerte Valley of Sinaloa, is a new gold mining district, which has started off with the pyrotechnics of bonanza conditions, the chief interest centring in the Lluvia de Oro mine, a name which to-day replaces the former synonyms for wealth and power—Rosario, Trigo, San José de Gracia, which once held thrall the imagination of the West Coast Mexican. The gossip in the stores and on the streets of the cities and towns turns so persistently to mines that the newcomer would scarcely appreciate how undeveloped is the mineral industry of the region. Every man has a rock in his pocket, which he calls a "sample" of his mine. The favorite specimen is a liver-brown jasper, gayly streaked with apple-green chrysocolla. This is not saying that it all comes from the same generous hole-in-the-ground, for in this part of the valley the rocks exposed pertain almost wholly to a very ancient basal floor of andesite, through which and on top of which were poured the later rhyolites and basalts so conspicuous farther east in the Sierra Madre; and the great uniformity in geological conditions over an immese area, particularly favorable for the formation of copper and silver veins, might easily lead to the repetition of almost identical ores in widely separated localities. An English company is expending a vast sum in the erection of a custom smelting-plant not far from Choix, which displays a very venturesome spirit in view of the extremely undeveloped condition of the mineral claims in the surrounding country, the general apathy of the Latin-Americans in the matter of sustaining such enterprises by steady and energetic production, and the question of transportation, recently complicated by the entrance of the Southern Pacific Company, as a foil against the schemes of the Kansas City, Mexico and Orient Railway, and all that depends upon them.

The mining promoters, of a sort which the rich Easterner has not yet learned to avoid, have woven their webs and entangled various unsuspecting capitalists, while the West Coast looks on with a smile, awaiting the inevitable dénoûment. The crashes will necessarily injure the reputation of the district; but where so many small mines for so many decades past have contributed perceptibly to the world's stocks of copper, silver, and gold, it is reasonable to suppose that intelligent exploration and prudent management, under trained and experienced mining engineers, may establish a notable mineral industry upon a sound basis.

In spite of so much mining talk, Fuerte will strike the most ordinary observer as essentially a rural city, entirely innocent of the thrills, excitements, and extravagances of a mining centre. Such it has never known. Its people have manifestly counted carefully the cost, and—paid it! Their mansions have never seen better days. The town has grown rich slowly, steadily, surely, ministering to the wants of an agricultural community; also in no small degree absorbing the lands after the exhaustion of long-continued credits extended to the planters. The architecture of the place possesses nothing noteworthy, unless it be the sad decline of the purer and more artistic architectural instincts of the early days, as shown in the bizarre municipal palace now being built. The old church has a well-proportioned tower; the plaza is ample, and not quite as over-bedecked with parterres as the Plaza de Arenas in Culiacan; there is a noble *panteon* or tomb, prominent on a neighboring hill; and an ideal date-palm avenue by the river on the way to the ancient mission of Ocolomi. Above all, there is a large circle of wholesome, genial, well-educated gentlemen who are the chief ornament of the commercial capital of the Fuerte valley, worthy to take their places among the leaders of the new industrial order that is being inaugurated in this fertile region.

COURTENAY DEKALB.

Correspondence.

THE ASSOCIATED PRESS AND GERMANY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been directed to a letter which appeared in your issue of May 17, signed by Dr. E. Schrader of Spokane, Wash., in which he says, among other things: "Does it not look queer that, of all the news spread broadcast over the world by the Associated Press during the recent years about German political affairs, more than 90 per cent. was absolute falsehood, or, to call a spade a spade, lies, made up for no other purpose than to stir up distrust and hatred against Germany!"

I do not know this Dr. Schrader, and I have no idea that you would care to be responsible for his utterances; but since they are published in the *Nation*, may I ask you to say for me that this statement is absolutely groundless, and that no one would more promptly bear witness to its falsity than every important member of the German Government, whether in Berlin or among its representatives at Washington or New York.—Sincerely yours,

MELVILLE E. STONE,
General Manager.

THE ASSOCIATED PRESS, 195 BROADWAY,
NEW YORK CITY, May 27, 1906.

EPISCOPAL INTOLERANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "E. L. S.," in the *Nation* of May 17, praises Socrates for upbraiding his friends for using false words in regard to his burial. This is all very well and praiseworthy, but was not Socrates under the condemnation of the Dicastery for plain and truthful talking? So is Dr. Crapsey under the displeasure of the Standing Committee, and will be unfrocked unless he lie to please the powers that be. Plain and truthful statements are not always profitable.

Just at present the Episcopal Church, in western New York at any rate, is in an intolerant mood. It seems to regard its *credo* as more sacred than the Scriptures themselves. And the virgin birth is especially sacred, as if such a belief were of any consequence. What boots it whether Christ were born of a virgin or sprang from the head of Jove? His ethics are the same. Thaumaturgy no longer holds the high place it once held with any one, and is a stumbling-block to many.

There seems just one way out of the dilemma that confronts the Church, and that is to let the creed stand. It is histori-

cal; it is the connecting link between the present and the past; it is the bridge that has brought us over. It has comforted millions, and is a present comfort to many. So let it stand just as the Scriptures stand, but let each individual interpret it just as he does the Bible. Not even the Standing Committee would ask Dr. Crapsey or any one else to cling to Adam as an historical fact, nor would they insist on eternal punishment of the kind once meted out to sinful creatures. Then why consider the virgin birth so vital? How many vital points have been given up since the time of Copernicus! And the Church is greater than ever. It commends itself to thinking men more when it stands for human needs than when it stands *on* ancient legends.

Again, the Episcopal Church ought not to be too touchy on the question of heresy when her very foundations were heretical. Is not the Anglican Church the church of Henry, of Edward, and Elizabeth, notwithstanding all the logic of the Tractarians? The Episcopal Church may expel Dr. Crapsey just as a sister church expelled Dr. Briggs, but another and nobler place will await him. Culture and true virtue are not afraid of heresy when that heresy comes from one of high ideals and genuine purity. J. A. BARTHOLOMEW.

NAPLES, N. Y., May 22, 1906.

MEYER'S 'MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of May 3 your reviewer concludes a review of 'Municipal Ownership in Great Britain' with the words: "It is unfortunate that skilful bargaining on the part of companies is characterized as 'enlightened self-interest,' while equal vigilance on behalf of the towns is persistently ascribed to the 'greed' and 'stupidity' of the 'municipal politician.'"

Nowhere in the book in question is there any discussion or characterization of "skilful bargaining on the part of the companies"; and the words "enlightened self-interest" are used only once, to wit, in the last sentence in the book. That sentence is a statement as to the relative reasonableness of the charges made respectively by the American public-service companies and the British municipalities. Finally, neither the word "stupidity" nor the word "stupid" occurs anywhere in 'Municipal Ownership in Great Britain.'

Your reviewer states that 'Municipal Ownership' is based all but exclusively on official evidence; and he adds that he has not himself examined that evidence. It is true that the evidence, as presented in 'Municipal Ownership,' reveals a state of affairs well-nigh incredible. But that fact does not justify your reviewer in intimating, without previous investigation, that the evidence has not been presented impartially and fully. The evidence is easily accessible to any one living within reach of the libraries of Boston and New York; and the subject discussed in 'Municipal Ownership' is of such importance to the American public that the reviewer is not justified in turning the public mind against the book without having made an examination of the evidence upon which the book purports to be based.

The very high esteem in which I hold your journal, emboldens me to ask you to publish this rejoinder.

I am, your obedient servant,

HUGO R. MEYER.

DENVER, May 12, 1906.

[We supposed that what Mr. Meyer calls "the prices charged to us by our companies under the stimulus of enlightened self-interest" (p. 331) were an instance of skilful bargaining—the expression, by the way, was our own, and was not attributed to Mr. Meyer. So far as we recall, almost every attempt on the part of a British municipality to safeguard what it believed to be its interests, is assailed by Mr. Meyer in vigorous, and sometimes offensive, terms. "Greed," "brazen and shameless attitude of mind," "brutality," are a few of the epithets applied (pp. 85, 228, 324). A second reading of the book shows that Mr. Meyer is right in saying that the word "stupidity" does not occur in it. In characterizing the "bureaucrat" or the "bureaucratic mind" he usually employs stronger terms, so that our review did less than full justice. We gave Mr. Meyer credit for having made a thorough study of his sources of information, and expressed the opinion that his arguments could not be lightly answered. At many points, indeed, his views coincide with our own. It is true, nevertheless, that the question is not so simple and so one-sided as he supposes.—ED. NATION.]

THE COMMON VOTER'S "CIVICS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the results of the "Test of Civics" applied to college students are distressing to our political optimists, what words could describe their despondency if the same tests were applied to the common every-day voter, the man in the street—the man who in the last analysis determines our public policy? Imagine the male passengers in a street car taken at random and subjected to Professor Shaper's tests! How many of them could say offhand whether or no the executive made the laws? How many of them could explain what is meant by the unconstitutionality of a law? Or, imagine that they could be inveigled into a psychological laboratory and a record could be made of the reasons which induced them to vote for or against So-and-So as judge in the last judicial election; or why they voted for or against Jones for alderman. Exactly what did they expect would be the immediate outcome of municipal ownership, if the ticket carried? How much sentiment, how much cold reason, and how much accurate knowledge was there in their minds when voting on the tariff or the silver question? If the results of such investigations could be graphically formulated and thrown on a screen for the benefit of some of our sanguine patriots with high foreheads, bald heads, and pale blue eyes—our amiable vox-populi-vox-Dei, all-men-are-born-equal fanatics—we should then undoubtedly see the beginning of an effective demand for a limitation and revision of our political creed long since needed.

Professor Shaper has given our national self-complacency an unpleasant but stimulating "jolt." It is to be hoped that more are forthcoming.

E. L. C. M.

Notes.

In course of publication in parts by B. G. Teubner, Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), are two handbooks of commercial discipline, 'Der Deutsche Kaufmann' and 'Der Deutsche Groskaufmann,' the associated product of many competent hands, with copious illustrations.

To enumerate the fifty volumes of "Everyman's Library" before us (London: Dent, New York: Dutton) would require much space, and the publishers will send a prospectus on application. The form is eminently for the hand, the print good, the binding neatly ornate. The standard texts reprinted are introduced and more or less edited by eminent writers, presided over by Mr. Ernest Rhys. The result is a very desirable library at the moderate cost of half a dollar per volume. Here one may find represented Scott, Jane Austen, Bulwer Lytton, Trollope, the Kingsleys, Charles Reade, George Eliot, Boswell, Coleridge, Charles Lamb, Carlyle, Emerson, Tennyson, Browning, Lockhart, Macaulay, Borrow, Speke, White of Selborne, Sir Thomas Malory, F. W. Robertson, Huxley, Hans Andersen, even Balzac ('Peau de Chagrin' in translation). We can go no further in analysis or description; but since, in addition to Coleridge's 'Biographia Literaria,' we have his poetic anthology by Stopford Brooke—'The Golden Book of Coleridge'—we will remark on one example of the compiler's avowed license in leaving out "stanzas and lines which seem [to him] to injure the impression of the whole." We refer to the "Christmas Carol," a torrential invective, with specifications, against war, worthy to be taught by rote in every public school. By an almost jingoish selection, Mr. Brooke has reduced it to a sort of three-stanza hymn, perfectly abstract, with the moral power quite gone out of it.

The handsome reprint in three volumes of 'Kaempfer's History of Japan' (the Macmillan Co.) is an event of high literary interest, and it deserves the space usually granted to a body article in a quarterly review. To treat it fairly, not only should one make comparison with the facts of to-day, but an expert should annotate, showing how far he could assent to Dr. Kaempfer's assertions and speculations. On the subject of Shinto, for example, the work is both obsolete and misleading, for it deals with Riobu or Buddhaized Shinto; yet even here Dr. Kaempfer is valuable as historian of opinion. His derivation of the Japanese as "an original nation" from Babylon, by direct migration, can hardly be called science. Apart from what in the book is manifestly of slight importance, the general contents are of such value that, for a student of Japan, it would be hard to overpraise them. It is not probable that the European world in 1729 was able to appreciate what Kaempfer, during his twenty-six months' residence in Japan, in 1691-

1692, had acquired. We have here the original book-matter, account of translator, introductions, maps, diagrams, illustrations, appendices, and index. The chapters on Siam, voyage to Japan, reception at Nagasaki, local government, the Portuguese in Japan, journey to Yedo, papers on the moxa, tree plant, etc., are unabridged. For the reference library and the philosophical student of the Japanese, the work is invaluable. Mechanically, there is little to be desired.

A revised edition of Sir Edward Ridley's translation of the 'Pharsalia' comes to us from the press of Longmans, Green & Co. Pompey, Lucan's choice between the two contestants, was not a suitable hero for an inspiring epic, and Lucan's qualifications as a poet were decidedly inferior. "Oratoribus magis quam poetis adnumerandus," was the opinion of Quintilian, and, bearing in mind that Quintilian does not imply that he was really a good orator, one can hardly better the criticism. It follows that a faithful translation can hardly give a very inspiring poetic result, and, aside from furnishing a scholarly avocation to a cultured English judge, we fail to see that the effort was worth while. To go back to Nisard as to the substance of the poem: "For philosophy, for the knowledge of man, for the understanding of his passions, of his interests, of his inclinations, the 'Pharsalia' is a dead work; there is nothing to be learned there." Work on Lucan since the appearance of the first edition of this translation, ten years ago, has not been quite as scant as Justice Ridley imagines. At least one of the books within that time which has escaped his notice, that of Oskar Schmidt, on the use of metaphor and simile in the 'Pharsalia,' might have furnished valuable suggestions for the revision of his translation.

'In the Desert' (London: Edward Arnold), by L. March Phillips, is an attempt, first, to give the impressions received during a journey in the Algerian Sahara. In this the author has been more successful than most travellers. His descriptions of the first glimpse of the vast wilderness from the great gorge known as the Fum es-Sahara, the Door of the Desert, the sunrise, the storm, the oases and the nomad tent-dwellers, are vivid. In addition to these pictures are brief accounts of two or three towns including Kairwân, the Mecca of North Africa. This leads Mr. Phillips to show the civilizing results of the French occupation, their general methods of government and development of the hidden resources of the sands through well-sinking and railway construction. His main object, however, is not merely to reproduce his travelling notes, but to demonstrate that the Arab is the true child of the desert; its instability is the marked feature in the Arab's character. Hence a sketch of his history from his first appearance in the Western world to the present time, and an exhibition of the way in which the desert and its life are reproduced in his poetry, his architecture and his religion. The chapter upon Mohammedanism dwells at some length upon the two great divisions of the followers of the prophet, the Sunnites and Shiites, but makes no mention of the peculiarly African sect of the Senussiyeh, whose influence has been and still is great in Central and Western Africa. The book is interesting and suggestive, though the style is at times somewhat discursive and it is a little difficult to follow the author's train of thought. The excellent illustrations are mostly of desert landscapes and architectural details.

A new handbook for campers, 'Camp Kits and Camp Life' (Scribners), comes from the pen of Charles Stedman Hanks, otherwise known as "Niblick." To this writer successful camping does not necessitate so complete a reversion from civilization to nature as some insist upon. He names just forty-eight different articles of food and seasoning as the desirable equipment for two men and two guides for an outing of one month. The book is copiously supplied with instructions to the novice for specific emergencies, but there is a tendency to assume agencies not at all likely to be at hand, since most people do not go into the woods fitted out on the scale indicated by the varied table supply already mentioned. Directions for firing at a bunch of birds imply that Mr. Hanks is not abreast of the ethical development of sportsmanship. The man who deliberately fires into a bunch of birds, possibly crippling several in his eagerness to bring more than one to his bag, has a better claim to the title of pot-hunter than to that of sportsman. The list of possible guns from which the hunter may choose is also too inclusive for the highest ideals of sportsmanship. The chapter on bass fishing indicates but little experience with that particular fish, and the description of a dime's worth of line and hooks, to be used with any rod which comes to hand for the capture of the great Northern pike, is conclusive against any experience in pike fishing at all. Mr. Hanks is at liberty to disdain any particular fish, but that does not excuse seriously misleading statements in a handbook of this kind. His directions for preparing a pot of baked beans in the woods, however, are so obviously excellent as to cancel all minor faults and deficiencies.

Mr. M. N. Tod and Mr. A. B. J. Wace, the Assistant Director and a student of the British School at Athens, have made an excellent 'Catalogue of the Sparta Museum' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). The policy of the Greek Government is to bring the most important movable antiquities to the great National Museum at Athens, excepting the objects found at Olympia and at Delphi. Small museums are maintained for less important objects at Sparta, Corinth, Argos, etc., in less prominent places, being in general only a room or two in the basement of a school building, and the schoolmaster being often the keeper of antiquities. The museum at Sparta is perhaps the oldest of the local museums, and has retained some sculptures and inscriptions of great interest, although the ancient Spartans were not devoted to either art or literature, and only slight remains of sculpture or architecture have been found in their land. The golden cups discovered in a tomb at Vaphio were pre-Dorian. Still, the numbers in the accession-list of the museum at Sparta run above eight hundred—more than twice as many objects as this museum contained when the only previous catalogue was published in the second volume of the Athenian *Mittheilungen* in 1878. The new catalogue was much needed. Knowledge of the contents of the smaller museums of Greece is not easily obtained without a visit. Concise introductions in part remedy for the students in another land the inconvenience of following the order of the inventory or accession-list, which is retained because of its importance for the visitor and student in the museum itself. More than eighty figures in the text save many words in the descriptions.

Dedicated to President Roosevelt and prefaced by M. d'Estournelles de Constant, the book of M. Jacques Dumas on 'Les Sanctions de l'Arbitrage International' (Paris: Pedone) exhibits this originality, that it handles for the first time the whole problem of the sanctions of arbitration. The author, who is a French magistrate of note and an active "pacifist," has treated his subject with great thoroughness from the standpoint both of the historian and of the jurist. In this very readable volume of 450 pages he first reviews the whole history of sanctions—material, civil, penal, and political—as applied in past cases from Greece down, and then examines their efficacy in relation to the problems of the future. His main principle is to discard absolutely any form of sanction implying the return to the barbarous sanction of war. This book, which ought to be in the library of every believer in the practicability of arbitration, will be invaluable when the Hague tribunal begins seriously its great work, and faces the tremendous problems that will come before it.

The director of the Royal Art Gallery of Turin, Alexandre de Vesme, has issued a catalogue of the Italian painter-engravers of the seventeenth century, 'Le Peintre-Graveur Italien' (Milan: Hoepli), which is intended to supplement Bartsch's standard work that ends with Marc Antonio and his followers. M. de Vesme has covered a period not previously treated, one of decadence, it is true, but which includes sixty-one well-known engravers and etchers, among them Salvator Rosa, Carlo Maratti, Villamena, Della Bella, and Pietro Testa. The author has made a long and careful study of his field, and has succeeded in supplying a work which will be of great service to students and amateurs of its subject.

Dr. A. Keysser, the director of the City Library of Cologne, whose pamphlet on Belles-Lettres and Libraries was noticed in these columns last year, has issued another small but weighty contribution to library literature, under the title 'Das Bibliothekswesen als Gegenstand der öffentlichen Verwaltung.' In discussing the library as an object of public administration, the author takes up the questions of Management by Experts, Finances, Literary Resources and the Work of Collecting, Caretaking and Utilization, Regulations for Use, National Organization. At the outset he states with great emphasis that the work of managing a library must be entrusted to a trained or experienced librarian, and he deplores the tendency to give precisely the leading positions to men without the slightest technical qualifications, quoting from Dr. Nörrenberg: "If my tailor understands his business ever so well, there is no reason why I should order my boots from him; and a thoroughly competent teacher or scholar is therefore not yet a librarian." In the concluding chapter Dr. Keysser advocates a common organization of all German libraries as

the best way to efficiency. A similar proposition is made in another pamphlet, by Dr. E. Reyer of Vienna, 'Kritische Studien zum volkstündlichen Bibliothekswesen der Gegenwart,' otherwise chiefly devoted to discussions of statistics. Dr. Reyer recommends the preparation in every city of a general card catalogue of all the books in the more important libraries, interlibrary loans, and a division of the field of literature among the various libraries, so as to avoid duplication.

Under the heading "Books as Merchandise," Mr. C. W. Andrews offers in the May number of *Public Libraries* some reflections on the market value of collections of books, based on his experience as librarian of the John Crerar Library. "The problem is not an academic one," he says, "for this value should be included in the statement of the assets of every public library." Present practice in this respect seems to be simply to add up the total amount expended for books, which can hardly be accounted a statement of assets, since few books retain their market value after having been on the shelves of a public library. The formula which Mr. Andrews recommends "should allow for a depreciation of about 50 per cent. on all purchases upon receipt; then for a slow depreciation, say of 3 or 5 per cent. annually—this depreciation to continue indefinitely on the individual books, but stop after a time on periodicals; and the result thus obtained should be increased by a percentage, small at first, but larger for each 100,000 volumes in the library, provided the collection is kept up to date and its sets of periodicals maintained in perfect condition."

In the same number, Dr. J. H. Canfield writes about certain young women with library training who left their positions at the Columbia Library to take up work with commercial houses and law firms; their duties in their new places being to keep files of papers and records in order, or to have charge of office libraries. It seems that this class of employers appreciates the value of trained help better than Columbia University, inasmuch as each of the young women in question received at once an increase in salary of from 50 to 100 per cent., and in a short time considerably more. Attention might here be called to a letter to the editor, written by Miss Irene Warren, and protesting against the plan of increasing the first year's dues to the American Library Association from $2 to $3. She alleges that this raise, small as it may seem, adds a considerable percentage to the professional expenses of a class of workers who are, as a rule, very poorly paid, namely, assistants in the lower grades of even the larger libraries, and librarians of the smaller. "It is strange," Miss Warren exclaims, "that many of these men who are standing for college-trained workers are placing the salaries of their staff at the lowest possible rate. . . . The conversation and action of some 'library employers' sometimes suggest that their economies and bargains extend to the realm of human lives, and that is a dangerous field." Miss Warren's letter and Dr. Canfield's confessions, taken together, offer much food for thought.

The *Geographical Journal* for May opens with an article, by Mr. S. Green, giving many details in respect to the wrecks of the Spanish Armada on the Irish coast. The one fact of general interest brought out is the remarkable knowledge the Spaniards had of the coast, due to their close intercourse with Ireland, which went on for centuries prior to the days of Elizabeth and of which many traces still remain. In the year immediately before the sailing of the Armada, Sir Humphrey Gilbert reported to the Queen that there were 600 Spanish fishing-boats on the coast, besides permanent fishing establishments. On the accompanying map the places of twenty-five different wrecks are noted, and there are pictures of some of the most interesting localities. Prof. Scott Elliot describes the effects of certain water-plants in Chili in changing the geographical configuration of the land, as, for instance, in the formation of pampas in what was once a sea. In the discussion following the reading of this paper before the Society, Col. Church, the great authority on South American geography, referred to the gigantic amount of silt carried by the river Paraná, at least a cubic mile in every twenty-two years. "If you could turn the river across the Isthmus of Panama," he said, "it would cut the Panama Canal down to sea-level in about nine months—a great pity for the United States Treasury that it cannot be done." The persistent homogeneity of population and social life in the Levant is ascribed by Mr. D. G. Hogarth to the geographical conditions. The Greeks, Armenians, the so-called Turks of Anatolia, and the Syrians all have similar facial types, quick intelligence, and instability of purpose. In the fact that the eastern Mediterranean lands have ever been open to the inroads of steppe and desert nomads, he finds some explanation of those characteristics of restlessness—superficiality and individualism.

The eighteenth report on the public records of Massachusetts by the Commissioner, Robert T. Swan, necessarily traverses old ground, but, as usual, repays reading. His circular chapter of "Don'ts" in particular merits the attention of all who have to do with the making or custody of records, public or private. The discussion of the relative resistibility to fire of vaults and safes is timely. Mr. Swan exposes a swindling concern pretending to have copies, and sometimes the originals themselves, "of nearly all the church and town records of New England prior to the year 1800." Mr. Swan declares that not a single town in that section "has had all of its records copied," and otherwise brands a falsehood concocted for credulous genealogists. He closes by bespeaking bequests for fireproof town-record offices, as well as for the safe-keeping of historical relics.

It is often said by Southerners that they would, if left to themselves after the war, have done their duty in elevating their black fellow-Americans. This may explain, as pure jealousy, the social tabu maintained to this day against white Northern instructors of the blacks, even in training-schools for nurses; but it does not account for a recent experience in Louisville. There it was desired, in conformity with the caste spirit, to establish a colored branch of the public library. Difficulties arose with white householders, who (as one may read in the *Courier-Journal* of April 8) "seemed to be under the impression that their property might be desecrated by such use." Finally, a colored citizen gave up the ground floor of his own residence for the library. Its frequenters "have no hesitation in expressing their preference for books by and about their own people," though 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' is not specified. (Are they allowed access to it?) Oddly enough, George Eliot's works are in great favor.

In the *Nuova Antologia* Professor Dall' Osso, the head of the Naples National Museum, describes an important fresco recently discovered in Pompeii. It symbolizes the origin of Rome, and is divided into four scenes, each representing a leading feature in the great event. The first is laid in heaven, and in the left corner of the picture Helios is represented as ascending the horizon in his sun-chariot, while Mars stands in the middle in golden armor, a lance in his right hand. The second shows the King's house in Alba Longa, and on the right the King's daughter, Rhea Sylvia, lying asleep near the temple of the priests of Mars. The third depicts the punishment of Rhea Sylvia, who is to be drowned in the river; while the fourth exhibits the course of the river Tiber, on the banks of which Mercury is giving the twin boys to the shepherd, Faustulus. Dall' Osso is convinced that the composition is not an original product, but a copy of an old Greek painting.

The international exchange of professors is not to be limited to the plan now being realized between Berlin and America. German papers report that a similar project is being matured for the purpose of bringing France and Germany into closer contact educationally. With the consent of the Cultus Minister of Prussia, a Paris professor has been invited to teach his mother tongue conversationally at one of the higher schools of Schoeneberg, near Berlin. The city council is expected to furnish the funds for this new venture.

The Second International Congress for School Hygiene has been called to convene in London from the 5th to the 10th of August. On the whole, the programme, as announced by the General Secretary, covers about the same ground as the first congress did that met in Nuremberg in 1904. The work will be divided among ten sections. An exhibition of plans for model school buildings, school furniture, etc., will be held in connection with the congress.

The International Astronomical Association, of which Prof. H. von Seeliger of Munich is president, has sent out invitations for the next general convention to be held in September of the current year in Jena, in accordance with the resolution passed two years ago at Lund. Announcements of papers, attendance, and the like, should be sent to Jena, where the Observatory will be the official headquarters of the congress.

The Medical Faculty in Paris recently engaged to publish a technical 'Universal Lexicon of Pharmacology,' in nine living languages. At the earnest recommendation of a number of savants, it was decided to add Esperanto as a tenth language.

—The June *Century* offers some choice bits of copiously illustrated description. Corwin Knapp Linson contributes a few paragraphs on sunset effects near Jerusalem, accompanied by two brilliant color

drawings, his own rendering of what he calls "a whirlwind of scarlet and gold and crimson, of violet and blue and emerald, flecked with copper and bronze and shreds of smoky clouds in shadow, a tempestuous riot of color so wild and extraordinary as to hold one spellbound." Wladyslaw Benda describes a tract of mountain territory in the highest part of the Karpathian system, between Galicia and Hungary, with his own drawings, reproduced in half-tone. The Pennells trace the Marne from its source to Paris, with nearly thirty varied bits of scenery depicted in Mr. Pennell's well-known style, the characteristic note being that of a shrinking, pastoral stream, flowing as through the Lotus Eaters' land, and able to retain its shy charm even through one of the busiest parts of rich, prosperous, and hard-working France. Of a different order, but intensely interesting, is Ernst von Hesse Wartegg's account of the trolley line which has been gradually working up to the Jungfrau from Interlaken, and is to end, possibly in five or six years, at a point only a little over 200 feet from the summit, with an electric lift to raise the tourist right through the gneiss rock to the very top. William H. Tolman writes of some of the European "Museums of Security," an institution scarcely yet known even by name in this country; its purpose being to display the various devices for promoting the health and safety of the people, and especially of those engaged in occupations involving any particular danger.

—Frederick Trevor Hill appears in the opening pages of *Harper's* with a plea for a reversal of the popular verdict against Aaron Burr. It is not difficult to show from the records that the specific charges against Burr were not sustained by any evidence produced by the prosecution, but the instinctive condemnation of Burr goes deeper than the occurrences upon which the theory of a treasonable conspiracy to divide the Union was based, and Mr. Hill attempts a hopeless task. Charles Henry White, of New York, writes of Philadelphia in the well-known humorous strain. Old Chester and Dr. Lavendar have become so fixed a feature of the magazine that an article on an Old Chester without a Dr. Lavendar is liable to produce temporary bewilderment in the reader's mind, until he recalls the older Old Chester of Roman Britain, which Mr. Howell takes as the subject of his English paper for this month. Mr. Howells is not favorable to any further disturbance of later structures in order to unearth Chester's Roman foundations. "To be sure, if one knew they underlay New York, one would gladly level all the sky-scrapers in the town that they might be given to the light. But in Chester it is another matter." The monthly discourse from the Easy Chair is humorous and suggestive as usual, taking its text this time from the inquiry of a perplexed correspondent who wishes to know "why a second-class writer cannot sell his best work, while he can dispose of his worst." An appreciation of the work of Mr. Howells by Mark Twain is one of the announcements for the July number.

—'A Treatise on American Citizenship,' by John S. Wise (Northport, N. Y.: Edward Thompson Co.), is the title of a convenient handbook dealing with the primary rights, duties, and privileges of the American citizen, and analyzing the peculiar dual system—Federal and State—under which he lives. It is fortified by a large collection of decided cases. The author has ranged over the field, not only of citizenship, but of constitutional law, and the result is that here and there the boundaries are not made distinct. This is especially observable in his enumeration of "rights, privileges, and immunities." The privileges and immunities guaranteed by the Constitution to "citizens of each State" in "the several States" have never been exactly defined, but, from what is quoted from the decisions, they seem to mean those ordinary civil rights for the protection and preservation of which governments are instituted; and Mr. Wise refers to the Virginia Bill of Rights as a good example of a formal declaration of them. In the national Declaration of Independence we find another enumeration of them. Mr. Wise classifies rights, privileges, and immunities granted or guaranteed to the citizen by the Federal Constitution and amendments under sixty-two heads. Among these we find, of course, the right to trial by jury and habeas corpus, but also a right "in each State to equal suffrage in the Senate," and an "immunity" from any State law impairing the obligation of contracts. The first of these is surely a right vested in the several States, and not in the citizen; while the unconstitutionality of statutes impairing the obligation of contracts enures to the benefit of all parties to such contracts, whether citizens or not. As a popular summary of the more important features of our system, the book will be found useful. It is marked by great fairness and freedom from bias of any kind.

—The "History of All Nations" series (Philadelphia: Lea Bros.) continues to put forth its imposing volumes, and has now reached the Napoleonic period. Without rehearsing what has been said by us already regarding this work, it must suffice to indicate the character of the latest instalments which we have received. Volume XV., by Dr. Martin Philippson, is entitled 'The Age of Frederick the Great,' from its dominant motive, though, like its predecessors, it considers the development of Europe comparatively and with reference to every leading country. Beginning with the origin of the Seven Years' War, it covers that great contest, the First Partition of Poland, and the era of the enlightened despots. Dr. Philippson's contribution to this series has been extremely considerable. Here, as before, he indicates precisely his own point of view, and writes with a directness which will be grateful to the reader. To take a single instance, he frankly denounces the idea that Germany was only harmed by the French Revolution, and would but for it have developed more peacefully and rapidly along the lines of moderate liberalism. "Were not all the former attempts at reform, however simple and necessary, foiled? Were not the efforts of the Emperor Joseph in this direction completely baffled? Had not even a Frederick the Great to content himself with mere abolition of serfdom? And did not this institution continue to prevail almost everywhere else in Germany? There was nowhere the least indication that any one thought of abolishing the degrading system of caste, and giving the people a direct interest in public affairs, or of abrogating the inequalities of taxation and military service." Volume XVI. embraces Professor Flathe's 'The French Revolution and the Rise of Napoleon.' In a sketch extending from the convocation of the States-General to the creation of the Empire, he finds some space for the concerns of Europe at large, despite the almost irresistible tendency to make everything pale before the meteoric career of France during the fifteen years in question. If we may make a rough comparison, there is more of France in Flathe's book than of Prussia in Philippson's. However, little fault can be found with the perspective in the narrative of the Revolution, and enough space is allowed to admit the insertion of much lively detail. Vol. XVII. also by Flathe, covers the latter part of the Napoleonic era, and is written from the standpoint of the German patriot who not only looks upon the Emperor of the French as a wanton tyrant, but thinks that France was far too well treated at the Congress of Vienna. As before, the volumes are copiously illustrated, and in some cases facsimiles of documents have been introduced.

—The discussion over 'Il Santo' and the Index calls attention to the appearance of a third edition of the Abbé Bethleem's handbook of literary morals, as one might call it, 'Romans à lire et Romans à proscrire.' The book was put through the press in advance of the condemnation of 'Il Santo,' whose author is simply included by the Abbé among worldly writers "who take so many liberties with morality or truth that they are to be considered as more or less under suspicion, and cannot be read without danger except by those who have had previous warning and are of mature age and judgment." 'Il Santo' in particular is a work of art and religious criticism "assaisonnée de rosminianisme, d'américanisme, de murrisme et de spiritisme," written with the apparent purpose of indicating alleged reforms needed in the Catholic Church. Octave Feuillet has delightfully idealized family life in "le grand monde," and has displayed profound psychological insight in depicting various things, including the heart of woman, but his books are generally dangerous because they set one to dreaming too much, and "exhale a perfume of sin." Gorky is also of the worldly, primarily the romancer of vagabonds, his characters denuded of all moral sense and his teaching revolutionary. Kipling's Jungle books are delightful in spite of a few shocking oddities, but, aside from them, he "celebrates the brutality of English Imperialism," even such books as 'Stalky & Co.' and 'Captains Courageous' being simply "jingoist morals in action." The writings of Alphonse Daudet are divided into three classes, those which "les tout jeunes gens se contenteront de lire," those which "les plus grandes pourront lire avec prudence," and finally those which "ne sont pas tous inoffensifs, même pour les grandes personnes." Tolstoy, George Meredith, Bret Harte, Camille Flammarion, are included along with Ouida, Anatole France and Gabriele D'Annunzio in the class "à proscrire en vertu de la morale chrétienne." Some thirty pages are given to the romances under

the ban of the Congregation of the Index, and something more than one-third of the volume is devoted to works which are unhesitatingly recommended as safe. It would be interesting to know just what one of the various classes of books noticed will get the most advertising value out of inclusion in these lists.

A DEFENCE OF MR. FROUDE.

The Life of Froude. By Herbert Paul. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

Mr. Herbert Paul, who is well known on both sides of the Atlantic as a brilliant essayist and critic, gives us in this biography of James Anthony Froude a piece of work marked by his usual force, point, and vivacity. There is much wit in it, many happy dicta, and some good epigrams. It is highly controversial, defending Froude from the attacks of his numerous critics, and carrying the war into the enemies' country by attacking the critics themselves. This warlike atmosphere was perhaps unavoidable, for Froude led a troubled life, always saying or writing things which incensed other people and brought onslaughts upon himself. His life could no more be written without noticing these conflicts than Gen. Grant's could be written omitting all the battles. It was also the more natural for Mr. Paul to devote much of his book to such matters because he had not the advantage of a mass of correspondence upon which to draw for an account of his hero's thoughts and occupations. There are a few, but only a few, letters given in these pages, and though they are always forcible, often characteristic, they have no such eminent merits of thought or style as to make us long for more. Neither does Froude seem to have kept a diary. Neither have any of his more intimate friends made any contribution to the volume in the way of personal reminiscences or characteristic anecdotes. Thus the materials, except the few letters already referred to, are comparatively scanty; and Mr. Paul has been obliged to rely upon the facts supplied to him by some members of Froude's family about his early life, and upon the books and articles, abundant indeed, which proceeded from a fertile pen during a long life.

The book necessarily lacks that which makes the chief interest of the lives of literary men—inner lights on their methods of thinking, bits of their own familiar writing; but for this the biographer is not to blame. It is open to the charge of occasional repetition, saying the same thing about Froude over and over again in almost the same words—a defect which seems in this instance due to haste in composition, for Mr. Paul's literary essays are free from it. He is not always accurate in details, though the errors we have noted are not of sufficient magnitude to be worth enumerating. But the book is interesting, and it is honest. Mr. Paul is no doubt a vehement partisan. His object seems to be to prove Froude as much as possible in the right, and even more to prove his antagonists always in the wrong. In pursuing this object he says a good many things not only about his hero, but also about history, which startle us. To defend Froude from the reproach of not being a scientific historian by saying that "if history be a science, no less and no more, he must remain outside the pale in the company of Thucydides, Tacitus, Gibbon, Macaulay, and Mommsen," takes one's breath away. If Thucydides and Mommsen, for instance, are not scientific historians, who is? And what have they, exact and accurate students, in common with Froude except that all three are good reading? His partiality for his hero, natural indeed as it is in a biographer, is so pronounced that we suspect it may set his readers the other way, and prove less effective than a more sober and moderate statement of the facts would be. But let us repeat once more, this eagerness to defend Froude, while it takes the form of declamation, or explanation, or palliation, never leads to any perversion or coloring of the truth. Mr. Paul is perfectly upright, and with laudable candor sets out facts which tell against the subject of his admiration. Neither Froude's mistakes, nor his violent partisanship, fatal as both are to the proper writing of history, excite his wrath to anything like the same degree that they have done that of most of Froude's critics. But both defects are admitted.

James Anthony Froude was the son of an archdeacon of the Church of England, who was also a Devonshire landowner in easy circumstances. He had the misfortune at the age of five to lose his mother, and his boyhood was thereafter a wretched one, for his father grew stern and cold, and the discipline to which he was subjected by his aunt and his elder brother was harsh. Neither was he fortunate in his schools and schoolmasters. A more dismal childhood, and one more likely to blight a man's character and give him a twist towards cynicism for all the rest of his life, can scarcely be imagined, if the picture here presented be a true one. In 1836, being then eighteen, he entered at Oriel College, Oxford. He brought with him a bright, keen intellect, which had assimilated much from reading many books, but had received no regular training and very little of classical scholarship in the higher sense of the term. His first years at Oxford were far from studious, but he ultimately "pulled himself together" (as they say), won a high distinction, the Chancellor's prize, for an English essay, and was elected to a Devonshire fellowship at Exeter College. It was a condition of this fellowship that the holder of it should, after a time, be ordained a minister of the Church of England, or else lose the emoluments, which were of course a matter of importance to a young man who had no other profession and such scanty private means as to be really dependent on his father. Froude had fallen under the influence of John Henry Newman, who was then in the zenith of his power; and although it would seem from Mr. Paul's account that theological doubts had already begun to invade his mind and unsettle his convictions, still he was not so far actually a disbeliever in Christianity as to do any great violence to his conscience in being ordained a deacon, which he was in 1845.

At Newman's instance he contributed to a series of Lives of the English Saints a life of St. Neot, of which Mr. Paul says, "He told the story as legend not quite as Newman wanted it. 'This is all,' he said at the end, 'and perhaps rather more than all that is known of the life of the blessed St. Neot.' His connection with the series ceased" (p. 34). We have seen or heard the story of the conclusion of the book somewhere told, but cannot now say where, in a slightly different form, viz., "This is all that we know, and more than we know, but less than the angels know, of the life of the blessed St. Neot." Anyhow, the disciple was not quite up to the standard of his master, who shortly thereafter quitted the Church of England, and, as every one knows, became after long years a cardinal of the Holy Roman Church. Froude presently found his position as a clergyman and a tutor of his college increasingly difficult. In 1848 he wrote a book called 'The Nemesis of Faith,' highly unorthodox, of which Mr. Paul says:

"It is not a novel, it is not a treatise, it is not poetry, it is not romance. It is the delineation of a mood; and though it was called, with some reason, skeptical, its moral, if it has a moral, is that skepticism leads to misconduct. That unpleasant and unverified hypothesis, soon rejected by Froude himself, has been revived by M. Bourget in 'Le Disciple' and 'L'Étape.' The 'Nemesis of Faith' is as unwholesome as either of these books, and has not their literary charm. It had few friends, because it disgusted free-thinking Liberals as much as it scandalized orthodox Conservatives" (p. 46).

The immediate effect of its publication was to cause the senior tutor of Exeter College, the Rev. William Sewell, to burn it during a lecture in the College Hall, and to lead the rector and fellows of the college to request its author to resign his fellowship—fellowships in Oxford colleges were in those days subject to theological tests—backing their request by a threat of expulsion. Froude yielded, and went out into the world to try his luck as a man of letters. He was not, however, altogether inexperienced, nor had 'The Nemesis of Faith' been his first literary venture. Some little time before—Mr. Paul is rather sparing of dates, and does not give this one—he had produced two short stories, published anonymously, of one of which Mr. Paul says:

" 'Shadows of the Clouds' is a valuable piece of autobiography. Without literary merit, without any quality to attract the public, it gives a vivid and faithful account of the author's troubles at school and at home, together with a slight sketch of his unfortunate love affair. Froude was a born story-teller with an irresistible propensity for making books. The fascination which throughout his life he had for women, showed itself almost before he was out of his teens; and in this case the feeling was abundantly returned. Nevertheless, he could, within a few years, publish the whole narrative, changing only the names, and then feel genuine surprise that the other person concerned should be pained. He was not inconsiderate. Those who lived with him never heard from him a rough or unkind word. But his dramatic instinct was uncontrollable, and had to be expressed. The archdeacon read the book, and was naturally furious" (p. 37).

The archdeacon was Froude's father, whose character is traced in the book with a candid hand. Mr. Paul seems to us to do less than justice to the literary quality of 'Shadows of the Clouds,' which struck us, when we read it years ago, as showing a real though as yet undeveloped gift for style. But his explanation of this strange freak is no doubt the true one. There are persons whose impulse to express themselves to others, in print, is uncontrollable. A late well-known and very popular writer, him-

self a clerical dignitary, published a volume of poems, among which there were not a few addressed to a young lady who had shortly before broken off her engagement to him. Rousseau is the extreme case of men of this type.

From this time onward Froude was unweariedly active with his pen. Only once again did he venture into the field of fiction. His 'Two Chiefs of Dunboy,' published in 1889, was not a success, though much of it is excellently written. Otherwise he devoted himself partly to magazine journalism, editing *Fraser's Magazine* for some years and contributing articles to various monthlies or quarterlies, partly to the historical composition. About 1852 (the exact time is not given) he began working on the reign of King Henry the Eighth, impelled to this subject by his interest in the English Reformation, an interest which in its turn was due to his violent recoil from the "Tractarianism" or Neo-Catholicism of J. H. Newman and his Oxford High Church followers. In 1856 he published the first two volumes of his 'History of England,' and finished it with the publication of the last of the twelve volumes in 1870. This book involved him in acute controversies; and those aroused by his next work, 'The English in Ireland,' were still more bitter. Many Americans will remember the refusal of Irish servant girls to remain in some houses where he was received as a guest during his lecturing tour in the United States in 1872, the lectures being upon the relations of England and Ireland, a subject selected with more courage than judgment. The first volume of the book appeared while he was actually in America delivering the lectures. It is an attempt to justify the conduct of the English, not by concealing the tyranny and cruelty so often perpetrated in Ireland, but (to put it shortly) by arguing that the Irish deserved nothing better, and that severity, however harsh, was the best way of treating a race entirely unfit for self-government. Froude would in fact have governed Ireland in a purely autocratic way, much as Spain governed the Philippines. He had been a great deal in Ireland and had lived there for some years, so he felt all the more confidence in his opinions. His view of government and politics in general had for many years been profoundly influenced by Thomas Carlyle, to whom indeed he bowed down as being not only a great man of letters, which everybody holds him to be, but also a great philosopher, which nobody now thinks him. Of Froude's Life of Carlyle, and his handling of the Carlyle documents altogether, we have left ourselves no space to speak. Mr. Paul does his best to defend Froude's behavior, and does it gallantly, but, in our judgment, with scant success. Perhaps Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, who knows the matter more thoroughly than any one else, may have something to say on the subject.

Once only did Froude enter the field of practical life, when Lord Carnarvon sent him on two missions to South Africa in 1874 and 1875. He did no good there, but that may be said of so many others that it reflects no discredit on him. He was, however, so utterly wild in all his ideas of government, and talked such silly rant about English politics—Mr. Paul himself admits that "in politics he never looked very far below the surface of things" (p. 28)—that one wonders how he ever came to be selected for an extraordinarily difficult task.

Mr. Paul, who seems to be fascinated by Froude's brilliance of style almost as Froude himself was fascinated by Carlyle's, will hardly alter the estimate of Froude's merits as a historian or a man which those who have read his writings, including those on Carlyle, have already formed. But he has given us a bright and interesting book, and his account of Froude's early life does suggest considerations not to be forgotten when judging some of the things, and especially the apparent enjoyment of cruelty, which shock us in his histories.

TWO BOOKS ON IRRIGATION.

The Conquest of Arid America. A New and Revised Edition. Illustrated. By William Smythe. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Irrigation in the United States. By Frederick Haynes Newell. Revised Edition. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The "conquest" is a feat of which, when accomplished, those who planned the campaign and those who effected the victory may well be proud. It will mean the recovery from aridity to fertility of several millions of acres, most of them in the region of perpetual summer and sunshine; accordingly, the enthusiasm of those who have been promoters of the great national movement may be forgiven when, like Mr. Smythe, they sometimes overstep the limits of calm judgment. He assures us that "the superiority of the Western half of the continent [the dividing line being the 97th meridian] over its Eastern counterpart may not be expressed in a word"—whatever that may mean! The statement that "there is no Eastern State that compares with almost any of those great commonwealths of the comparatively unknown West in anything save present development, which includes, of course, population, wealth, and political influence," reads like exaggeration. While there is undoubtedly a fascination about the West, and while the agricultural possibilities of the small proportion of its total area that can be brought under irrigation, and therefore cultivation, are great, it is irrational to pretend that these few millions of acres, won in small patches from so vast a territory, will ever create and support communities rivalling in political or commercial influence such States as New York and Pennsylvania. Nevertheless, already California, Colorado, and Montana, in the value of their mineral and agricultural productions, and even in the number of their population, have outstripped some of the smaller Atlantic seaboard States. And then, a little exaggerated sentiment and glorification of one's self are potent factors in stimulating pioneers to attempt such feats as Mr. Smythe describes in the closing chapters of his book.

Irrigation has always been practised in every State and Territory of the Rocky Mountains, and some private irrigation works of considerable extent have been built and are supplying large tracts of private lands and are selling water to settlers; and, under the Carey act, Idaho is reclaiming a large area of land, which had been withdrawn from the public domain and turned over to the State Board of Reclamation. But it was not till the agitation for national control of Western waters and the abrogation of the Desert Land laws and of all laws which might permit irrigable lands to be acquired in large blocks, culminated in the Newlands Reclamation Act of 1902, that the Federal Government, acting through the Secretary of the Interior, undertook the task of winning the Western Desert to fertility by storing wasted waters and diverting them over the thirsty soil. How vigorously the difficulties involved have been faced, if not yet solved, may be judged from the summary of work, planned and partly completed since 1902, to be found in a recent publication of the United States Reclamation Service.

"The total sum," we read, "set aside for all classes of projects is $34,270,000, and the amount of land to be irrigated is 1,909,000 acres. The average value of irrigated land in the United States is $47 per acre. This acreage will, therefore, add $89,723,000 to the taxable property of the United States in land values alone. According to the census report of 1900, the average annual income from irrigated land is $15 per acre. On this basis an income of $28,735,000 per annum will be added to the nation's wealth."

Under the regulation of the Secretary of the Interior, the Government lands to be thus irrigated may not be sold in tracts of less than 40 acres or more than 160 acres; and no waters shall be provided for private lands owned in lots exceeding in size 160 acres, unless the lands are actually occupied by bona-fide residents. The lands which will thus be reclaimed by operations now in progress should support a population of between 200,000 and 300,000 families, or about a million individuals. The number seems small compared with the magnitude of the proposals, but the schemes are nearly all capable of expansion. They include very diverse systems of storage, and will probably result in varying degrees of success, for it would be presumptuous to expect that no mistakes and no miscalculations have been made or will be made in planning and constructing so many and such extensive engineering feats, some of which at least are more or less experimental. The dams across the Rio Grande and the Colorado obstruct streams that carry down at all times vast quantities of suspended solid matter, which is so fine that it probably can be discharged, as it accumulates, through sluice gates, as the deposit of Nile mud is disposed of through similar discharges in the Barrages at the head of the Delta and the dams at Assuan and Assiut, Even there, however, more or less sand is carried down during high Niles, which causes some anxiety to the Egyptian Irrigation Department; but the spring floods of even the Rio Grande and the Colorado are torrential as compared with the gentle, periodical rise and fall of the Nile, and the Nile silt is as thistle-down compared to the heavy material which these Western rivers in their impetuosity carry down from the mountains of Colorado, Utah, and Wyoming. On the other hand, such streams as the Salt River in Arizona present totally different problems for solution. Some of them, quite dry except in certain seasons, after heavy rains become roaring tor-

rents, carrying down from the adjacent mountain ranges, as though it were mere driftwood, incalculable quantities of rock and sand, which will sooner or later fill the reservoirs with solid débris, and will require for its removal more force than that exerted by running water. However, the dam at Roosevelt on the Salt River will be flooded on an area of 15,000 acres, or a sheet of water twenty-two miles long by one and one-quarter miles wide—so vast that the heavy material carried into these artificial lakes will settle at the feed end and there form a barrier behind which may accumulate the deposit from subsequent floods. More security would be felt if storage were effected in reservoirs built off the streams, and which could be filled with water deflected from the main channels.

These objections do not apply so strongly to such magnificent projects as that of the Truckee-Carson system, of which Lake Tahoe, with 200,000 acre feet, is the primary storage reservoir, supplemented by the further storage reservoirs of Alkali Flat and Lower Carson, each of greater capacity than Lake Tahoe. There will thus be secured an ample and unfailing supply to convert half a million acres of the great Nevada Desert into a garden. On a small scale such schemes as these carry out the dream of Willcock and other Egyptian engineers, who have proposed to dam the outlets of Victoria Nyanza and Lake Tsana in Abyssinia, so as to secure uniformity in the annual inundation of the Lower Nile country. We may trust to the skill of our engineers who are building them that the dams to restrain the flow of these impetuous rivers, or to bear the pressure of deep volumes of water, will be constructed with a safe margin of strength. They have before them the fate of the Walnut Grove Dam in Arizona and the Johnstown Dam in Pennsylvania, and of many another artificial obstruction to nature's force. Nevertheless, at the present moment they are almost powerless to stop the flow of the Colorado through the Imperial Canal into the Yuma Desert, where it has already engulfed the salt works at Salton, and, instead of irrigating the desert, is, in its uncontrollable rush, converting it into an inland sea. This same region is to be the field of one of the most promising of the schemes, that of building a dam across the Colorado above Yuma, and irrigating from it a section of the large basin of the Yuma Desert which lies below sea-level in California, and also sections of its extension into Arizona.

There is no question as to the fertility of the soil and the warmth of the climate. Land, water, and sunshine will combine to create an oasis; but though now, owing to the extreme dryness of the atmosphere, the summer heat is tolerable and the difference between the sensible and the thermometrical temperatures is very notable, when large areas are under cultivation and the air is moist and swarming with mosquitoes, the condition of human life will not be so idyllic. There will also be disappointment for a time in certain regions from the large amount of so-called alkali in the surface soils. These salts, which are the nutrients of plant life when supplied in moderation, are destructive when present in excess; but through persistent irrigation they are washed out of the upper layer and stored at a depth within reach of the roots of plants. Hence the long-continued, though by no means perpetual fertility of certain desert lands after being brought under water. Mr. Smythe refers to the chief town of the lower valley of the Pecos in New Mexico, now called Carlsbad, but formerly named Eddy. It was the scene of an irrigation project with which the former name was associated. Alkali killed it, but perseverance in irrigation restored it to life under other auspices.

The projects already outlined are but the forerunners of others in the West which will not only add other millions of fertile acres to the public domain, but will increase the number, it is hoped, of small, independent farmers owning and cultivating every acre to its limit of productiveness. For, whatever the benefit of consolidation, coöperation is better, and, in all irrigated regions, coöperation by the beneficiaries of the common but limited store of life-giving water is one of the desirable consequences. Moreover, the advantages of irrigation in the arid region will educate the country at large to the benefit of securing by artificial means a more uniform supply of water than the changing seasons supply to the land within the fertile zone.

Mr. Newell, as a hydraulic engineer and chief of the hydrographic branch of the United States Geological Survey, under which department of Government both the investigation of water sources and their utilization are conducted, has rewritten his book on the same subject as Mr. Smyth's. It is a popular treatise on the rainfall of different sections of the country; the artificial methods of storing and distributing water in the arid and semi-arid zone; the advantages and drawbacks of irrigation. Further, it describes the various projects completed or being realized under authority of the Reclamation Act. It is a more concise and thorough, but perhaps less entertaining, story than that told by Mr. Smyth in his enthusiasm. One defect is noticeable in both books, viz., that neither devotes any space to what other and older countries have done in the use of irrigation, or to regulations for the conservation of water which are so stringent in their character and rigidly enforced in Spain, Lombardy, and Chili. At present, in many sections of the West, water, despite its scarcity, is ruthlessly wasted by ranchers near the source of supply. If the vast expenditure now being made is to yield its full legitimate return, rules to control the supply, and laws to punish disregard of regulations, will have to be framed and enforced.

Lectures and Essays. By Alfred Ainger. The Macmillan Company. 1905.

The late Canon Ainger, who is best known, perhaps, to the general reader for his excellent editing of Charles Lamb, was the happiest combination of the man of letters and the ecclesiastic. We say ecclesiastic rather than divine, because, though his sermons were little masterpieces of eloquence, as all will remember who heard him preach in the Temple, it is not by those that his memory will live. He was, however, a dignitary of the Church, and his preaching used to be one of the social events of a Sunday in London, but it was the personality of the man, his rhetorical power, that drew, rather than any depth of doctrinal fervor. He was a born actor, and as one reads these lectures, one realizes how much they lose in lacking the living voice, the peculiar gestures, the histrionic effect that fascinated Ainger's hearers.

Ainger is the type of the ethical critic. Perhaps this was partly due to his profession, yet a sympathy so catholic as his (which could, for instance, pass tenderly over the errors of Burns) was never tainted by the narrowness of the clerical mind. He was of Matthew Arnold's school; not that he approved of the jargon that the modern critics have caught from Arnold, but, like him, Ainger is always on the lookout for "tonic" passages, for the grand manner, which he seeks in utterances of the sententious kind.

These two volumes are edited by Canon Beeching, who should be known to all for his poems, 'Hours of Idleness.' The essays range in date from a contribution to *Macmillan's Magazine* in 1859, when Ainger was a Cambridge undergraduate, to a paper on Mrs. Barbauld written in 1901. The lectures were nearly all delivered at the Royal Institution, several, like those on Swift, and Shakspere, in a sort of trilogy. The three studies of Shakspere's art are the best reading in the first volume. In them he describes the spring, summer, and autumn of Shakspere's creative faculty in the years from 1591-1612. What Ainger is interested to trace is the gradual development of the dramatic from the lyric poet. "Love's Labour's Lost" represents the most lavish poetic period of writing. It was a study in euphuism by one who despised the mannerisms of Lyly's day, yet could not keep his own feet from the snares of verbal trickery. The euphuism was to drop away gradually; and so, too, in the later plays of this first period, 1591-1598, "as human feeling and passion assert themselves, and the poet himself is stirred by the pity of it, even in the dilemmas and cross-purposes of poor Hermia and Helena, rhyme drops off from his style." So in Juliet's soliloquies rhyme disappears. For the second stage the "Merchant of Venice" marks a transition. In this play "the battle of blank verse against rhyme is lost and won." Ainger's argument is not affected by a slight inaccuracy. He says on page 36 that, save in Portia's speech, the rhyme couplet disappears from the "Merchant of Venice" from the second scene of the third act. As a matter of fact, however, the very last speech in the play, Gratiano's, is in rhymed couplets. Ainger gives an interesting sketch of the changes in the stage traditions of the character of Shylock, "the Jew that Shakspere drew." Though Shakspere's humanity overruled the convention which made the stage Jew a low-comedy character, yet it was long before this was recognized. Ainger thinks, indeed, that at first Shakspere himself set out to draw the stock Jew, such a figure as Marlowe's Jew of Malta, but, as the character grew under his hand, he made Shylock's own utterances neutralize the language used about him. Here, then, as elsewhere, Shakspere's "humanity"—Ainger is never tired of using the word—drove out the "fashions and artificialities of the stage." Ainger has some good things to say on the satire in "As You Like It," of the pastoral mania—that "intellec-

tual influenza" which, after the rediscovery of Theocritus and Virgil at the Renaissance, had infected all literatures. The best commentary on the pastoral dream is Touchstone's speech on the shepherd's life in this play.

In his essay on Falstaff, Ainger gives the history of Sir John Oldcastle, Falstaff's original, and points out in the plays the marks of the character's origin in "my old lad of the castle." Oldcastle was a Lollard, and Shakspere gave his audience a picture of the popular idea of a Lollard. So he puts in Falstaff's mouth the Scriptural phraseology that might be expected to remain with a broken-down Lollard "who had been spoiled by bad company," while his voice had given way from "hallelujahing and singing of anthems," as he is made to say to the Lord Chief-Justice. "And thus the worn-out caricature of an Oldcastle, just as it was on the point of coming to an end, makes a new Sir John Falstaff."

In the essay on "Euphuism, Past and Present," Ainger gives the history of affectation in diction first in Lyly's time, then by the imitators of Pope and Johnson, down to the founders of euphuism nearer our own day, the euphuists of the romantic reaction. Euphuism is the imitation of a manner, and Scott, Byron, Dickens, Carlyle were all in turn responsible for euphuism because they inspired those who wrote with ease to copy their manner. Tennyson summed up the history and moral of euphuism in that fable of the flower and the seed which was written in a fit of irritation against his own imitators. As for Arnold, he has left us a prose euphuism:

"This language is familiar to us all. We know that whatever new poem or new play it is that is being criticised, we shall find the changes rung on the old glossary, we shall meet the old substantives, adjectives, and adverbs—'work' (this artist's 'work'), every other line; 'intense,' 'supreme,' 'subtle,' 'precious,' 'distinctly,' 'accentuated,' 'convincing,' 'incisive,' 'value,' 'charm.' This is the language of culture which we have all more or less caught from Matthew Arnold."

It is true that we are all in this respect euphuists; but the fashion will pass like the earlier jargon of a cult, and meanwhile the critic finds the diction of Arnold useful, expressive, and easily understood. After all, the only difference between the Arnold euphuists and Ainger is that he was always scrupulous in putting his Shaksperian phraseology in quotation marks.

We have said that Ainger is peculiarly an ethical critic. This is especially shown in his criticisms of the "Paolo and Francesca" of Mr. Phillips. "It does not contain, from end to end, a single abstract sentiment. No one character in it utters a single comment or reflection on human life. . . . There is no single line in the play that could be separated from its context and be made welcome as an addition to our stock of moral ideas in daily life. The play seems always to be aiming at the pathetic and never reaching it; and the lack of the ethical touch must surely be the reason for the failure." On the other hand, "the very soul of pathos was in Dante, just because he never stands aloof from the moral aspect of suffering." It was reserved for Ainger, as far as we know, to give this, the best, explanation of the barren atmosphere of the dramas of Stephen Phillips. Leigh Hunt gave his own 'Story of Rimini' a subtitle, "The Fruits of a Parent's Falsehood," which was to fly too far in the other direction.

Those who were interested in certain recent references in these columns to "Macaulay's New Zealander," and the effort made to trace his idea to its source, will find more evidence in Ainger's essay on Mrs. Barbauld. He points out that Macaulay's prediction, in his review of Ranke's 'History of the Popes,' that the Roman Catholic Church would still exist "in undiminished vigor when some traveller from New Zealand shall, in the midst of a vast solitude, take his stand on a broken arch of London bridge to sketch the ruins of St. Paul's," was written thirty years after Mrs. Barbauld's poem called "1811." In this she had foretold the day when some visitor

"From the Blue Mountains or Ontario's Lake"

might curiously trace the crumbling turrets and the broken stairs of London,

"And, choked no more with fleets, fair Thames survey
Through reeds and sedge pursue his idle way."

Ainger thinks that Macaulay's idea was an unconscious reminiscence of Mrs. Barbauld, but it really is a commonplace of literature, and it matters little whether we trace its original use to Walpole or Gibbon or Ranke or Mrs. Barbauld. Ranke, however, whom he was reviewing, certainly has the first claim to have inspired Macaulay's version.

It is hard to refrain from further description of Canon Ainger's literary remains as we have them in these volumes. He is a charming writer, one whom no reader "can afford to neglect," if we may use a phrase that he detested as borrowed from the Arnold jargon. There are few errors of editing. On page 152 of volume i., for père *Gaveot* read *Goriot*.

The Secret of the Totem. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

If Mr. Lang thinks that the secret of the totem can be disclosed by an announcement tantamount to a glorification of his own ingenuity, he is much mistaken and deceives his reader, who might at least have hoped to be initiated into some "secrets" not hitherto known to all students of sociology. The somewhat arrogant claim of the title is not modified by what Mr. Lang says in the course of this rather dull volume. Those who are apt to expect a flippant readiness on the part of the author—for Mr. Lang, though often wrong, is usually clever—will also be disappointed. The book presents as the "secret" a fact known for centuries, and but lately worked out into a sober monograph by two Russian scholars. Further, Mr. Lang, in order to the upholding of his thesis, which, in a word, is simply that the totem was a kind of *Schriftart*, as Picker and Somlo called it in the monograph referred to, has to ignore all the recent facts collected in defiance of his theory. This he does with his customary coolness. The savages of Central Australia do not support his view, so he calmly advances them in the scale of civilization, and regards them as too advanced to be usable—for his theory. Mr. Frazer, who first revamped his old theory of totemism into a clumsy adaptation of modern views, subsequently, in several illuminating articles in the *Fortnightly*, threw over the notion that matriarchy necessarily precedes patriarchy; but this result Mr. Lang in turn throws over, for, as he admits, it invalidates his argument. Inheritance of the totem does not always come first from the mother—then away with the vile body which indicates this; or, in Mr. Lang's words, "I am unable to accept this tribe as an example of the most archaic state of affairs extant."

Mr. Lang's "results," as set forth by himself, are that groups called each other by the names of plants and animals, which became stereotyped, their origin being forgotten, until people began to guess at the reason why they had such and such a name. The "usual reply" was that there was kinship between men and animals of the same name. This kinship with animals was sacred because mysterious. Hence tabus; "among others, that of totemic exogamy." Mr. Lang writes so many fairy-stories and does so many bright things that it is inexcusable for him to be so reconditely funny as to call this theory an explanation of the great secret which has so long puzzled students. Despite the serious tone of the book, we can but regard it as an example of humor new to Mr. Lang, but familiar to Americans. The dazzling stroke, the glitter of retort is no longer seen. A sombre earnestness appears on the surface, but beneath this Mr. Lang is surely laughing at us when he announces so seriously that he has found the 'Secret of the Totem.'

Totemism resembles caste in this, that both have been referred by many scholars to some one explanation, whereas each has been produced by various means, though blending at last—the several forms of caste or of totemism—into one apparently homogeneous phenomenon. It is quite possible that a young brave's vision may have given his tribe as well as himself a totem—at times; but visions do not explain all the systems of totemism. So, too, Wolfsons may be referred to a nickname—at times. Some savages of Central Australia say they were called "opossum-men" because their chief article of diet was the opossum. Totemism in this case was originally an economic institution to procure food-supply, with all the development into mysticism common to most savage institutions. But no one theory can give away all secrets unless the secrets can be shown to be identical and all shown to fit the theory. Hitherto no one has succeeded in inventing such a theory. People are called by animal and plant names without any trace of totemism, and totemism exists without these names. For example, there is no essential difference between an opossum-man and a sun-man, as far as the superstitious feeling of the Central Australian is concerned. The relationship is spiritual. The mysterious rite of totemism is not a recognition of blood-kinship between animal and man, but a means of propagating more opossums or sunshine. If Mr. Lang had been content to assert that he had rediscovered one probable means of instituting totemism, a means long since exploited, his book would have been less exciting to open, but the reader would not carry away with him the sense that he had been duped by a title.

The Scots Peerage. Founded on Wood's Edition of Sir Robert Douglas's 'Peerage of Scotland.' Edited by Sir James Balfour Paul, Lord Lyon King of Arms.

With Armorial Illustrations. Vols. I-III. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1905-1906.

The antiquity of the Scottish nobles is attested, among other evidences, by the following passage from the "Massacre of the Macphersons":

> "Fhairson had a son
> Who married Noah's daughter,
> And nearly spoiled ta Flood
> By trinking up ta water,
> Which he would have done,
> I at least believe it,
> Had ta mixture peen
> Only half Glenlivet."

We once saw an East-Anglian pedigree which was carried back to Balder, but there is nothing the English do that the Scotch cannot outdo. Should the inhabitants of the southern part of the island ever succeed in establishing their connection with the Ten Lost Tribes, we may feel sure that discoveries will soon be made across the border to establish the descent of the Scots from Khufu and Khafra. The Chronicle of Rastadt deduces the origin of all the leading families in Germany from the *Gens Anicia*. This, however, is but a small achievement to surpass.

It has been pointed out with a note of pathos that the destructive criticism of the present day has not spared even the peerage. Sir J. B. Paul himself says regarding his predecessors: "While the information of Wood and Douglas, so far as it dealt with their own times or the generation immediately preceding, was, on the whole, commendably accurate, the particulars regarding the earlier centuries were scanty and too frequently untrustworthy." It is for these earlier centuries, where the imagination of the magnate is apt to run riot, that the present edition will prove most useful. Douglas published his 'Peerage of Scotland,' in one volume folio, as early as 1764, and Wood's edition, of about double that size, appeared fifty years later. During the past two generations Scotland has had her own historians and antiquaries no less diligent than those of other European countries—no less diligent than they would have been had there never been a union of the two kingdoms. Accordingly, for the period before 1600, it is now possible to distinguish between history and legend, and to place the origin of Hamiltons, Grahams, and Campbells upon something like solid ground. Sir J. B. Paul really does little more with Douglas and Wood than make them a point of departure. The accumulation of data has rendered specialized labor necessary, and, by adopting the coöperative plan, the character of the original work has been fundamentally altered.

A good example of the way in which 'Douglas' has been brought down to date is furnished by the article on Murray, Lord Elibank. The old 'Peerage of Scotland' cites as authority for the descent it accepts a Great Seal charter, but this document "does not contain, as we are led to suppose, any allusion to the family of Mr. John Murray in whose favour the lands of Blackbarony were granted." Later editors of genealogical works have not only taken over this statement from 'Douglas,' but misquoted it in the process. Where capital mistakes of this kind could creep in for a period as recent as the beginning of the sixteenth century, what chance was there of securing accuracy in the case of the Douglases or the Campbells, beside whom Hapsburgs and Hohenzollerns are mere mushrooms? "According to Hume of Godscroft, the first Douglas was 'a certain nobleman,' who, in the days of Solvathius, King of Scotland, attacked and routed the army of Donald Bane, a pretender to the throne, in a battle which took place in 767." Unfortunately, Solvathius and the original Douglas must both be relegated to the era of prehistoric peeps, but, as a matter of fact, the first historical Douglas appears towards the close of the twelfth century, when Donald Bane revolted against William the Lion and rallied to himself a good many Celts from Ross and Moray. For the Campbells, charter evidence is not reached until the latter part of the fourteenth century, while it must be a source of satisfaction to the Ogilvies that the most authentic evidence gives "the bonnie House of Airlie" a lead of two centuries upon the hated dynasty of Argyll.

Items such as these any reader may discover among the elaborate genealogies which are here furnished by Sir J. B. Paul. We wish to point out, however, that in some cases rather long biographical notices of famous personages are woven in with a sketch of the family annals. Thus, the exploits in South America of Admiral Cochrane are chronicled under "Thomas, tenth Earl of Dundonald." From time to time (and this will show the exhaustive nature of the present edition) English families are introduced, merely from the fact that, through the caprice of a sovereign, they have been given Scottish peerages of more recent creation than their original English patents. By way of exception the House of Cary was given a Scotch peerage by James I., and did not get an English barony till 1832. Though the family originated in Devonshire, Sir Henry Cary received a Scottish title, and a title which was even taken from a royal palace in Scotland.

The 'Peerage,' whether English or Scotch, is less interesting as literature than the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' but it has a place of its own on the shelf of the historian, and does not exist merely for the benefit of the fashionable world. Sir Walter Elliot, of Kellynch Hall, who never read any other book if he could help it, found comfort and consolation in the 'Baronetage.' This definitive work of Sir J. B. Paul should not be used solely as a book of reference. Considered philosophically, it can be made to throw light on the evolution of the Scot, and embedded in it will be found many curious and entertaining facts.

The Russian Court in the Eighteenth Century. By Fitzgerald Molloy. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

Mr. Molloy has manufactured a very readable book out of familiar materials. He has not gone further afield in his "reading-up" than the easily accessible memoirs of foreign ambassadors to the court of Russia in the eighteenth century, those of Catharine II. and her friend the Princess Dashkoff, Catharine's letters to her French correspondents, and similar sources, all known in the published originals or (in the case of the Russian contributions) in translation. But the combination of these offers a vivid picture of the lighter, not to say the scandalous, side of life in Russia. The serious side, including the power in diplomacy exercised by the rulers of that epoch upon European history, and the really great things accomplished for her adopted country by Catharine II., are so slightly noticed that they hardly form even so much as a nebulous background. All shadow and no light is as fatal to a just portrait of a country as all light and no shadow (insisted upon by Queen Elizabeth of England) is to a personal portrait. And here it may be said that the eighteen illustrations, finely reproduced from historical portraits of the principal actors in the drama, form the most unimpeachable feature of the book.

Mr. Molloy has no first-hand acquaintance with Russia or its language. The results are often confusing (aided by imperfect proof-reading which converts *name* into *man*, and *Esthonia* into *Ethonia*, for example), partly by reason of varying spelling in nomenclature (Naruishkina, Narichkin), and partly by reason of the writer's ignorance of localities. Thus, few would recognize the famous Ukraina in *Ukarin*, and Suvaroff in *Suivaroff*; while "Our Lady of Kassanskoy" and "Pavlovsky" offer specimens of false names produced by the use of the adjective forms derived, respectively, from Kazan and Pavlovsk. Even more confusing is the ill-advised adoption of Catharine the Second's familiar manner of referring to her intimates by their Christian names alone, or those names joined to their patronymics, as "Leon" (meaning Narishkin), and "Ivan Ivanovitch" (meaning Schuvaloff), at long distances from the surnames. Mr. Molloy's history is defective when he asserts that Alexander I.'s brother and heir presumptive to the throne "voluntarily resigned the crown to his younger brother Nicholas" "because he was aware of the hatred in which he was held by the army"; and a slip of his pen (or of the proof-reader's pencil) leads to the substitution of "Paul" for "Alexander"—a serious blunder in the narrative of the Emperor Paul's tragic end. Occasionally Mr. Molloy indulges in comments, with amusing effect. For example, in speaking of Catharine the Second's search for a suitable bride for her son Paul, he says: "Her glance fell upon Germany, whose daughters, like herself, were then as now accommodatingly ready to make heroic sacrifices on behalf of their impoverished families, and, in abjuring their own faith in favor of another, to abandon the prospect of an eternal crown in favor of the fleeting joy of Russian rubles." Out of the four eminently proper and laudable "conversions" (on the part of brides with a prospect of prominent thrones) to the State churches of their future kingdoms which have taken place within the last dozen years, two have been to the Roman Catholic faith by others than Germans, exactly counterbalancing those of the two Germans who entered the Greco-Russian Church.

We cannot forbear a reference to Mr. Molloy's English, of which here are some assorted samples: "Such a catastrophe could be averted only in one way, to deprive him of the crown in favor of another, his son if he had one, his wife in lieu of an heir." "To her there seemed no person more reliable than her chief lover, Sergius [meaning Soltikoff, who has not been properly mentioned by his surname for ten

pages], who therefore accordingly waited on Bestuzhev." "The bride . . . looked beautiful in a robe of cloth of silver, blazing with jewels which the Empress had fastened on her head and arms and shoulders." "As his aide-de-camp also fell in love with her, he besieged and won her affections, on discovering which Schouvaloff's anger was unbounded, and dismissing Gregory Orlof, he swore that he would use all the influence of the Empress to have him exiled to Siberia."

A History of Modern Liberty. By James Mackinnon. Vols. I. and II. Longmans, Green & Co. 1906.

So many reviewers will assail Doctor Mackinnon with more or less pertinent references to the late Lord Acton's contemplated work of the same title as his, that he may as well, for once, be spared. It need only be said that, by accumulating one hundred definitions of his subject, Acton proved, by an opposite method, just what Doctor Mackinnon unconsciously does. Liberty is well-nigh hopeless as a subject for a thesis, because it is an unstable concept. The only definition of it that will apparently stand the test of every possible application is this, that Liberty is a well-reputed rhetorical expression much used at times of political stress, and frequently associated with a struggle for the preservation or increase of civil rights. The trouble lies with the word. When used in a restricted connection—for example, in relation to the manumission of slaves—it may carry a specific sense, but the moment it is used for a general idea it becomes such stuff as dreams are made of. Other words are in better case, *toleration*, for instance; but liberty is essentially an oratorical property that cannot in the nature of things suit the historian.

If the nineteenth century, Darwin's century, has taught historians anything, it is surely that history is the observation of a series of changes of conditions that never exactly repeat themselves, and that ever tend towards further and unfathomable changes. Suppose liberty for a moment to be a definable condition, where are the examples of that condition to be found in history? Searching the past, we should doubtless fall back on the traditional example of the barbarian Teuton while he still lived in untrammelled tribal felicity; searching the present, we should doubtless agree on the dweller in New Zealand, Switzerland, or Oklahoma, with the rider that, for perfect liberty to be achieved, certain abuses that may be assumed to exist even in those favored spots should be legislated away. But how can our minds correlate the perfect freedom of the barbarous Caucasion of the year one with that of his sophisticated descendant of the year 1906—the conditions of tribal Germany with those of our industrial democracy? Which is another way of saying that it is not so much the business of the historian to give us a so-called history of Liberty, which is impossible, as it is to give us an examination of the evolution of human conditions. This, in despite of his title, is about what Doctor Mackinnon does for us.

In the two volumes that form the present instalment of his work, he reviews the conditions of Europe from the time of the fall of the Western Empire to the close of the sixteenth century. The stress is laid on the constant movements of revolt that form so large a part of the history of the Caucasian race. The author is on the whole judicious and scholarly without attaining real distinction. His book will not add to our sum of knowledge and will not open new avenues of thought; yet it may be read with profit, for it approaches the familiar problems of the history of the Middle Ages and Renaissance with vigor, sanity, and independence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abell, H. H. Fidelity. Published by the Author. 25 cents.
Beaumont and Fletcher's Works. Edited by A. R. Waller. Vol. III. Macmillan Co.
Capes, Bernard. Bembo: A Tale of Italy. Dutton. $1.50.
Directory of Directors in the City of New York: 1906. The Audit Company of New York. $5.
Eddy, Walter Hollis. Experimental Physiology and Anatomy. American Book Co.
Fitch, Clyde. The Stubbornness of Geraldine. Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.
Godfrey, Elizabeth. The Bridal of Anstace. John Lane Co.
Harris, J. Henry. Cornish Saints and Sinners. John Lane Co.
Ingersoll, Ernest. The Life of Animals. Macmillan. $2 net.
Jastrow, Joseph. The Subconscious. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50 net.
Keble, John. Lyra Innocentium. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Life and Experiences of Sir Henry Enfield Roscoe. By Himself. Macmillan Co. $4.
MacDonald, William. Jacksonian Democracy. (The American Nation. Vol. 15.) Harper's.
Newcomb, Simon. A Compendium of Spherical Astronomy. Macmillan Co. $3.
Okakura-Kakuzo. The Book of Tea. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1.10 net.
Pierce the Ploughman's Crede. Edited by Walter W. Skeat. Henry Frowde.
Roche, Francis Everard. The Exodus. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Stamey, De Keller. The Junction of Laughter and Tears. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Tolstoy, Leo: His Life and Work. Compiled by Paul Birukoff. Vol. I. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Wright, Thomas. The Life of Richard Burton. 2 vols. Putnam. $6.50 net.

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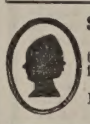

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The Week.

The Beef Trust has no friends. Next to the Standard Oil, it is probably the most cordially disliked monopoly, and the one safest to attack politically, in this country. The fact, however, that the packers are so justly held in disrepute should not be used as a warrant for doing them injustice, or, in order to punish them, for establishing a pernicious principle of government. The report of the President's investigators must be accepted as uncovering very bad conditions in some of the packing-houses. It does not, to be sure, include the more scandalous charges which have been bruited about. To those, Messrs. Neill and Reynolds did not choose to put their names; they were apparently willing to leave that field to imaginative writers. But what they do certify to is repellent enough. The lack of sanitary appliances in the packing-houses, the disregard of the health and comfort of the employees, the careless and confused and dirty ways of handling food-products, with the inadequacy of the present methods of inspection, are shown with shocking concreteness and detail. The President truly describes the picture as revolting. But to jump from that to putting the United States in charge of the packing-houses is to cover a tremendous distance with an agile *non-sequitur*. The beef report makes out an excellent case for rigid inspection and control by the State of Illinois or the city of Chicago, but what has the national Government to do with local exercise of the police power? Other States and municipalities are all the while attacking as grave abuses in factories and sweatshops. The list of laws for the State inspection of workshops and manufactories is growing every year. Consumers' Leagues are pressing this fight for health of workers and soundness of product in a thousand localities. In cities all over the land the Health Departments are exerting themselves to remedy the very sort of hygienic and moral outrage detailed in the beef report. Why should the President propose to make an exception of Illinois and Chicago, telling them, in effect, that they need not clean up their own filthy premises since he means to step in and do it for them? We will say nothing now of the propriety of his acting on ex-parte exposure by Government officials as if the packers had been tried by jury and convicted.

Another rebate case, in which the Government won, on Thursday, involved the Milwaukee Refrigerator Transit Company and half-a-dozen railways. The Refrigerator Company held transportation contracts from the Pabst Brewing Company and other producers, whereby it controlled shipments to competitive points. It withheld shipments from railways which refused to turn over to it from an eighth to a tenth of the freight money, and gave the traffic only to the railways which yielded. In other words, the Refrigerator Company bludgeoned the railways into granting rebates. The transactions were still further complicated by the fact that a majority of the refrigerator stock was owned by stockholders in the Pabst Company; but the Pabst Company could not be held as party to the illegal contract between the Refrigerator Company and the railways. The finding of the court against the defendant was obtained, of course, under a law which was a dead-letter until President Roosevelt began to push the enforcement as part of his campaign for a Rate bill. The new law, which is still in the conference committee of the two houses, will—if the promises of its sponsors be fulfilled—make it still easier to obtain convictions.

The Gaines campaign-publicity bill, reported by a House committee, instead of taking a middle ground between the more and less radical measures proposed, goes further than any of them. It is almost startlingly sweeping in its application to the election of all officials of whatever sort chosen at the same time as Presidential electors or Representatives, and also in its prohibition of political contributions not made to organized political committees. We know from the experience of various States that corrupt-practices acts designed to "bear lightly" on candidates and campaign managers have usually failed absolutely in their purpose. The Gaines bill, if constitutional, would prevent two of the most obvious methods of evasion. It would not be possible, for example, for a corporation, instead of giving $50,000 outright to the National Committee, to send a thousand-dollar check to the candidates for Dairy and Food Commissioners in every State, thus escaping publicity because it was not using money in the national campaign. Furthermore, it would be illegal to employ private individual disbursing agents.

Standpattism is daily mounting to new heights of unreason, resembling mania. Like the defenders of slavery just before the war, protectionists are making a religion of their practice, and every man who dissents from it is an infidel and a heathen. In that spirit, Secretary Shaw on Saturday denounced Gov. Cummins of Iowa for daring to say that a single Dingley schedule might be revised. The whole tariff has now become sacred. Any rash Uzzah who dares to lay a hand upon it may expect to fall dead. But Mr. Shaw's proof of the inviolate nature of the tariff was bizarre. He appealed to the President as a sort of high priest of protection. Not once since his election in 1904, solemnly averred the Secretary, has Mr. Roosevelt lisped a syllable about tariff revision. The inference is that any Republican who does is no better than a traitor. In fact, Secretary Shaw plainly drew it in the case of Gov. Cummins, whom he accused of being really a Democrat, and read out of the party. By the same token, Gov. Guild of Massachusetts will have to go, and along with him two-thirds of the Republicans in that State. But we do not know what Mr. Shaw would have said if some one in the audience had challenged him about President Roosevelt's tariff-revision speeches of 1902, and his suppressed tariff-reform message of 1904. To be consistent, he would have had to admit that the Republican President, like the Republican Governor of Iowa, was indulging in "repudiation of the Republican policy of protection." With the very high-priest a heretic, Shaw's isolation in tariff orthodoxy is truly splendid.

Secretary Shaw's Philippine parable, delivered before the graduating class of the Kentucky Wesleyan College on May 30, was in his best vein.

> "I have," said he, "a neighbor that has caused me trouble for years. . . . I settle the disturbance, but when I come back I have a little baby in my arms. . . . To keep and educate him seems the only thing to do; . . . but the first time I take him he begins to yell and kick and squall and bite. Spank! spank! spank! The little fellow is well satisfied now. The other day when I recalled his nurse, Judge Taft, he looked up and cried."

Our only complaint is that the Secretary does not carry on the parable. He does not tell, for instance, how the nurse's plea that the little boy be allowed to have a garden of his own and sell his radishes and green peas to the family (removal of the tariff), has been disregarded, nor how his adopted parent has planned to devote several of his weekly pennies to putting new gravel walks through the little boy's garden (subsidized railways), nor, finally, how the good of the family compels him, after a little while, to pay the hired man high rent for a wheelbarrow which the next-door neighbor would let him have for a song (coastwise shipping laws). If this is what Mr. Shaw means by "helping" our adopted baby, which, he says, our

people will do "so long as they have red corpuscles in their blood," then we must consider the Secretary's parable less apt than one we have heard before. It is that of the compassionate elephant, which, taking pity upon a nestful of young birds abandoned by their parents in the jungle, sat down on the nest to keep them warm.

Our nursling republic of Panama is making more trouble. The group that got themselves into power through a pretended revolution, found that they themselves were endangered by a revolution, and called upon their great and good friend at Washington to save them. Of course, the President could not have revolutions going on in his own little revolution-proof republic of Panama, and the would-be revolutionists were so informed. Thereupon they proposed to out-vote the oligarchs in the coming elections. This was a terrible prospect, and the opéra-bouffe officials in Panama immediately appealed to the United States to intervene to prevent what they called "daringly illegal" voting. They themselves confess that they have no power to enforce the laws or do anything but cry aloud to President Roosevelt. Apparently, their prayer has been heard, and our reinforcement of 600 marines will presumably act as election-inspectors—a novel duty, certainly. Secretary Taft feels free to intervene, on the ground that electoral disturbances will interfere with digging the canal. By the same token, he might intervene to prevent the Senate debate on the type of canal that is to be dug.

What threatened to become a serious international row has been settled by the appearance of Mexican troops at Cananea, and the prompt coöperation of United States and Mexican authorities. By contrast with the Cripple Creek troubles of 1904, when the Colorado authorities and the labor organization behind the striking miners both lost sight of the necessity for suppressing rioting first and discussing the merits of the case afterwards, the Cananea outbreak has been admirably handled. Mexican miners have the right to strike for better wages whenever and wherever they please, but when they resort to violence they are, very properly, regarded merely as lawbreakers; Gov. Ysabel and the War Department at Washington are agreed on that. The mere fact that American miners were involved in the trouble, however, did not justify the first hysterical demand of our Consul for American troops. As well might the Italian Consul in New Orleans have asked Rome for soldiers at the time of the massacre. Our promoters who go across the borders and take with them American workmen who are scornful of "Greasers" and intolerant of Spanish customs, are inviting race conflicts. Until we learn that there is a difference between the brow-beaten Mexican of Arizona and southern California and the people of Chihuahua and Sinaloa, we must expect such clashes.

Lynchers have been accused of various crimes, from murder down, but never before have they been arraigned for contempt of court. Yet the action of the Supreme Court on May 24, in granting Attorney-General Moody's request that a rule be issued to each of the known Chattanooga lynchers of last March, compelling them to appear next October and show cause why they should not be punished for "contempt of this honorable court," is to be commended. It is one way in which the long arm of the national law can reach out to a crime which is a national disgrace. The Chattanooga lynching was peculiarly flagrant. What brings the crime within the scope of the Supreme Court is the fact that it had entertained an appeal in behalf of the accused man. This was only to assure him all his rights under the laws and Constitution of the United States; but the mob could not endure that orderly process, and took advantage of the culpable negligence of the sheriff to break into the jail and murder the prisoner. This was, of course, a violation of the laws of Tennessee; but the grand jury would not indict a single one of the lynchers, though strongly urged to do so by the presiding judge. Now the Attorney-General means to see what Federal justice can do in the premises. He names twenty-seven men in his application to the court. A Chattanooga dispatch states significantly that ten of these are "officials, the sheriff and his deputies." Thus does race hatred—of course, the man lynched was a negro—turn even sworn guardians into lynchers.

The Missouri Democratic Convention has endorsed Mr. Bryan for the Presidency, and this action will probably be followed by the Indiana Democratic Convention. Ohio Democrats are also for him, Tom Johnson declares. Putting these political signs with the talk that many Eastern Democrats are now ready to "take Bryan," we get pretty good proof that his candidacy will, barring accidents, have to be reckoned with. This is a striking tribute to Mr. Bryan's popular qualities—his good nature, his gift of serious and eloquent speech, and the impression he makes of being absolutely honest personally. But it is a still more striking testimony to what President Roosevelt has done to rehabilitate Mr. Bryan. Any Republican who, after following Roosevelt, should object to Bryan as a radical, would simply be laughed at consumedly.

Though the reform Republicans showed a vast amount of enthusiasm for a regenerated Pennsylvania at the convention of the "Lincoln Party" in Philadelphia on Thursday, they were timid in translating their ardor into action. For Governor, Lewis Emery, jr., was nominated, and, as was predicted, Mayor Weaver did not contest the honor. With a caution that would better become a meeting of the hated machine Republicans, however, the convention notified Mr. Emery and his fellow-nominees that they could not withdraw from the ticket after July 10. By that time, of course, the organization Republicans will have settled upon their candidates; and if the reformers approve the choice of the regulars, it will be for Emery and his mates to withdraw. On reassembling, with the same officers, the Lincolnites' convention would then endorse the candidates of the Penrose faction. In effect, therefore, the convention in Philadelphia amounted merely to a threat that the reform Republicans will really be independent unless the Penrose crowd show a chastened spirit. This compromising attitude is discouraging. "Reform within the party" has been given up in Philadelphia as impracticable; just why the Lincolnites expect it to take place all over the State is hard to see.

The chief impression which the Mayor's review of the city's borrowing capacity will produce on the public mind, is painful consciousness of a confused and hardly intelligible fiscal system. For good and sufficient reasons, the State Constitution forbids a municipality to go into debt for a greater sum than 10 per cent. of its assessed valuation. As we have approached uncomfortably close to this limit, we have adopted the expedient of assessing property at the estimated market value, instead of the traditional 70 per cent. of such value. Thus we have at once acquired and made use of an opportunity to increase the city's indebtedness. There is nothing irregular or improper in the change, but it clearly introduces an artificial element into the debt-limit question; and, moreover, it creates a further danger against which Mr. McClellan, even while searching for means of justifying large debt expansion, warns the city. The Mayor very sensibly points out that a debt-limit, fixed by assessment at market values on the crest of a "boom" in real estate, may easily lead to a position where, with a "crash" in realty speculation, assessment even at market values would leave the city with its constitutional borrowing power actually exceeded.

This is one illustration of the looseness of the present system. Reference might also be made to the new plan of

issuing city bonds against the amount of uncollected and uncollectible back taxes —another expedient authorized by law, but in its nature an obvious pretext and evasion of the original debt-limitation principle. One may fully agree with the Mayor's assertion that the city's financial strength is "perhaps unequalled in any municipality in the world," and with Mr. F. A. Vanderlip's recent assurance that the existing debt "ought to be regarded as a small obligation for a city of such resources and with such a population"; and yet one may properly dislike and criticise the system of accounting now in vogue. The city's balance-sheet, its income and expense exhibit, are statements so complicated that it is doubtful if a dozen unofficial citizens have ever gone to the bottom of them. Not only so, but the city's own fiscal officers, having taken the plunge into that sea of figures, rarely emerge in agreement with one another as to what the figures mean. This we consider an absurd and inexcusable situation—notably so when the United States Treasury, with all the ramifications of its business, is able to make public every day, in a form so clear as to be intelligible to a schoolboy, the income, outlay, and actual financial condition of the Government.

It is fairly obvious that the first step towards remedying the highly dangerous conditions which the Citizens' Union and other investigators have exposed in the storing and handling of explosives in this city, must be to get rid of the men under whose lax and incompetent control such a state of affairs has been tolerated. The removal of Superintendent Murray of the Bureau of Combustibles at Fire Headquarters ought to be only the first step toward maintaining really efficient safeguards for the future. For if this praiseworthy act of Fire Commissioner O'Brien is not followed up, Murray might almost as well have been left where he was. If ever a city was in a mood and in a position to protect itself from future disasters through explosions, it was New York when, after the Park Avenue calamity had closely followed upon the Tarrant explosion, Mayor Low appointed a commission of high character to consider the whole subject. Yet it is a fact to be faced that in five years the good results of the work then begun have nearly or quite disappeared. The Municipal Explosives Commission (until recently a master plumber, a furniture dealer, and a fireworks salesman) commands respect neither from the public whose interests it is supposed to protect, nor from those engaged in work with explosives. The regulations already made by it, moreover, have been notoriously disregarded. It is generally believed, though categorical proof has not yet been offered, that the "certificates of fitness" issued by the Bureau of Combustibles have been freely bartered about and regularly sold to men who could not secure them at first hand. However this may be, it is notorious that the legal precautions are neglected in setting off blasts.

If the latest revelations as to the looting of the Mutual Life do not put prison stripes on some of the highest officers of the McCurdy administration, the robbed policyholders will be bitterly disappointed. According to the testimony being presented to the grand jury, the methods by which the money was stolen were simple in the extreme. Bills for supplies were padded, and the excess was turned over to Andrew C. Fields, head of the supply department. Thousands of dollars were paid nominally to phantom firms, but really to Fields. He used these vast funds presumably for maintaining the infamous "House of Mirth" at Albany, and for influencing in other ways legislation in which the Mutual was interested. Whether any of this stream of corruption was diverted into the pockets of officers of the Mutual, does not yet appear. Certain it is that this elaborate system of plundering the company could not have been put into effect without the collusion of various men in authority. These supply bills were audited by Fields's immediate superior and by the committee on expenditures; and then they were paid by the cashier. If none of these men detected the trick, they were either very stupid, unfit for positions of trust, or else they deliberately closed their eyes. Whatever may be urged in behalf of the eminent and virtuous gentlemen who approved the fraudulent bills, somebody, through their ignorance, indifference, or connivance, was guilty of theft.

Increasing if still vague talk of an Anglo-Russian alliance calls attention to the fact that outstanding disputes between Great Britain and Russia admit of ready settlement. If there is no real community of interest that would justify an alliance, there are matters pending to warrant an *entente*. It would clear up the international situation, for example, if Russia and England should agree as to the delimitation of their respective spheres of influence in Persia and on the Afghan and Tibetan frontiers. The time is also presumably ripe for England's formal abandonment of the dogma of Turkish integrity, and for some acknowledgment of Russia's especial position in that relation. In short, there is room for reconciliation between two countries which have suffered from exaggerated mutual distrust. To reach an adjustment should not be difficult when the really more complex motive of the Anglo-French *entente* is considered. One may readily believe that Sir Edward Grey has something of the sort on the cards, if only to meet the hackneyed jeer that the Liberals are duffers in foreign politics. But anything like a new triple alliance against Germany is merely a product of the journalistic imagination foreseeing the dull season.

A tariff war, with all its delights, is threatened between France and Spain. The new Spanish tariff is made up on the German plan of two columns; one containing the minimum rates, to be applied to the goods of those foreign nations which make satisfactory reciprocal arrangements; in the second, the maximum rates to be put in force against all others. By the law, the Government is made the judge of the adequacy of the concessions offered to Spanish exports by other countries, and Señor Moret has intimated that the French concessions are not sufficient. This news has caused a flutter among French exporters. They recall the former war of tariffs between Spain and France, so harmful to both countries. While it raged, during the nineties, the exports of Spain to France fell off $40,000,000, or nearly one-half, while the sale of French products to Spain dropped from $60,000,000 to $30,000,000. Other causes doubtless contributed to this diminished trade, but competing tariff taxes were mainly responsible. With that unhappy experience in mind, the sensible men in either Government must surely agree not to plunge into so senseless a commercial strife again.

The Austro-Hungarian situation has this constant feature, that, while Vienna and Budapest may be simultaneously storm centres, peace at one capital invariably means trouble at the other. We are assured, for example, that the Emperor has arrived at a good understanding with the Hungarian Independents, only to observe a change of Ministry and general clamor at Vienna. The Magyars are no sooner appeased than the Germans cry treason, and so it goes. The moral of the situation seems to be that it is dangerous to trade too much on the present good feeling in Hungary. The Wekerle Ministry was formed merely to establish a *modus vivendi* and provide for a new Diet elected by universal suffrage. Clearly, the task of settling the fiscal, army, and language questions lies with the future Parliament. It is difficult to see how the project of universal suffrage and the general suspicions of the truce at Vienna can seriously affect the Hungarian bargain, if it is carried out promptly and in good faith. But time is of the essence of the compromise. To keep the present provisional Diet too long in session, and to reintroduce the old contentious matter, might seriously impair the *entente* between the followers of Kossuth and the Emperor-King.

THE GORMAN TYPE.

The death of Arthur Pue Gorman removes one of the ablest members of the United States Senate. To his contemporaries he was not merely the representative of Maryland in the upper house of Washington and the leader of the Democratic forces in that body, but the type of a politician common to all ranks, from board of aldermen to Senate. He was the flower of his kind. He achieved all that was possible for a man of his character; he won the appropriate rewards.

He went into politics early, and went in to win. His only motto seems to have been that the way to succeed is to succeed. Of course, he cast in his lot with the dominant party of his State—the Democratic. He was in turn a collector of internal revenue, a member of the House of Delegates, then of the State Senate, and finally of the United States Senate. His prominence set many people to talking of him as a candidate for the Presidency. The qualities which carried him steadily forward in office might conceivably have secured him the nomination for the Presidency in a convention dominated by politicians. But he himself was shrewd enough to know that a campaign under his name would be foredoomed to failure; that his deserved reputation as a skilful manipulator of men and marshal of the forces of corruption had created deep popular distrust. Running against any man who could even pose as a constructive statesman, Gorman would have been beaten from the start.

His career furnishes food for thought for all practical politicians. If politics be regarded merely as a means of livelihood, his success at the trade should be an encouragement to thousands of aspiring men who have more brains than moral scruples. He was able to wield much influence, to secure a certain social position, and to live in comfort. These are commonly reckoned among the good things of this world. But if politics be viewed as an opportunity for public service, his years have been barren of achievement. Couple his name with that of Carl Schurz, whose record as an officeholder is comparatively brief, and every man sees instantly whose tomb should bear the epitaph "Failure."

Men who are keen and active, and who have no principles as impedimenta, often find the path of politics easy. It requires only mediocre ability to construct a personal machine in a city ward or even a district which elects representatives in Congress. Moreover, the control of a Legislature is not difficult for one who has the resources and the stomach for such an undertaking. While Thomas C. Platt and Chauncey M. Depew are United States Senators from New York, and John F. Dryden from New Jersey, no man whose capital consists of either vulpine cunning or corporation backing need despair of a similar honor. While convictions can be improvised or else changed as easily as a coat, no one should fear greatly the ups and downs of political life and the changes in party leadership. Votes are always to be had by him who will pay for them, and henchmen will remain devoted to the distributor of patronage. With a thick skin and without ideals, your professional politician can go a long way.

But not to the end. Sooner or later his character overtakes his reputation; in some critical moment he finds it impossible to be both saint and devil. For Gorman, the hour of revelation came when the Wilson tariff bill was before the Senate. Confronting the alternative of loyalty to a principle or to a purse, he chose the latter. That great betrayal stripped him naked in the presence of the whole country. After that episode no one had confidence in him. His dexterity as a parliamentarian, his readiness in debate, his cleverness in organizing and running machinery, his ingenuity as a political schemer—all these have counted for little or nothing.

It is not pleasant to say these things of the dead. But it is at the moment when his death lifts him—probably for the last time—to a conspicuous position that the bitter truth should be spoken. Here and now the lesson is open for young and old. With capacity that might have gained him a sure place in our roll of patriots and statesmen, he deliberately wrote his name in water.

WAYS OF "REGENERATING" BUSINESS.

Senator Beveridge, in one of those mouth-filling phrases which pass with certain orators for thought, declares that his meat-inspection amendment marks the beginning of the "moral regeneration of American business." That much American business is in need of a new birth, we presume few will deny. Too many unregenerate specimens have been on exhibition lately. If there is any way of removing their hearts of stone and giving them hearts of flesh, we are all interested in both process and result. But it is well not to run off after false lights, or to be deluded by conversions which are only skin-deep or purely for advertising purposes. We may wisely distrust any form of regeneration that sounds a trumpet before itself in the streets. And to the spectacular, grandiloquent preachers who tell us of some new and easy short-cut to regeneration, avoiding the old painful road of repentance, restitution, and a sober and godly life, a deaf ear had best be turned. Our business disease is not to be cured by some Senator lifting his hand to high heaven and rolling out great swelling words of vanity, but by going humbly down into Jordan to wash and be clean.

Laws can do something for us. But, to accomplish anything, they must be conceived in common sense and so drafted as to be constitutional and enforceable. Senator Beveridge's law is already found to be neither. The lawyers of the House have discovered that it is too carelessly drawn, that the amendment itself must be thoroughly amended. In the face of Supreme Court decisions to the contrary, it goes upon the presumption that Congress can "regulate" the manufacture of articles produced in any State and intended for interstate commerce. But till the products are actually turned over to a common carrier, for shipment across State lines, the power of Congress does not apply. This is the fact which, combined with other considerations, makes it desirable that the work of meat-inspection, in Chicago or elsewhere, should be done by municipal or State authorities, and made as drastic as any man could wish. Indeed, the packers themselves ought to invite and welcome such inspection. They ought to do it for the shrewdest business reasons. To be able to announce to the world that the whole process of transportation of animals to the Chicago stockyards, their slaughter and preparation for distribution in every form, was under the most stringent sanitary regulation, would be worth everything to the packing houses. By printing on their labels and in their advertisements a copy of the statute compelling them to have all their output rigidly inspected, they could do much to restore confidence in the honesty of their methods and the purity of their wares.

We must not imagine, however, that in legal enactment lies the only remedy. Natural law still reigns in the business world. Punishment falls of itself upon abuses; short-sighted greed has penalties to pay. News from abroad shows that a swifter loss than any restraining legislation could possibly inflict upon the packers, they are in a way to suffer by the falling-off in their trade consequent upon distrust of their business integrity. In France there is something like a boycott of American meat-products forming. English consumers are also reported to be concerned and determined to withhold orders. If half the current rumors are true, the sales of canned goods in this country are being deeply cut into. This is one of the finest ways of "regenerating" a sinful business known to the theologians.

Adulteration, false weights, goods below contract, skimping, disregard of the health both of workers in the manufacture and consumers in the market—all these things are an abomination to business as well as to the Lord. They are "bad business," as all men can see when the exposure comes. In the highest standards of business honor, in products

kept up to grade, the highest profits are to be made, taking the years together. It is not necessary to invoke an avenging Government; angry consumers, tricked customers, buyers frightened away will execute punishment. For even American humor must fail to see the joke in impure food. The curmudgeon squire who sent spoiled beer out to his laborers in the fields asked them how they liked it. "That was just right for us, sir," was the reply. "If it had been any better, you wouldn't have given it to us, and if it had been any worse, we couldn't have drunk it." People are in no mood to take their provisions in that spirit. They will insist upon knowing what they are getting, and why it is not the best possible. And the producers who can most securely guarantee the purity and healthfulness of what they have to sell, will most speedily get a business both regenerated and profitable.

SPREAD OF THE REFERENDUM.

The Oregon election this week is noteworthy for the number of propositions submitted to the people under the referendum amendment adopted four years ago. While the people of Utah and Nevada, the latest States to adopt the initiative and referendum, have apparently made no use whatever of their new privilege, Oregon is applying it freely to most of the questions of local interest. In 1904, local option, the direct primary, and a change in the provision for State printing were put on the ballot and carried through by popular vote. This year the ballot bears five constitutional amendments initiated by petition: extending the principle of the referendum to local laws, giving cities and towns the right to amend their own charters, and altering in some details the method of submitting amendments.

These amendments have been proposed by the People's Power League, the aggressive organization which carried on the original campaign for the referendum. It also has initiated this year an anti-pass law. Besides the League bills, the Equal Suffrage Association has filed a petition for a Constitutional amendment giving women the ballot; the State Grange initiates a corporation tax bill, the owners of toll-roads seek in this way the purchase of their property by the State, the State Liquor Dealers' Association has initiated amendments to the local-option law of two years ago, put on the ballot by the Prohibitionists; and, finally, one of the regular State appropriation bills which was held up last spring by the filing of a petition, comes up now for ratification. The list thus includes not only what may be called the "stock" reforms—those which have everywhere been seeking a hearing for years—and such minor constitutional changes as every State has to make rather frequently, but also matters which, outside of a referendum State, would remain absolutely in the control of the Legislature.

There is probably an element of truth in the very natural suggestion that the State is enjoying the referendum now with the zest everywhere aroused by a new game, and that interest will flag later on. Still, an awakened interest in the referendum has not been confined to Oregon alone. The interesting "news bulletins" which the People's Sovereignty League has been issuing lately, abound in items showing its spread. The Massachusetts Senate defeated a "public opinion" bill after the lower house had voted for it by an overwhelming majority. The Kansas Democrats have declared in their platform for a similar law; both parties in Maine are reported likely to do the same. In Texas, Georgia, Florida, and a dozen Western States there are organized efforts to bring the Legislatures elected this fall in line for the referendum. In advance of Statehood, the movement is being carried into Oklahoma and Indian Territory. The custom of submitting long-contested laws to the people by special referendum, as was done in Wisconsin with the direct-primary law, also seems on the increase, as is undoubtedly direct legislation in local matters, especially as regards taxation. Seattle, following the lead of Los Angeles, has gone so far as the "recall" applied by popular vote to misbehaving officials.

A singular feature of the case is that the referendum, based as it is to some extent upon the theory that the interests and beliefs of legislators and constituents are diverse, has thus far been used chiefly to secure for new States measures that have been elsewhere adopted by ordinary Legislatures. Thus, the referendum gave Oregon the direct primary which Minnesota and Illinois had received at the hands of the Legislature; also, local option, which a score of States have achieved in the usual way through their representatives. The woman-suffragists jump at the chance of employing the initiative petition, though in the States where they actually have succeeded they did so by convincing the Legislatures first and securing popular ratification afterwards.

The referendum programme naturally associates itself with the direct primary. The one is no more a complete cure for bad legislation than the other is for bad nominations, but both may perhaps be of great value as preventives. There are many men in public life who could not stand the test of the direct primary, just as there are many laws on the statute-books which could not stand the test of the referendum. Both are merely devices for facilitating the expression of public opinion; and where sound opinion does not exist, both are somewhat worse than useless. Already the direct-primary States and cities are bringing out many times more citizens to take part in making nominations than ever appeared at the old caucuses. In 1904, upon seventeen important referendum propositions and Constitutional amendments in eight States, a bare half of the voters taking part in the elections expressed themselves at all. This ratio will have to be radically changed before the referendum becomes a really active force for good in our political life.

FOR CONTROL OF ANARCHISTS.

When President Garfield was assassinated, Gen. Grant exclaimed, on hearing of the crime, "For my part, I am in favor of having the civilized nations put down anarchists with a hard hand." It was the natural expression of a blunt and simple nature; and we hear it echoed every time there is an anarchistic outrage. After McKinley's murder, it was the common talk. Congress was to be required to enact such laws as would free our rulers from the haunting and daily dread of being struck down by anarchists. That died out; but similar ideas are put forward now in consequence of the fiendish attempt upon the lives of the young King and Queen of Spain. How to keep anarchists under surveillance and control is declared to be a pressing question. Andrew D. White would have an international bureau of police to run down bomb-throwers. It is said that the Italian Government is ready to call a congress of the nations for the purpose of taking effective measures against the assassins who call themselves anarchists.

No one would say a word in disparagement of any plan which might contribute to even the fancied security of men in high place, but we have to face the fact that murderous anarchism is an evil very difficult to deal with successfully by police regulation. Something may doubtless be done to make the co-operation between the police of different countries more effective. Suspicious persons may be more closely shadowed, their records kept, their movements noted; and, when they pass from one land to another, timely notification may be given. Precautions of other kinds may very well be extended to advantage. But when all is done that human ingenuity can compass, anarchists will go on slipping through the police net and putting governments to their wits' end in devising means to suppress this constant peril to all in great station.

This will remain true so long as anarchists remain of their present temper, since there is no sure way of spotting an anarchist on sight or of depriving him of weapons. There are, of course, anarchistic "groups" which have their meeting-places and their more or less open propaganda. Upon them the

police can keep a watchful eye. Their members can be identified and traced. But anarchism is not a label; it is a frame of mind. Unsuspected and undetected, the mildest-mannered and most philanthropic appearing of mortals may suddenly display it, and throw his bomb or plunge his dagger. This is the unpleasant truth which makes all the suggestions of international surveillance of anarchists seem necessarily disappointing. If anarchists were all of one race; if they looked alike and had a distinctive dress or loudly proclaimed their tenets and their plots, it would be easy enough to hold them in check. But murder in the heart cannot be read on the face. A man may take ship as an inoffensive citizen and step ashore an anarchist—that is, if he happens to have an ill-balanced brain, which gets upset by brooding or reading or conversation on the voyage. Nor is there much more hope in restricting the knowledge and sale of explosives, and so depriving anarchists of their terrible instruments. As the case of the Madrid bomb-thrower, Morales, shows, a smattering of chemistry, easily obtainable from accessible books, is enough to equip the anarchist. Besides, he is just as likely to be successful with ordinary weapons as with high explosives. Our three murdered Presidents fell before bullets, not bombs. So did King Humbert. A dagger took the life of the Empress Elizabeth. If Kings and Presidents are allowed to appear in public at all, there must always be the chance that some one undreamed of by the police will get near enough to at least attempt assassination. As King Alfonso is reported to have said when congratulated on his escape, "Yes, but it will come again." The risk is always there.

Anarchism being the defiance of all reason, it is impossible to cure or crush it by reasonable methods. What the world has to count upon, apparently for an indefinite future, is the existence of a class of men whom we must regard as a noxious by-product of civilization. The sight of wealth and power awakens the tigerish instinct in their hearts. It does no good to prove to them that they are stupid as well as inhuman, that organized government must go on, and that, as President Roosevelt said in his first message, men will always be found to step forward and take the place of murdered rulers. Anarchists care nothing for that argument, since their chief aim is to create terror and produce an immense sensation. If a way could be devised of robbing their crimes of publicity, it might have a deterrent effect. If it were possible for the press to agree to suppress all but the barest mention of a murder by anarchists, their great aim of causing a world-wide horror would be partially defeated. But anarchism would remain. We should still have these men ready to scuttle the ship in order to wreak their sullen vengeance. They reck not of their own lives. The ordinary penalties of the law mean nothing to them. Extraordinary measures taken by the authorities, they will be able sooner or later to circumvent. So for the present there is little for us except, after having done everything humanly possible to guard our rulers and to watch the suspect, to reckon calmly upon the fact that the occupation of King or President is extra-hazardous. The anarchist lurks by the path and may strike with poisoned fangs. We may hope that some day such reptiles will disappear; but they are with us today, and orderly society, while extirpating as many of them as possible, must not allow the survivors to intimidate, though they may momentarily appall.

THE INDEFINITE A.B.

The June number of *World's Work* celebrates the degree-conferring season by a searching inquiry into the meaning of the usual collegiate degree. It returns from the investigation with the rather disheartening news that the letters A.B. mean so many different kinds of education that they mean practically nothing. Formerly the bachelor's badge indicated at least that its wearer "had spent four years in a cultivated and learned society, where he had been brought more or less in contact with two dead languages, a little stale philosophy, and some higher mathematics." To-day the degree implies no common standard of discipline, is granted for courses ranging from Sanskrit to metal-working, and for terms of residence ranging from two to five or more years. With its usual bent for the practical, *World's Work* is for abolishing so vague a designation, and makes the "honest" suggestion that we substitute for a degree a certificate giving in outline the college record of the individual student.

Such a certificate would clearly be beyond suspicion in the matter of honesty, but its alleged practicality dwindles under inspection. One may doubt if a bank officer employing a college graduate would give this certificate either an intelligent or even a patient reading. Who is to decide whether a third assistant receiving-teller requires a surplus of "polly con" or benefits by a shortage of compendious fine-arts? College presidents in their wisdom have decided that it is impossible to establish any educational distinction between the numerous subjects qualifying for a mere academic abstraction—the baccalaureate degree; how, then, shall simple employers decide what combination of lectures and recitations makes best for practical efficiency? The day is probably far off when a practising broker will accept or reject a diplomaed office boy because the applicant is a little too long of Romance philology and a trifle short of physiological psychology.

If the suggestion of replacing degrees with certificates is, like most very "simple and practical" proposals, more complex and difficult than it seems, it at least calls attention to the confusion that reigns in collegiate education. At institutions like Harvard and Johns Hopkins the A.B. merely means that its possessor has for an uncertain time studied something or other. Although the slender resources of the small colleges do not permit them to spoon out quite so variegated an educational haggis, they are hastening towards the prevailing impressionistic indefiniteness as fast as their means permit. At many colleges the A.B. may have spent most of his time in linguistics or in laboratory courses in the natural sciences; he may freely have substituted quantitative analysis for Greek tragedy, elementary Italian for logic, descriptive geometry for English lyrical poetry, and so on. In such depths of unreason the theory of the complete equality of educational values, as between different subjects of instruction, has landed us.

"But," some downright soul will say, "we must call the miscellaneous output of this many-mouthed mill something. What's the harm of calling it an A.B. or a Boojum? Things, not names, signify." It is precisely because things do signify that one desires an academic nomenclature which does roughly correspond to existing educational facts. We cannot hope to restore the old uniform college curriculum, but no discerning observer of the present educational confusion can fail to see that a kind of order is already establishing itself. The main line of cleavage between studies chiefly historical and those chiefly scientific is as valid as ever. It is already true that the classics of France and Germany are doing for the average student of humane letters what those of Greece and Rome did for his predecessors; but there has been practically no approximation between those branches of learning which regard the past of man as their field, and those which regard primarily the present phenomenal world. By misleading figures of speech we speak of scientific methods of historical, linguistic, or literary research; the prevailing lack of standards leads us to impute exaggerated cultural value to the experimental methods of the sciences. In both instances the possibilities of formal instruction are vastly over-estimated, and those of life in the world unduly depreciated. We take it that the cloistered student of books must pick up the much-vaunted experimental method as he goes, whereas the graduate of the laboratories will, if he be wise, consult life and leisure for his "humanities."

Still, the academic distinction between historical and scientific training remains in force. To-day most college

men are students of the humanities in the wider sense, of the exact sciences in the restricted sense, or of a generally ill-considered mixture of the two subjects. Should not college degrees correspond to this fact? There are turned out annually, under the title of Bachelors of Arts, some thousands of Bachelors of Science, or of mishmash. And since the last name, though eminently descriptive, lacks academic authority, the special certificate for which *World's Work* pleads might be bestowed upon those uncompromising individualists who decline to be fish, flesh, or good red herring. Such certificates are actually granted to those rare unfortunates who fail to fit into any one of the nest of pigeonholes which, by a gross abuse of language, we still continue to call a college curriculum. For the average student a bachelorhood in arts or in science, as the case may be, sufficiently designates his training, and, happily, many colleges and universities still stand upon this useful distinction.

IRELAND AND THE RADICAL GOVERNMENT.

DUBLIN, May 17, 1906.

"Good government cannot take the place of self-government," said Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, in one of his first speeches as Prime Minister, when referring to the Irish question. The present Government, like many preceding ones, professes and really has the best possible intentions towards Ireland and the Irish people; but intentions are not always translated into action. At once, on its accession to office, the tone of the Irish administration was changed. The Coercion Act's operation was suspended; its repeal was promised; directions that juries were not to be "packed" were issued by the new law officers; prosecutions initiated by the late Government were withdrawn, and there were to be no more State trials for alleged intimidation of persons who said they were not intimidated, or of country farmers who had their names painted on their carts in Gaelic letters. The Chief Secretary, Mr. Bryce, has more than once expressed his sympathy with and approval of the Gaelic movement. He has promised to reconsider the withdrawal of fees for teaching Gaelic in the national schools, which his predecessor had threatened, and to devise a more effective system of Gaelic instruction than has hitherto prevailed. He has withdrawn the instructions of his predecessor, which limited and retarded the operations of the Land Purchase Act, and, by his conciliatory manner in the House of Commons, in striking contrast to the insolence of his predecessor, he has kept the Irish members not wholly satisfied, but in reasonably good humor. As the representative in Parliament of all the Irish departments, Mr. Bryce has to answer nearly as many questions as all the English ministers together, and he shows a wise distrust of the Irish officials by almost invariably replying not on his own responsibility, but to the effect that the information asked for is supplied by such or such a board or official.

Ireland, however, cannot be administered in accordance with Irish ideas merely by good intentions, and there are already indications that Dublin Castle is getting the upper hand with Mr. Bryce and reverting to its old practices. Within the last few weeks prosecutions for the use of Gaelic have begun again. Once initiated by the police, such cases must be adjudicated on by the magistrates. They might, of course, dismiss them, but the Gaelic movement is a violent irritant to many persons of the class from which the magistrates are drawn. Apart from politics—the Gaelic League invites persons of all shades of politics and religion to become members—it is a protest against the Anglicization of Ireland, against vulgar English plays, comic songs, and "penny dreadfuls," with which Ireland has been deluged. It seeks to interest the Irish people in Ireland, its history, customs, music, and literature; and this appears to the magisterial class as disloyalty. Almost every week Mr. Bryce, in the House of Commons, professes his desire to see the provisions of the Land Act for the restoration of the evicted tenants made rapidly operative; but when a public meeting was held in the County Kilkenny to consider the question, 350 police were sent to attend, and disperse it if it appeared to the police inspector that the speeches were calculated to intimidate any one. As the evicted farms are usually in the occupation of the evicting landlord, any reference to them may be interpreted as intimidation. To make a police inspector judge, jury, and executioner in a case that might be brought before the ordinary courts, was both imprudent and foolish, but it ended in the meeting being held without interruption.

Very fully occupied with his Parliamentary duties, Mr. Bryce cannot be considered personally responsible for the acts of all the officials in Ireland, or for those of the many boards of which he is nominally the head. He is expected to defend them as far as he can if they do wrong or act foolishly, and could hardly disavow their action unless he was prepared to supersede them and personally superintend all the details of administration. As chief secretary, Mr. Bryce is head of the Local Government Board, one of the most important Irish departments, its business being really transacted by three commissioners of the usual anti-popular type. John Burns is president of the English Local Government Board and a cabinet minister. Not many years ago John Burns was convicted, sentenced, and imprisoned for taking part in an illegal assembly and obstructing the police. This was not considered to disqualify him from becoming a minister of the crown. The Galway County Council appointed as rate collector a Mr. Hobbs. He was a magistrate and chairman of a district council. He had been tried under the Coercion Act, convicted by a packed jury, and imprisoned for taking part in an "illegal assembly," a meeting to denounce the grazing system in Galway, by which vast tracts of fertile land are kept uninhabited. The Local Government Board purported to act on a rule made by itself that imprisonment shall be a disqualification for such an appointment as that given by the County Council to Mr. Hobbs. It appears probable that the rule is *ultra vires*, for, when questioned in the House of Commons, the Irish attorney-general was unable to say whether the board had power under its acts to make any such rule. If there is such a rule, Mr. Bryce is as much bound by it as the other members of the board until it is rescinded, or shown to be illegal, and, notwithstanding the English precedent in John Burns's case, he has so far taken no public steps to express dissent from the action of his colleagues. Yet Hobbs's offence contrasts favorably with that for which John Burns was convicted, for Hobbs was tried under a provision of the Coercion Act which enabled the jury to be doubly packed, first by the jury panel being selected from a special class, and next by the unlimited exercise of the Crown's privilege of objecting to jurors who could not be trusted to convict. At the time, the Irish party called attention in Parliament to the trial as an outrage on justice, and Mr. Bryce, then out of office, supported them in the Division Lobby.

If good government is synonymous with government in accordance with Irish ideas, it is impracticable under existing conditions. The system is at fault: the Chief Secretary can give little real or personal attention to the details of administration, and can for official purposes only know what his officials tell him. Almost the entire Irish bureaucracy are hostile to all popular government, and the general impression is that Mr. Bryce is more and more falling under their sway. Cardinal Logue, the Catholic Primate, expressed this feeling in a recent speech with reference to some promised inquiry into educational matters. He said: "We have had changes of Government and new Ministers, but my experience since I was a boy—and it is a very long experience now—is that it matters very little to Irishmen, and matters even still less to the Irish Catholics, what Government is in power in England. . . . We find that we are still under the blight of Castle rule, and still subjected to the withering breath of ascendancy in this country." Mr. Asquith, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, when in opposition, supported Irish protests against the overtaxation of Ireland, but gave no effect in his Budget to these pious opinions. His excuse, like Mr. Bryce's, is that the Liberals have been too short a time in office to make any radical change in the policy or practice of their predecessors. The good intentions of the Prime Minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Chief Secretary are unquestionable; but it is to be remembered that twenty years ago they thought Home Rule the most urgently pressing public question; and that the only difference in present circumstances is, that there is not an alarming agitation on the subject. It was well known that for this year, at any rate, there would be no Home Rule legislation, but it is supposed that the Government is preparing some measure of reform in Irish administration for next year.

The Under Secretary for Ireland, Sir Anthony MacDonnell, took some part in preparing the "Devolution" scheme put forward last year by Lord Dunraven's Reform Association. It was over this that Mr. Wyndham, who was supposed to have approved in private what he denounced in public, fell. The proposal made was: (1.) To establish a Financial Council, of twelve elected and twelve nominated members, to which should be entrusted the expenditure

of such part of the Irish revenue as should be held applicable to purely Irish purposes; (2.) To create a statutory body, composed of Irish peers and members of Parliament, which should have power to promote Irish legislation, but not to pass it; and to consider and advise Parliament on such Irish matters as might be referred to it. So far as this scheme has been discussed in public, it was rejected by the Unionists and by the Nationalists. It did not seem calculated either to relieve Parliament of Irish business, or to place the responsibility of real self-government on the Irish people. "Devolution," however, may mean many different things, and it is quite possible that next session a scheme of a different character, but under the same title, may be introduced by the Government. It would, as hitherto presented, be neither good government nor self-government.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES.

ATHENS, May 5, 1906.

Ten years ago this city witnessed the first celebration of the modern Olympic Games, and though the festival had been organized at only a few months' notice, in which time it was utterly impossible to complete the restoration of the Stadium in marble, and not a few other deficiencies in the arrangements made themselves felt, the remarkable enthusiasm of the Greek people and the wonderful setting of the festival afforded by the Stadium and the glories of the Attic landscape turned all shortcomings into a brilliant success. Since then the Olympic Games have been celebrated twice in other lands—at Paris in 1900 and at St. Louis in 1904, as had been arranged by the international athletic conference of 1895; but it was generally acknowledged that both celebrations fell far below the success of the 1896 meeting. This was not due merely to the fact that in both cases the athletic gathering was but an adjunct of a World's Fair; there was lacking that indefinable something which distinguished the Athenian festival from ordinary athletic contests, and which apparently cannot be found elsewhere. If one were asked to give that something a name, one would not hesitate, after witnessing the festival of 1906, to describe it as the subtle influence of climate and tradition which must have inspired the apotheosis of athletics in ancient Greece.

The King of Greece, at the banquet which he gave to the Olympic victors in 1896, expressed the hope that Athens would become the permanent home of the revived Olympic Games. This did not, of course, have much weight with those who had set their hearts upon celebrating an Olympic festival in their own countries; and the Graeco-Turkish war of 1897, with its reverses and humiliations, precluded any further action in the matter by the Greeks. Even the restoration of the Stadium was interrupted for some years after the war, and resumed only in 1902. But after the St. Louis games had proved hardly more successful than those in Paris, the Crown Prince of Greece, who had taken the matter very much to heart, believed that the time had come to venture a decisive stroke, and soon the Greek Parliament legalized the Olympic Games as a national institution, to be held in Athens once in every four years, and to be open to all nations. And the results have fully justified the measure.

Once more Athens has celebrated the Olympic Games, this time in a Stadium completed and resplendent in white marble, and with a measure of success far surpassing that of 1896, though some of us who attended that first festival will ever look back to it as a revelation in itself, of which all subsequent festivals can be but repetitions and amplifications.

One important factor of this year's success was the excellent work done by the various national committees, in Athens and abroad. In most foreign countries the highest political personages lent the weight of their influence to the work of preparing as large and as strong national athletic contingents as possible; while at Athens the Olympic Games Committee, aided by several sub-committees, accomplished the task of preparation with praiseworthy energy. In this connection one must do justice to the indefatigable activity of the General Secretary, Prof. Sp. Lambros of the University of Athens, upon whom the greater part of the work devolved. But perhaps the hardest workers for the success of the Olympic Games, both as regards the preparatory stage and during the entire festival, were the King of Greece and the Crown Prince Constantine. To their efforts one cannot but attribute, not only the participation of so many heads of foreign States in the work of the respective national committees, but more especially the attendance of King Edward and Queen Alexandra, with the Prince and Princess of Wales, at the opening of the games. The presence of these royal visitors added greatly to the splendor of the celebration and to the general interest felt in the Olympic Games throughout the world, while among the Greeks themselves King Edward's visit aroused great enthusiasm, and was taken as a mark of special friendship for Greece and her people.

Certainly Athens has never yet seen so large and enthusiastic a concourse of visitors, Greek and foreign, as during this memorable celebration, and the city's accommodations have been taxed to the uttermost. Every language of Europe could be heard in the happy crowds that streamed daily into the Stadium, or surged along the brilliantly-illuminated streets every evening. The red fezes of the Greeks from Macedonia, Epirus, Thrace, and other parts of the Turkish Empire dotted these gatherings by the thousand. To these children of "enslaved Greece," as they call themselves, it was all like a beautiful dream, fraught with patriotic emotion, after the repression and tyranny under which they live ordinarily. Tourists, old and young, and correspondents of many nationalities, crowded the hotel lobbies or pranced abroad furiously with cameras, to the delight of the country-folk come into town for the fêtes, or beset the venders of flags, Olympic pins, and picture postcards. Imagine these throngs of people all in the best of humors for ten consecutive days and nights, with hardly a policeman to be seen, and yet no drunkenness or disorder, or even jostling and pushing.

A notable instance of this characteristic good nature of a Greek crowd occurred every afternoon, when some 50,000 people might be seen waiting in perfect order for their turn to pass through the four narrow exits of the Stadium at the close of the day's games, often making way courteously for some foreign correspondent who was in a hurry to get out. One reason for this good nature may have been the complete absence, so frequently spoken of by Europeans, of spirituous drinks for sale in the streets, among the numerous cold-water and lemonade stands. Not that Athens is a "prohibition" city, but simply because a Greek crowd prefers a glass of cold water to any other beverage.

The great variety of sports on the official programme, of course, made it necessary to hold many of the different contests simultaneously at various points. The Stadium was reserved for the athletic events proper; the other contests taking place elsewhere, mainly in the forenoon, so as to give all contestants an opportunity in the afternoon of being present in the Stadium, where it was but natural that the chief interest should centre.

Since 1906, imitations, more or less faithful, of the Athenian Stadium have been erected in various foreign cities, usually of iron and concrete; but it is safe to say that he who has not seen the Stadium at Athens in all its magnificence of white Pentelic marble, with the glorious Attic sky for a canopy, has no idea of what such an amphitheatre can be at its best. The imposing spectacle on the opening day of the games, as the Kings of England and Greece, with the other royalties, proceeded up the arena to their seats at the circular end, as the athletes of so many nations marched in procession past their majesties, and as King George formally welcomed the foreign athletes and declared the opening of the "second" Olympiad, amid the enthusiastic applause of the vast audience of 60,000 spectators, cannot easily be forgotten. The scene on the day of the Marathon race was even more memorable, and only those who witnessed the wild enthusiasm of the audience in 1896, when a Greek won this race, can imagine what would have happened if a Greek had been equally successful this time. The popular disappointment over the loss of the event can be estimated only by the way in which dwellings, shops and counting-houses, hotels and cafés were deserted on that afternoon in Athens and Piræus. Fully 200,000 people were crowded in and around the Stadium and along the streets leading to the Marathon road, in painful suspense, as the hour approached for the runners to appear. It was therefore the severest possible strain that could have been put upon the sporting spirit and sense of hospitality of the Greek people when Sherring, a Canadian-Irishman, ran into the arena, a full quarter-mile ahead of the next runner. But the people rose grandly to the occasion, and Sherring could not have been cheered more loudly nor lionized more enthusiastically than he was by the Greeks, from that moment of victory in the Stadium to his departure from Greece several days later. This Marathon race has taken such a powerful hold upon the imagination of the Greeks, both high and low, that it has come to be regarded as the national prize *par excellence*, and it is even proposed to confer the citizenship of the demos of Marathon upon every winner of this race.

The ceremony of awarding the prizes to the victors on the last day of the festival, by the King of Greece, was perhaps the most imposing of all the gatherings in the Stadium. After an exhibition of gymnastic drill by 6,000 Athenian schoolboys, King George stood for two full hours in the hot sun, presenting branches of wild-olive and other trophies to the numerous *Olympionikæ*—firsts, seconds, and thirds in each event. Each victor, as he mounted to the royal platform and bore away the much-coveted *cotinus*, or wild-olive, brought specially for the occasion from the Altis at Olympia, was loudly acclaimed by the spectators, and the climax of applause was reached when, last but not least, a special trophy, sent by the city of Rome to the Crown Prince of Greece (a handsome bronze representing the historic wolf suckling Romulus and Remus), was presented by the King to his eldest son, who had been the chief organizer of this successful festival. Then the close of the Olympic Games was formally proclaimed, and King George, who had presided over the daily gatherings in the Stadium with unwearying endurance and interest, was given a special ovation as he led the way with Queen Olga down the arena and out through the entrance colonnade.

It would be tedious, if not impossible within reasonable limits, to enumerate the various contests and to name the victors in each and all. Suffice it to say, that, in track and field athletics, the American and English athletes practically swept the board. Out of twenty-five first prizes, Americans won eleven, English four, Greeks three, Swedes two, Austrians two, Finlanders, Germans, and Danes one each. Of the second prizes in the same events, America won six, England six, Sweden four, Greece three, Hungary three, etc. In gymnastics the Norwegians and Danes tied for first place, the Swedes being *hors concours;* in swordsmanship, France was preëminent, winning three firsts to Germany's two, Belgium's two, and Greece's one; in shooting the Swiss won five firsts, the French four, the Norwegians three, the English two, the Greeks two. In swimming there were two English firsts, one German first, and one Hungarian first. France won the canoe regatta, Italy the two-oared, four-oared, and six-oared boat races, and Greece the sixteen-oared man-o'war's boat race. In the bicycle races, Italy took three firsts, England two, and France one. In football the Danes beat the Greeks; in tennis France took three firsts, Greece one. In all, counting the pentathlum and hexathlum contests, France took twenty firsts, Italy thirteen, America eleven, England and Canada eleven, Germany ten, Greece nine, Switzerland five, Denmark four, Norway four, Austria three, Hungary three, Sweden, Finland, and Belgium each two, and Bohemia one. Counting firsts, seconds, and thirds together, France leads with forty-four prizes, Greece forty-one, Germany thirty-two, England twenty-six, America twenty-three, Italy twenty-one, Sweden fourteen, etc.

Of course, this latter classification is hardly a fair criterion of the athletic prowess of each nation, for one can scarcely compare the winner of the revolver contest, for instance, to the winner of the Marathon race. Nor can one easily dissociate himself from the Anglo-Saxon conception of athletics, which was also that of the ancient Greek world; and in this conception such sports as swordsmanship and marksmanship have no place, though bicycling may fairly enough be offset against the chariot race. Nor can weight-lifting be considered a very noble sport; although a Greek won this event, more than one Greek was heard to speak of it as a "porters' match," and to wish that Greece might have won any other prize instead. Nevertheless, it would be difficult to exclude all these un-Olympian and un-English sports from a modern international programme; and, this once conceded, it follows that all must be regarded as useful and honorable contributions to athletic life. *Tempora mutantur nos et mutamur in illis.* Let us only hope that the day will never come when automobile races will be admitted to the Olympic programme.

He would indeed be hard to please who should deny that these 1906 Games have been a great success from every point of view; and much credit is due to the organizing committee for having improved so greatly upon the arrangements of 1896. Let us trust that in 1910 the experience gained this year will eliminate whatever shortcomings may have been noticeable in the festivities that have just closed. First and foremost, a central bureau of information for athletes and press representatives is a prime necessity. Something, too, might perhaps be done towards further condensing the preliminary heats of the various athletic contests. Thought should be more especially given to the better arrangement of the final prize distribution. Great inconvenience was experienced, and the spectacle lost much of its impressiveness, owing to the miniature size and unfortunate location of the royal platform with its narrow side-stairs; while the single herald with his megaphone was utterly unable to keep one-fourth of the audience informed as to the name and nationality of each victor. A large platform raised on the final day in the arena, where the straight sides commence, with the athletes grouped in a semi-circle below, and *four* heralds, one on each side of the platform, to proclaim the names of the victors, would give the spectators in every part of the Stadium an equal chance of hearing and seeing. And at the close, the crowned victors should follow the pleasing precedent of 1896, of marching completely around the Stadium, to receive the acclamations of every section of the multitude.

If one might add further suggestions, it would be well to return to the full classic precedent and award the wild-olive trophy in the form of a *wreath*, not as a branch, which can hardly be said to represent anything. The pleasing classic illusion would be further heightened if the victors, when being crowned, should appear in their athletic dress, not in their "Sunday best" frock-coats and silk hats. There should also be a certain forethought exercised by the Olympic Games Committee as to the special prizes; while donors have a perfect right to offer grand trophies for comparatively unimportant events, the Committee should fill up the blanks, so to speak, by providing analogous trophies for the more important events that may have been overlooked.

If all nationalities enjoyed the recent Olympic festival in the Greek capital, they cannot fail to feel a special interest in the effects of these celebrations upon the country whose guests they were. To use Swinburne's words:

"How should we lament not, if her spirit sit in prison!
How should we rejoice not, if her wreaths renew their flowers?
All the world is sweeter if the Athenian violet quicken;
All the world is brighter if the Athenian sun return."

Long centuries of cruel political vicissitudes have numbed the old athletic spirit of the Greeks: but the Olympic Games of 1896 and the princely gift of a restored Stadium by Avéroff have awakened their inherent love of athletics. The Games of 1906, while surrounding the athletic life with a still greater halo, will have another and more beneficent effect upon Greek athletics by opening the eyes of the people to the necessity of earnest, constant, and methodical training as the prime condition of success. And if the Games of 1896 called forth Avéroff's munificent liberality, those of 1906 have evoked an equally public-spirited offer, by two rich Greek merchants of Alexandria, of a great gymnastic institute at Athens, for training the Greek youth after the Swedish system and laying the foundations for a new athletic life in the classic home of athletics.

In America, athletics and athleticism have come to mean, to many people, the opposite of intellectual progress—nay, something bordering on the brutal and animal side of human nature, and hence something to be deprecated and discountenanced. That this view is not without some show of reason, as regards American athletics, cannot be denied—the climax has already been reached in college football; but all athletic life in America appears to have degenerated more or less into a mere scramble for prizes. England is perhaps the only country where the true athletic spirit of the ancient Greeks appears to have survived. With the institution of quadrennial Olympic Games on Greek soil, let us hope that the ancient Greek traditions and ideals will infuse themselves into the world's athletic life, and raise its moral tone and standards, so as to make athletics once more a great and noble power for what is good and beautiful.

D. K.

Correspondence.

DR. CRAPSEY ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, J. A. Bartholomew, in your issue of May 31, seems to have a very erroneous idea of the Crapsey trial. He asks, "What boots it whether Christ were born of a virgin or sprang from the head of Jove? His ethics are the same." Mr. Bartholomew's ethics, like Dr. Crapsey's, seem to be very hazy. He advises to let the creed stand, but to disbelieve it. That is simply to be dishonest. The second part of the Apostles' Creed contains no statement of dogma or doctrine, but asserts as facts certain occurrences which are either historically true or untrue. When Dr. Crapsey stands up in

his chancel, twice every Sunday, and in the face of God and of the congregation solemnly asserts his belief in the truth of those facts, and then, fifteen minutes afterwards, from the pulpit, tells the same congregation that those alleged facts are no facts, he is guilty of the grossest immorality, and is not fit to be a teacher of ethics in the Episcopal or any other church. He should at least qualify his statements with the words "in a Pickwickian sense."

I think it was Sydney Smith who said that Newman's Tract 90 was an ingenious argument to show how a man could hold a benefice in the Church of England while teaching all the doctrines of the Church of Rome. Dr. Crapsey seems to me to be struggling to retain his position as rector of an endowed parish while denying the creed upon which his church is built. R.

Notes.

Mr. George Haven Putnam resumes authorship with a work which his own firm will publish in the autumn, viz., 'The Censorship of the Church, and its Influence upon the Production and Distribution of Literature.' Messrs. Putnam further announce the second volume of Prof. W. A. Cooper's translation of Bielschowski's Life of Goethe, of which the MS. escaped destruction in the earthquake havoc at Leland Stanford University; and Ernest Babelon's 'Manual of Oriental Antiquities,' translated by B. T. A. Betts, of the Department of Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities at the British Museum.

The Salem (Mass.) Press Co. is nearly ready to print a bibliographic index to the literature on Massachusetts local history, in one stout volume of 600 pages, coming down to the present year. This 'Guide' has been prepared by Charles A. Flagg, head cataloguer of American history at the Library of Congress. His researches have gone into unpublished works in manuscript, and to important newspaper articles.

'The Letters of Charles Lamb,' in the charming pocket Newnes-Scribner series, embrace 273 epistles, so many to the poets (with so much of his own verse) that the little book is especially apt for the lover of verse and the student of poetic criticism to carry about and dally with in an idle hour. But the proofreading should have been better—witness the foot of page 43. Like converse will also repay in the companion volume of the 'Sacred Poems of Henry Vaughan'; and the 'Lyra Innocentium' of John Keble will have its devotees, if to a waning extent.

To the "Royal Library" of Arthur L. Humphreys, London, belong two distinguished-looking volumes, tastefully printed on a fine handmade paper in bold black type, with broad margins, in paper covers (or boards). The one, Pierre de Nolhac's 'Marie Antoinette the Queen,' an octavo, represents the historical division, while John Morley's 'Literary Essays,' a small quarto, exemplifies the belles-lettres; and there is still a third division, the ethical, of smaller dimensions and cheaper. Few publications are better fitted to be read by artificial light. Morley's Essays are on Byron, Carlyle, Macaulay, Wordsworth, and the Study of Literature.

A series of "The Great Etchers," similar in form and get-up to "The Drawings of the Great Masters," and by the same publishers (Newnes-Scribner), is initiated with the 'Etchings of Van Dyck.' The text, by Frank Newbolt, is more significant than has generally been the case in the books of the companion series, giving, in brief compass, a fair idea of the position of Van Dyck as an etcher, and of his share in each of the plates that bear his name. The reproductions are excellent, and exhibit, in several cases, different states of the same plate, so that one is enabled to see just what happened to the etchings in the hands of the engravers who took them up when Van Dyck had done with them. The only one entirely completed by the artist himself, the portrait of Vorsterman, makes us the more regret the collaboration admitted to the others, nor can we agree with Mr. Newbolt that this plate would have been finer if "all the figure below the collar had been merely indicated by a few lines," as is the case with the first state of some of the others. The brilliancy and color given by the costume are, to us, a distinct gain, while the freedom of the line is entirely in harmony with the magnificent handling of the head. Lest we should be unjust to the ability of the engravers, two or three plates are introduced to show what they could do when they were not hampered by the impossible task of reconciling their precise burin work with the play of Van Dyck's needle. There should be many people capable of appreciating fine etching, but unable to own original proofs, and to such this volume will be greatly welcome.

The publishers of the "Langham Series" (Scribners) should have secured some one to write the monograph on 'Rossetti' who knew more about art and the history of Pre-Raphaelitism than Mr. H. W. Singer. The editor's occasional note of disagreement is not sufficient to discount the blunders of the author, and the calm assumption that Rossetti was "the chief founder of the Pre-Raphaelite school," and gave it the "first impetus," is calculated to arouse once more that wrath at the world's injustice which Holman Hunt has recently vented in two mighty volumes. The little book is distinctly below the standard of the series.

Another of the ever-growing list of books whose excellent intention is the instruction of the world at large in the appreciation of art, comes to us in 'How to Look at Pictures,' by Robert Clermont Witt (Putnams). Its contents are marked by tranquil common sense. There is nothing in it which is not true, and nothing, perhaps, which may not still be novel to some part of the great public. We are willing to concede to it a probable usefulness; and, at least, it is a presentable volume with a number of reproductions of well-known pictures sufficiently well executed to be capable of giving pleasure.

There are a good many people who like to have at their command all possible sources of information in regard to the subject-matter of their recreations or their more serious avocations. Such persons, if inclined to play with gardening on a small scale, will read with interest a little volume entitled 'The Seasons in a Flower Garden,' by Louise Shelton (Scribners). The directions in this book for amateurs are not vague; on the contrary, they are rather explicit, although partaking of the general style of the information given in most good plant-catalogues. The task of preparing the soil, selecting the kinds of plants for different times of blooming, and their treatment throughout, must certainly be made easy by the care which the author has bestowed upon this unobtrusive record of her own work in the garden. It could be wished that the descriptions of the plants themselves might have been more detailed and less vague, but the information given is not misleading. The book supplements, but cannot replace, the formal garden handbooks.

We extend to William Crooke's 'Things Indian' (Scribners) a restricted welcome. The *Things* books ("Chinese" and "Japanese" began a series continued with this volume) are not altogether satisfactory. Arranged like an encyclopædia in alphabetical order, they give the effect of a torso. The little essays under each selected head are usually accurate, and as a complement to the revised *Hobson-Jobson*, of which Mr. Crooke was editor, the present 'Things' has its use. But at best such a book is a rather disjointed collection of observations, and seems more like fragments of a larger work than a complete whole. We sincerely hope the series will not be continued. In this particular case, Mr. Crooke has eked out his profound knowledge of present-day conditions with more or less superficial historical studies, and the result is not quite pleasing. Thus we find "Baid" but "Veda," though both should begin with the same letter. Under the head of "Idolatry" it is stated that the "images in Vedic times" included "one of Rudra specially mentioned," which is incorrect. Under "Irrigation," the "artificial" water supply of the Rig-Veda should be referred to. Under "Rosary" it should be said that the Buddhists borrowed the use not from "the Hindus," but from the Shiva sect. For cannibalism one has to discover what the author wishes to say under H(uman Sacrifice), without cross-reference, and then one finds no mention of the best-known cannibalism (traditionally preserved by the word Piçaca), and none of the very interesting case of commutation, (the crucifixion of a monkey substituted for a man) given separately under the head "Monkeys." Under "Horse" there is no mention of racing (Vedic and epic). Nevertheless, Mr. Crooke's volume, if one does but regard it as a complement of the 'Anglo-Indian Glossary,' is full of valuable matter, especially in all that appertains to modern India. Instead of a second edition (for which some Sanskritist should act as collaborator), it were to be desired that the work might be extended. There is real need of something less inclusive than Balfour and more complete than 'Things.' As the work now stands, it attracts more attention to its defects than to its very real excellences. Almost any one interested in anything may find something in 'Things Indian.' The student of religion will find much, the student of the drama will find a little, the student of art and custom will also be benefited. But it is pot-luck at this scrappy table. One is never sure whether the all-important sub-

ject is to be represented or not. A wider circle of subjects, more intimate acquaintance with Sanskrit literature, and Mr. Crooke's unrivalled knowledge of India as it is would produce a work of very great value.

The Asiatic Society of Japan sends forth Part II. of Volume XXXIII., containing two important articles, on Village Life in Japan, by Prof. Arthur Lloyd, and the Ten Buddhistic Virtues, by Rev. R. W. Atkinson. Before 1868, village government under the head, or mayor, was a hereditary despotism. Now, the village head is elective, but the common sense of the Japanese peasants has discarded the tumultuous and factious party methods of the first new years of freedom, and they choose their magistrates on business principles, and not on party lines. As a rule, the villager, on all social anniversaries at least, clings to the old calendar. A specimen constitution of a carpenters' guild in a village, with notices of birth, marriage, and funeral customs, is given. A Buddhist sermon preached in 1773 shows that Buddhistic and Christian ethics are very similar. The fundamental doctrine of Ingwa—cause and effect, recompense and retribution—is set forth as an immutable law of Nature and Providence, with many taking popular illustrations.

When, in 1894, by the Shimonoseki Treaty, Formosa was ceded by China to Japan, instead of easy occupation, four months of fighting were necessary. Employing 135,000 men in all services, the Japanese found resistance by the Chinese and savages, who were aided by mandarins on the mainland, more desperate than in Mantchuria, and their losses were greater. Their peaceful work having begun December 1st, 1894, the results, as tabulated in English in the bound book of 79 pages entitled 'The Progress of Taiwan (Formosa) for Ten Years, 1895-1904,' seem wonderful. Colored maps and diagrams, with statistics under fifteen heads, aid the eye. Within a coast line of a thousand miles, and on an area, including all the islands, of 58,000 square miles, there are twenty prefectures. The copper-colored aborigines, formerly head-hunters and the terror of civilized commerce, are now for the most part, like the Chinese and Japanese, in day schools. The 2,577,104 inhabitants live in 573,038 dwellings, and there are 53,365 Japanese, or 18.30 in a thousand. There are twenty-seven cities having a population of over 5,000. Taihoku is the model in cleanliness, water supply, hospital, etc. The vital statistics are very full and detailed; infectious diseases leading, those of the respiratory organs coming next, and kakké, or beri-beri, surprisingly in the rear (964 cases in 1904). Agriculture, industries, commerce, and communications show astonishing expansion. In railways, postal service, public sanitation, telegraphs, education for Japanese, natives, and aborigines, the progress is fair. Casualties from attacks of the mountain savages show steady reduction (681 in 1890 to 394 in 1900), most of the victims being Chinese natives. The revenue rose from 2,616,660 yen in 1896 to 22,338,115 yen in 1904. The statistics of penology and administration are also interesting. Gen. Kodama, who directed the strategy of the war with Russia, and was military administrator of Formosa, has been called to office in Tokio, but Dr. Goto Shimpei continues as civil governor.

We remark in the April number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* "The Masonic Chronology of Benjamin Franklin," compiled by Julius F. Sachse, and Mr. Charles Henry Hart's call for a search for the Franklin family portraits, indicated in several extracts from the correspondence. Also, the certification of the burial-place of the novelist, Charles Brockden Brown, in the Friends' Burial-Ground, Arch and Fourth Streets, Philadelphia (the mound now obliterated); and a local item of July 24, 1825, in the same city, recording the imposition of a fine of 67 cents on one John Walker, "for firing of a cracker or Squib on this day on the Publick Street"—a most commendable precedent.

Interest in education in England at the present time is not confined to the subjects treated in the bill now before Parliament. What is and what is not suitable for the reading of children is a question which has recently been decided by the London County Council. It has revised the list of books to be given as prizes to the pupils of the public elementary schools, and among the books to be removed as not proper for the perusal of children are 'Hypatia,' 'Pendennis,' 'Romola,' 'Dombey and Son,' and 'Great Expectations.' To the revised list have been added 'Little Women' and 'What Katy Did,' a noteworthy tribute to American authors. A writer in the *Guardian*, while regretting that the works of Kingsley and Dickens should give place to those of Miss Alcott and "Susan Coolidge," believes that the replacing of 'Romola' by the 'Rose-colored 'Bus' will be hard on the rising generation.

The "Waldschulen" are a new educational experiment now making in Germany, on the progress of which there was a very favorable report at the recent convention of the Berlin Vaterländischer Frauenverein, under whose auspices the innovation has been introduced. The purpose is to provide in the woods, under proper medical and hygienic care, schools and homes for children physically not in a condition to attend the public schools. The first school of this kind was started in the West End of Charlottenburg in August, 1904, and this school alone now numbers 240 pupils. The selection of the children is made by the regular public-school physicians; and the course of study, which is not quite as heavy as that of the ordinary schools, is also determined under the supervision of medical men. The report states that, both from a sanitary and a pedagogical point of view, the experiment is an entire success, as the first year showed a remarkable improvement in the health of 62 per cent. of the children, and 25 per cent. could be declared perfectly cured. The children on the average gained 8½ pounds each last summer. The total cost of the Charlottenburg school for the six months' course was 17,000 marks. The movement is spreading into other parts of Germany, but not extensively as yet.

In the Leipzig *Daheim*, No. 29, we find an instructive and finely illustrated article on the recent first international bookbinders' exhibition held in Frankfort. In the article accompanying the illustrations the writer states that this is the outcome of a movement traceable no further back than 1895; further, that, in view of the exhibits at Frankfort, the Germans must confess that both the French and the English have done superior artistic work in binding, and must take a lesson from them. Germany had nothing to show that could be called a "Meisterwerk."

The Germans are to make another and more determined attempt to erect a monument to Heine, this time under the auspices of the Hamburg Literarische Gesellschaft, consisting chiefly of representatives of literature and the theatre. An appeal for funds has been published, which is signed also by the three presidents of the corporation, prominent merchants, and other representative men.

The *Tribuna* of Rome reports that in the near future a geographical mission will go out from that city to Tripolis, with a view to making exact geographical researches in the latter region.

On the 30th of August of the coming year it will be fifty years since the first railroad was opened for business in the Argentine Republic. The Government has decided to celebrate the anniversary by an International Railroad Exposition in Buenos Aires, to be opened on the date mentioned.

—Secretary Trueblood, of the American Peace Society, writes in the June *Atlantic* of the Hague Conference and the future of arbitration. The fact that the armaments of the great Powers are larger and more burdensome than ever, should not blind our eyes to the fact that the vast majority of international disputes are no longer settled by these armaments, but by arbitration, which will soon begin to make inroads on the armaments themselves as it has already done on their use. For the coming conference Mr. Trueblood expresses the earnest hope that it "will not be allowed to degenerate into a sort of war congress for the mere regulation of campaigns and battles, of the kind of bullets and explosives which armies and navies may use in the killing of men and other similar details of the barbarous art of fighting." Prof. T. N. Carver of Harvard discusses possible methods for the distribution of wealth, showing the advantages of that which is based upon a free field for individual effort, acting under an adequate legal guarantee of equality of opportunity. Of course, this involves the prohibition of methods of competition not based on service rendered, but on such unfair and underhand advantages as have been brought to the attention of the public by the discussion of the relation of railway discriminations to the building up of some of the great monopolies of the present time. Arthur Symons contributes a critical paper on Landor as a poet, arriving at the conclusion that one must go to his prose rather than his verse for his most sincere feeling, though the best things in his prose are due primarily to the fact that his genius is essentially that of the poet. In either medium, however, his relation to his subjects is always external. "No one in prose or in verse has written more finely about things; but he writes *about* them, he does not write them."

—The best things in *Scribner's* are of a light and interesting type, in harmony

with the approach of the vacation season. Louise Imogen Guiney, in a sprightly little essay, penetrates the barriers of the alleged "English reserve" only to find that the fortress has long since been deserted. "The average Englishman, certainly, is still; and he is so not because he is a paragon of restraint, but because spiritual inertness is the basis of his being." The real life which Englishmen have been superstitiously regarded as holding in careful reserve, slipped off to America with the early emigrants, and when it does occasionally appear in the old home it is in the breast of the bare-headed Virginian or New Englander, "talking and sparkling in a London gallery full of sepulchral hats and monocles." Life can exist but as it expresses itself, and the only hope that still remains to our English cousins is to develop what vital germs remain to them by casting off the empty shell of reserve and cultivating the fruitful habit of self-expression. The editor discusses in a half-humorous but seriously suggestive vein the circus element in American drama. As with the circus which Barnum devised and perfected decades ago, the underlying motive in the contemporary drama is the doing of amazing "stunts." The society play exhibits the dauntless American maiden doing the social "limit" unscathed, and received finally into the waiting arms of some good American, after the lairs of a foreign nobility and the cunning devices of a complex social code have been passed in safety. Another series of Mr. Curtis's Indian photographs is presented, dealing with the tribes of the Northwest plains. The tints used in reproduction have been brightened considerably, as compared with those of the May number, but we do not feel that the change is an improvement. There is room for still further experiment if the remarkable work of Mr. Curtis with his camera is to be presented to the public in its most effective guise.

—The second volume of Dr. Elroy M. Avery's 'History of the United States' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) maintains in general the level of its predecessor, and in some important respects shows improvement. There is the same skilful choice of incident and the same orderly arrangement of topics. The literary style, while still at times exuberant and overdone, is better, though rigorous pruning is still necessary if this ambitious work is to rank as a successful literary performance. The numerous illustrations are admirably chosen and, as a rule, finely executed, though some of the portraits are poor. The maps cannot be too highly praised. In short, so far as mechanism and apparatus are concerned, the volume is a notable piece of book-making; and the text, notwithstanding its literary shortcomings, is certainly readable. The period covered by the volume—substantially the first sixty years of the seventeenth century—does not admit of much novelty in arrangement or treatment in a popular work; and one can only hope that Dr. Avery's success in dealing with comparatively simple situations may not forsake him when he comes to more complicated happenings. The text shows, as a whole, unusual accuracy, though a few errors, some of them not easily explicable, have crept in. The statement, for example, that "the transition from the proprietary and corporate colony to the royal province is one of the most characteristic features" in the period covered by the volume (p. 31), is of course true, not of the period before 1660, but of the period after that date. The omission of any account of Cromwell's colonial policy from the otherwise important chapter on "The Evolution of a Colonial System" is singular; and the indication of the party positions in the conflict in Maryland, in 1653-55, is both confused and misleading. Berkeley could not have been a Carolina proprietor in April, 1661 (p. 194); and Virginia did not hold all her territorial claims under the charters of 1609 and 1612 until 1788 (p. 53), but until 1784, when the western lands were ceded. Special mention should be made of the notes accompanying the list of illustrations. We wish that the author would not assert his theories of historical writing so stridently in his preface; it adds nothing to the value of his book, and the theories themselves are neither novel nor illuminating. This 'History,' like every other, must speak for itself, whatever the author may think about it; and we are glad to see that it is, on the whole, speaking very well.

—The alphabet has been kind to the two final volumes of the 'Jewish Encyclopædia' (Funk & Wagnalls Co.), and has enabled it to close in not only characteristic picturesqueness, but also definite value. Besides the general mass of journeyman and even apprentice articles, biographical, geographical, Biblical, ritual, and antiquarian, the following stand out: French Sanhedrin, the Jewish high court convened by Napoleon to determine whether Judaism created an *imperium in imperio;* Saul of Tarsus, a very queer document, in which the extremest conclusions of Van Manen are pressed into Jewish service; Scroll of the Law, which shows several excellent illustrations, and Seals, which has a long series of most suggestive impressions. Shabbethai Zebi gives an account of the external events only of the life of that extraordinary claimant of the Messiahship—his cabalistic basis might have been dealt with; Spain has a long article of melancholy reading, as indeed are almost all the local histories; on Spinoza there is also a long and readable article well illustrated (the frontispiece of the volume is from a portrait painted by Wallerant Vaillant); Statistics gives elaborate details on Jewish population; on Synagogue there are twenty pages well illustrated; a compound article, almost twice as long, deals with Talmud. Temple, Title-page, Tombs, Typography are full and most strikingly illustrated; inserted in the last is Steinschneider's list of printers in a shortened form, but still filling fourteen pages; of countries, Turkey and the United States are naturally most detailed. The last prominent articles, except for a five-page biography of Zunz, are suitably those on Zionism, and on the cabalistic theosophy of the 'Zohar'—a dream of the future and dreams of the past for a people whose national existence has been and must be so much a dream. One dream realized, however, is this completed encyclopædia; on it we extend our congratulations to editors and publishers.

—It had been the intention of Count de Castries to write a history of Morocco, for which, at first sight, the bibliographies on that country suggested an ample accumulation of accessible material. But he soon found that the bibliographies failed him, and that essential material was still in MS. Yet "history," he quotes from Mark Pattison, "cannot be written from manuscripts." This comes close to saying that history cannot be written at all; to have to print a *corpus* of documents before writing a history, would mean that none but millionaires could write history. Such a Moroccan thesaurus, however, he has now attempted under the title 'Les Sources Inédites de l'Histoire du Maroc de 1530 à 1845' (Paris: Ernest Leroux, Vol. I., pp. xvi., 684). His period and his collection he has divided into three: the Sa'dite dynasty, 1530-1660, and the Filalite, 1660-1757 and 1757-1845. The documents are classified in each of these divisions according to the countries where they are found, the present volume embracing the first half of those in the French archives and libraries bearing on the Sa'dite dynasty, and extending to the fatal defeat of the Portuguese at el-Qasr el-Kabir, in 1578, when Sebastian vanished in the rout like James IV. at Flodden, leaving strange tales, and Morocco was freed for three hundred years. That great event balanced Lepanto in one way, and supplemented it in another. The European attack on north Africa was checked, and Portugal fell to Spain till 1640. Almost half the volume is given to narratives of it; it is probably the one battle on Moroccan soil which all European date-books give. If this series, then, is carried out, it will be possible for the first time to write its story and learn how Portugal finally collapsed after its golden century.

—Except for the apparently unavoidable but practically most cumbrous division of documents according to their present habitat, Count de Castries's plan seems excellent. The documents are given with diplomatic exactness, accompanied by French translations when Arabic or Dutch—some might have preferred translations of the Portuguese papers. There are sufficient introductions, abstracts, and notes. The rendering of Oriental names is a sore subject everywhere, and the editor here is at least intelligible. He has added a full equipment of maps, tables of dynasties, and a facsimile of a Moorish letter, palæographically interesting. But it is not only the Arabist or the student of Morocco who will find his interest here. Every browser in sixteenth-century history of the broadest will almost certainly be able to pick out his plum. Morocco was no hermit country then; threads from it ran through all Europe. Elizabeth of England was in correspondence with its princes, and Francis I. in treaty. Sir Thomas Stukeley, gentleman of Devon, Marquis of Leinster, Duke of Ireland, what not, ended his checkered career fighting beside Sebastian, and George Peele celebrated him in his "Battle of Alcazar." That the volumes of this thesaurus may increase must be the prayer of every student of history.

—One wonders if the figures some writers

have given us showing a marvellously low percentage of disease in the Japanese army have really been accurately compiled, or at least if they are comprehensive of all diseases, when he reads the preliminary report of Dr. Maxmilian Herzog, a Philippine Government pathologist who was sent to Japan to study beri-beri in the military hospitals. He says that "the total number of cases of beri-beri which developed in the Japanese army during this period [beginning of war to end of 1905] is to be placed at a minimum of from 75,000 to 80,000." He was sent to Japan when reports of the spread of beri-beri in the Japanese army in Mantchuria reached the Philippines, where this disease is quite common; though not so common as in some other parts of the tropical and sub-tropical Orient. He himself credits the Japanese medical corps with having succeeded in preventing any serious outbreak of typhoid, typhus, dysentery, or scorbutus, and having prevented entirely the appearance of cholera and plague in the rank and file of their fighting forces. Beri-beri, however, gave them a serious problem by the end of 1904, as the hospital figures indicate; soldiers incapacitated by this disease being sent home in increasing numbers during late 1904 and early 1905 "to so great an extent that probably no outside observer, during the progress of the war, had any conception of it." Dr. Herzog gives tables showing, during 1904, 50,340 cases developed in the field, of which 1,024 died, while 3,337 cases developed among soldiers in Japan, 44 dying.

—Dr. Herzog says, however, that it would be "a great injustice to blame the Japanese army medical corps for this great epidemic. . . . Beri-beri is a disease the etiology of which is ill understood at the present time. We neither know its specific cause, nor by what route the specific poison, whatever it may be, enters the body. It is a well-known fact that, given certain conditions, no ordinary means of hygiene and sanitation will prevent the outbreak and spreading of beri-beri. Such conditions are encountered in a particularly susceptible race, especially when they are crowded together, and in certain localities. When these factors are present, nothing less than the abandonment of the locality which is apparently infected and the dispersion of the susceptible individuals will prevent the continual spreading of the disease. Of course, such measures as these could not be very well resorted to in the case of an army in the field and in the presence of the enemy. To repeat, given certain environments and certain compulsory conditions, *kakke* (beri-beri's Japanese name), in the present state of our knowledge; cannot be considered to be a preventable disease." Several of the Japanese doctors now believe they have segregated from the blood and urine of patients the specific micro-organism which produces beri-beri, and Dr. Herzog's experiments with them were in part corroborative. It is interesting to note that, "in the Japanese military service, autopsies can be held only after special permission from the family of the dead person is received, and this permission is only very rarely given." This preliminary report of Dr. Herzog is published in the second number (that for February last) of the new *Philippine Journal of Science*, published by the Bureau of Science at Manila.

HENRY SIDGWICK.

Henry Sidgwick: A Memoir. By A. S. and E. M. S. Macmillan Co. 1906.

The authors of this biography of Sidgwick—his brother and widow—have considered that their object would be best attained by a narrative largely consisting of extracts from his own letters. These letters, they think, sufficiently resemble his talk to bring his personality vividly before those who knew him, and in some measure before readers who never saw him. As to the latter class, we fear that the object has been but imperfectly attained; and for the reason that the letters, as here given, do not sufficiently resemble his talk. That this was incomparably delightful appears from the testimony of many witnesses of the highest competency. So much cannot be said of the letters as a whole. Many of them are not greatly above the level of ordinary epistolary communications, and many disclose little of what was actually going on in their author's life. Thus, to take a wife is, even for a philosopher, an important transaction. He cannot be supposed to be quite superior to the feverish condition known as falling in love; some degree of emotional excitement is implied in forming the union. Without indelicacy, it would seem possible to intimate that the thought of entering the matrimonial state occupied more than a momentary interval of time, and gave rise to some serious reflections. Yet the matter is dismissed in a few lines, and, so far as we are told, involved no more attention than is commonly given to the selection of a wall-paper.

We are far from insisting that it is the duty of a biographer to give particulars concerning relations which refined people regard as having a sacred privacy. On the contrary, it seems more dignified to say as little as possible about them. But, if this course be adopted, it is not easy to bring a personality vividly before readers—too much has to be left out; and, in Sidgwick's case, as nothing was more conspicuous than his scrupulous, even fastidious, regard for the feelings of others, so his biographers have omitted from his letters every sentence, every word even, that might wound a living soul. How much this means we cannot tell; but it probably means a good deal. A man keenly alive to the humorous, possessing a most alert and subtle wit, in constant attrition with people who incessantly maintained irrational and contradictory propositions as sacred truths, must have freed his mind to his friends in language that gladdened their hearts. Again, we do not contend that such things should be repeated. They cannot be repeated in a memoir that appears immediately after death; but if they are not repeated, the personality must lose in vividness.

We hasten to say that these strictures apply in the main to the first third of the book, covering Sidgwick's life till he was some thirty years old. A good deal might have been omitted here, and the book thereby improved, for the interest of these early years is not so great as to demand this disproportionate treatment. When the biographers adopt the narrative form, they succeed admirably, and the later letters tell us far more of the thought and achievement of the man than the earlier ones. During his later years, too, Sidgwick kept a journal, intermittently enough, it is true, but it is of the greatest value as showing what was really in his mind and nearest his heart. Here, again, we are helped by an occasional letter addressed to him, and by the posthumous estimates of his friends. From these materials it is possible to obtain a pretty complete knowledge of the man, as a philosopher and as a citizen. We can hardly say so much of what we learn of him as an educator or as an organizer. His influence upon the higher education of women must have been very great, but it is not easy to estimate it properly from what we are here told. We know that he gave generously to Newnham College; generously of his money, and even more of his time and energy. We know that the results were gratifying, that the success was even splendid. But just how it was brought about is not so clear as we should like to have it; and the same is true to some extent of his relations to his own college and university.

These, however, are comparatively unimportant particulars. We have enough evidence before us, in Sidgwick's writings and in what is here told, to enable us to understand his character. He was a man of singular, almost superhuman, perfection. With himself and with his friends he was absolutely candid; with others his candor was limited only by his courtesy. He had the experience common to educated Englishmen of the last generation, when the new wine of free discussion was put into the old bottles of religious orthodoxy. To discard the creed in which one has been nurtured, which has entwined itself with the very heartstrings, which is sanctified by the sweetest associations, and which satisfies the most sacred longings, is not easy. It is easier for most people to avoid the struggle, and many consider it right not to disclose their loss of faith. Nothing of the kind was possible for Sidgwick, although we find no evidence that he suffered the agony of which we know so many pathetic instances. But the process was peculiar. For many years—his only wasted time—he strove to find some basis for the Christian religion in the study of Arabic and Hebrew. This quest failing, he turned to the investigation of the phenomena of what we call spiritualism; not, in this case, altogether unprofitably.

The motive for this inquiry was in some sense twofold. As a man he longed, as mankind has always longed, and perhaps always will, to find some empirical evidence for immortality. When he was at last convinced—not till he was nearly fifty—that no such evidence existed, the crisis was a serious one. He had been inclined, with Kant, to "*postulate* the continued existence of the soul, in order to effect that harmony of Duty with Happiness" which seemed to him indispensable to rational moral life. He could not comprehend the state of mind of those who, like his friend J. A. Symonds, do not *desire* the continuance of their personal being; but he was even more affected as a moralist than as a man.

We must quote a few lines to explain his position:

"If I decide that this search [for empirical evidence] is a failure, shall I finally and decisively make this postulate? Can I, consistently with my whole view of truth and the method of its attainment? And if

I answer 'No' to each of these questions, have I any ethical system at all? And if not, can I continue to be professor and absorb myself in the mere erudition of the subject? . . . I have mixed up the personal and general questions because every speculation of this kind ends, with me, in a practical problem, 'What is to be done here and now?' That is a question which I must answer; whereas as to the riddle of the universe—I never had the presumption to hope that its solution was reserved for me, though I had to try."

Perhaps we should explain his position more fully. He had aimed to establish morality not "somehow," but logically, as a reasoned system, and he had argued that this could not be done if we were limited to merely mundane sanctions, owing to the inevitable divergence between the individual's duty and his happiness. If empirical proof failed, did any rational basis remain? The only basis, at all events, was the demand of the soul, the inextinguishable hope, so nobly expressed by Tennyson in the lines beginning—

"If e'en when faith had fallen asleep,"

which Sidgwick could never read without tears. In them he felt "the indestructible and inalienable minimum of faith which humanity cannot give up because it is necessary for life; and which I know that I, at least so far as the man in me is deeper than the methodical thinker, cannot give up."

Such degree of faith he retained, holding the beliefs in God and immortality to be vital to human wellbeing, and though not demonstrable, still not irrational. The Christian religion was another matter, and while he came to regard it as, from a sociological point of view, indispensable and irreplaceable, his intellectual alienation from it was strong. At the same time his relations with many of the clergy were most intimate, and nothing could be more genuine than the affectionate testimony of these friends to his admirable character. We cannot resist quoting a few words from a sermon preached at Trinity College by Bishop Westcott:

"Hope born in a time of doubt from an unfaltering belief in the reality of truth was, I think, one of the most conspicuous features in Professor Sidgwick's nature. Great in range and exactness of knowledge, great in subtlety of analysis, great in power of criticism, he was still greater in character. He offered the highest type of a seeker after truth, more anxious to understand an opponent's argument than to refute him; watchful lest any element in a discussion should be left unnoticed; patient, reverent, ready to the last to welcome light from any quarter; a champion always of things just, and pure, and lovely."

We might well close with this tribute, but it seems desirable to say a word concerning some misconceptions of Sidgwick's character and his method. Prof. Alfred Marshall sneered at him because he had but a handful of men in his lecture room, while T. H. Green drew a crowd. This led Sidgwick to enter in his journal his own view of his failure to attract men on a large scale. He applied to himself Bagehot's comment on Clough—whom in many respects he resembled: "He saw what it is considered cynical to see—the absurdities of many persons, the pomposities of many creeds, the splendid zeal with which missionaries rush on to teach what they do not know; the wonderful earnestness with which most incomplete solutions of the universe are thrust upon us as complete and satisfying." Feeling that the deepest truth he had to tell was by no means "good tidings," he shrank from exercising on others the personal influence which would make them like him as much as they might men more optimistic, who aimed at exercising such influence. Hence as a teacher he desired to limit his teaching to those whose bent or deliberate choice it was to search after ultimate truth, and to these he tried to tell all he knew; as to others, he wished to train their faculties without guiding their judgment. He neither would nor could say anything which would make his philosophy popular.

Man, as Dean Swift said, is not a rational animal, but at most only *capax rationis*. One who, like Sidgwick, will teach nothing as truth unless it is supported by reason or is not in conflict with it, can have few disciples. One who, like him, will do nothing that reason does not justify or at least not condemn, will seem to the world to waste himself in subtleties. The thought and the life of most men are almost wholly unrational; their acts are the result of feeling, of prejudice, of habit and custom, and they have little patience with the few who never do anything without consulting reason and conscience. Doubter or not, few men have done more enduring work in philosophy than Sidgwick, and his 'Methods of Ethics' will remain the final word on the fundamentals of that science. His own criticism of his work and his doctrine brings out the paradox that makes his personality so fascinating. Morality, as he taught, cannot subsist rationally without some supernatural basis; yet he, who was compelled to abandon the basis on which most men build, was the incarnation of exalted morality. His modest words of parting—commending to the love of God with silent prayer the soul of a sinful man who partly tried to do his duty—point to the solution of the paradox. Religions may come and go, but the moral law endures like the starry heaven; and, with or without the sanction of reason, men will continue to try to do their duty.

COLLINS'S STUDIES IN POETRY AND CRITICISM.

Studies in Poetry and Criticism. By John Churton Collins. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. 1905.

It is about five years since the *Ephemera Critica*, 'Plain Truths about Current Literature,' shook the complacency of certain of those whom Mr. Churton Collins sarcastically called "Our Literary Guides." At least, it must have been nervous work for Messrs. Le Gallienne and Saintsbury and Gosse and W. M. Rossetti—to put together for the moment names which represent far from equal values for the student of literature—to have to encounter the remorseless evidence of their lack of care or lack of scholarship which Mr. Collins showed up with equal gusto and accuracy. We doubt whether the slashing Quarterlies in the days of their tyranny were ever quite so destructive as Mr. Collins. They usually damned their victims for modes of expression, their criticisms were chiefly æsthetic, and the writer, if he had any backbone, was able to retort the *J'ai plus de goût que vous*, which a Frenchman has called the last word of æstheticism. But when Mr. Collins goes forth to the chase, his game is not so much the author as the critic. He is the critic's critic, a second Aristarchus, and very few modern critics have sufficient training to pass his examination in the matter of scholarship.

In the present volume we have him in a milder mood. "The lion smiles," as a scholiast said of Thucydides when, for the moment, the great historian had come down to his level and could be understood. No sensitive writer need fear to read these essays, though perhaps Prof. Rhys Roberts may suffer a slight pang when he finds that Mr. Collins has devoted the one appendix in the book to pointing out a few errors of scholarship in the well-known edition of Longinus. The seven essays are not exactly book reviews, though most of them were inspired by issues of editions of books. They are rather independent expressions of the very valuable views of Mr. Collins—the impeccable views we had almost said, for he is a rare case of a critic clothed in the armor of sound and wide erudition.

It is all the more pleasing to find him refraining from the vindictive manner. The studies here collected are not, we are informed in the preface, merely reprints, though all save one have appeared in print before. They have been enlarged and revised, and in any case will now appeal to a circle of readers who will always instinctively prefer to have their literary criticism, when it is not ephemeral, in book form. The articles on "The Poetry and Poets of America," which first appeared in the *North American Review*, were, we believe, the first just and not patronizing estimate of American poetry that ever came at any such length from an English pen. They should have some effect on the American anthologists of the future, partly in making them more reserved, more cautious to select only the best, since a 'Meleager's Garland' is worth more than a 'Palatine Anthology.'

The essay on the thirteen-volume edition of Byron published by Murray under the editorship of Prothero and Coleridge may wound the feelings of Byron's admirers—those at any rate who see their Byron through Matthew Arnold's eyes. Arnold made Swinburne's fine phrase, "the splendid and imperishable excellence of sincerity and strength," the keynote of his essay which prefaced his selections from Byron. Where he dwelt on the poet's nours of sincerity, Mr. Collins emphasizes his insincerity, the note of falsetto. Arnold took Byron's word for it that he habitually wrote in haste, and with none of the patient labor that the true artist bestows on his work. Scott's truly Philistine saying that Byron "manages his pen with the careless and negligent ease of a man of quality"—words which poor Byron would have accepted complacently—Arnold turned against him as evidence of artistic inferiority. But since Arnold's day we have the more complete revelations of the Journals and Letters, and we find, as Mr. Collins points out at some length, that Byron's morbid anxiety that the public should believe that he composed without effort or deliberation was simply a pose. His shipwreck in 'Don Juan,' for instance, "constructed out of passages dovetailed from Dalzell's 'Shipwrecks and Disasters at Sea,'

Hartford's 'Remarkable Shipwrecks,' Bligh's 'Narrative of the Mutiny of the *Bounty*,' and his own grandfather's 'Narrative,' shows to what patient drudgery Byron could sometimes submit." Mr. Collins adds still more to Mr. Coleridge's notes on this part of the poem to illustrate Byron's indebtedness, and adds: "It would indeed be quite impossible to exceed the scrupulous particularity with which, even to the most trifling minutiæ, Byron has drawn on these narratives, owing literally nothing to invention." Drudging industry is a characteristic which was wholly alien to Arnold's famous portrait of Byron, and his essay loses much of its value in view of the notes of Prothero and Coleridge. This is a fact which Mr. Collins does not point out, but it will occur to any of his readers who may be familiar with Arnold's preface.

We may carry the comparison of Arnold and Collins still further. The former places Shelley's poetry far below Byron's, and thought that the " 'Essays and Letters' of Shelley would finally come to stand higher than his poetry." But the estimate of Mr. Collins allows Byron no ear, no "music in his soul," no repose, harmony, balance, or measure. He explains Goethe's extravagant praise, which ranked Byron next to Shakspere, as partly due to the fact that Byron appealed to Europe rather than to England; "he is the laureate of the scenery of the Continent, the rhapsodist of its traditions, the student and painter of almost every phase of its many-sided life," while his flaws and limitations are not so likely to be detected by readers not of his own nation. And he is not to be placed, as Arnold placed him, in the first rank of English poets; at least five names must precede his, and that Arnold would never have admitted.

Mr. Collins devotes two essays to a panegyric of Mr. William Watson and the late Gerald Massey. The former is a poet whom all esteem, but few read—*laudatur et alget.* He has never taken hold on the English public, you never hear a single verse of his poetry quoted, and we doubt whether, in spite of Mr. Collins, this state of things will change and Mr. Watson receive due recognition. Mr. Collins thinks that there are "more elements of permanence in Watson's poems than in those of any of his present contemporaries." He goes on to say that Mr. Swinburne will have more to fear from sifting time. But, for all his "enthusiasm without wisdom and æstheticism without ethics and spirituality," Swinburne is *known.* His verses haunt men's ears and refuse to be forgotten. The highly respected Mr. Watson is a name. We defy any half-dozen general readers in any company to quote off-hand six verses from his poems. The gift of making people read your poetry and desire not to forget it, has never been his.

Gerald Massey is another mediocre poet, of golden mediocrity, no doubt, but one whom no praise, however judicious, can resuscitate, because in his own day his poetry never truly lived. He was the son of a canal boatman, and his childhood was spent in grinding poverty, first as a child slave in a factory, then, in the early forties, as an errand boy in the streets of London. He is perhaps best known today as the original of 'Felix Holt.' He became a Chartist editor and poet, and for the rest of his struggling life managed to exist by his pen. Landor discovered his merits more than half a century ago, but even his enthusiastic praise did not convince the English reader that here was poetry he could not do without. Miss Hain Friswell, in her 'In the Sixties and Seventies,' which has just appeared, gives an interesting portrait of poor Massey, whose daughter was her schoolfellow. Mrs. Massey was a clairvoyant, and went through life in a sort of trance, led about by her husband, who treated her as a child. The whole scene, as Miss Friswell describes the visit of the Masseys to her school, is most pathetic, and reveals a side of Massey omitted from Mr. Collins's study.

The sixth essay, on 'Longinus and Greek Criticism,' is a valuable contribution to the study of Longinus, and should be in a collection of classical studies such as will no doubt one day be made from the writings of Mr. Collins. He goes thoroughly into the question of the authorship of the 'On the Sublime,' and thus supplies a distinct lack in the edition of Prof. Rhys Roberts. The world of classical philology lost much when Mr. Collins diverted his great critical gifts and knowledge of the classics to the field of general criticism. He belongs to the vanishing race of scholarly critics who reject all purely æsthetic criticism as waste of words, and insist always, as Arnold insisted, on some principle that shall lift literary criticism out of the regions of vague chatter to the level of philosophic work.

Impeccable in scholarship, Mr. Collins has not in this volume avoided one or two minor slips of style, probably due to careless proof-reading. On page 120 we find cacophanies for cacophonies; page 230, Gorgias of Leontium for Leontini; page 224, "the last century A. D.," a date that has not yet been reached, is assigned as the period of the composition of the 'On the Sublime'; on page 133 we find a rare thing with Mr. Collins, a sentence that defies grammatical analysis: "As fastidious an artist as Petrarch and Milton, as Gray and Tennyson, it might have been expected that much of what is familiar to us in the old texts would disappear." This seems to be a horrible case of the nominative absolute.

MUSICAL BIOGRAPHIES AND OTHER BOOKS.

Brahms. By J. Lawrence Erb. E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Life of Johannes Brahms. By Florence May. In two volumes. London: Edward Arnold.

Theodor Leschetizky. By Annette Hullah. John Lane.

Life and Letters of Chopin. By Moritz Karasowski. Scribners.

The Story of Organ Music. By C. F. Abdy Williams. Scribners.

College Songs. Compiled by H. R. Waite. Oliver Ditson Co.

Twenty Songs by Stephen C. Foster. Oliver Ditson Co.

Deutsches Liederbuch für Amerikanische Studenten. Boston: D. C. Heath Co.

Biographies of Brahms are in vogue; three of them have appeared within the last few months. The most useful of these, for the general reader, is Erb's, which contains within less than two hundred pages an excellent résumé of the important facts in the composer's career, the genesis of his works, and critical opinions for and against them; nor does the author omit the best anecdotes illustrating his hero's wit—a rather caustic wit for the most part, it must be admitted. For summer reading nothing could be better than this book.

Much more elaborate, yet no less edifying, is Florence May's biography of the same master. It gains much in interest from the fact that the writer was for a considerable time a pupil of Brahms, and is, therefore, able to describe him at first hand. Her personal recollections take up the first forty-four pages of Volume I. She declares that, after a few weeks of work with him, her hands had completely changed, having lost their angular appearance, while the knuckles seemed to be disappearing. She had many opportunities to hear Brahms himself play. He was particularly fond of Schubert, whose longest pieces he found none too long; and Bach, whose music he did not believe should be played in a simply flowing style. "In the movements of the suites he liked variety of tone and touch, as well as a certain elasticity of tempo," and in suspensions he gave the fullest possible effect to the dissonance. In playing the other old masters —Scarlatti, Mozart, etc.—also, he "did not hesitate to avail himself of such resources of the modern pianoforte as he felt helped impart" the true spirit. Sometimes he played enchantingly, on other days quite the reverse; and, as years went by, his touch became hard and his technique insufficient. His disposition, too, became rougher. While the writer always found him kind and simple, "his manners were described with unanimity, by those not within his immediate circle, as difficult, sarcastic, and arrogant." He abhorred Berlioz, Liszt, and most of the modern masters, but not Wagner. For him "he had a respect amounting almost to veneration." He had studied his scores exhaustively, and used to call himself "the best of all Wagnerians." For readers of Max Kalbeck's 'Life of Brahms' there is not much that is entirely new in the bulk of Miss May's pages; but, pending the translation of that exhaustive work, American admirers will find here the most complete accessible depository of Brahms lore.

Theodor Leschetizky is the subject of the latest volume in the "Living Masters of Music" series. He is one of the "grand old men" in music, having been born seventy-six years ago; sixty-two years ago he began to teach, and teaching is still his daily occupation. He has long been the most popular piano teacher in Europe, and the "Leschetizky method" is a daily topic of conversation among musicians. Our author devotes a chapter to it, although she admits that "to describe a pianoforte method by the pen does as much good to the pianist as the 'Absent Treatment' of a Christian Scientist does to his patient." Example is what is needed: "Nearly everyone can do something well if told exactly what to do." Nothing gives Leschetizky greater satisfaction than to find the remedy for some unusual defect. In the chapters

on "The Lessons" and "The Class," there is much to interest and benefit all students of the piano. For them, indeed, no book more attractive and helpful has been issued since Miss Amy Fay's 'Music Study in Germany.' Like that, also, it is full of anecdotes and personal touches. One of the illustrations is a group of Leschetizky pupils, among whom is one of the daughters of Mark Twain.

Before the appearance of Niecks's Life of Chopin, the most elaborate work on this composer was that by his countryman, Karasowski, which appeared in 1877, and was soon followed by a second, revised and augmented, edition. An English translation, by Emily Hill, based on this second edition, appeared in 1879; it has been out of print for some time, and the new edition will therefore be welcomed by lovers of the greatest of the pianoforte composers. It contains many letters of Chopin, and is eminently readable.

Three years ago, 'The Story of the Organ,' by Abdy Williams, was issued. The same author now adds one equally admirable complementary volume, on organ music, which cannot be commended too highly to all organists. It is the product of a scholar who knows how to write clearly, and an expert who is bubbling over with information. Italian organ music receives attention first, and France, Spain, and England obtain their share; but Germany is naturally treated at greatest length, the author being convinced that "the history of organ music all revolves round one gigantic personality, J. S. Bach; for the earlier compositions of Italy, Germany, and England seem almost to have only existed in order to make his possible, and since him no organ composer of any eminence has existed who has not been largely influenced by him."

Many others besides students will welcome the new and enlarged edition of Mr. Waite's 'College Songs,' which is one of the best in the market. Equally welcome to thousands will be the collection of Foster's best songs—which are more and more being regarded as true American folksongs, equal to any that Europe can boast. If Foster's harmonic sense had been as keen as his melodic gift, America might have had its Schubert long ago. The editor has revised the accompaniments to adapt them to the modern pianoforte. The songs contained in the 'Deutsches Liederbuch' were compiled from the best German sources, with good judgment. It is intended to be a happy mean between a 'Volksliederbuch' and a 'Commersbuch.' From German collections of student songs, the present one differs in that, of the 95 songs included, no fewer than 73 are arranged for mixed chorus, in view of the fact that most Western colleges are coeducational.

Ancient Legends of Roman History. By Ettore Pais. Translated by Mario E. Cosenza. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1905.

The discovery of very early remains in the Roman Forum, linked in a remarkable way with stories of old Rome handed down by such writers as Varro and Dionysius, has started afresh the slumbering controversy as to the authenticity of early Roman history. On the one side stand those who carry Roman history back into the days of the kings, and who believe that there is a basis of historical fact for the familiar legends. On the other side is the critical school tracing its lineage to Lorenzo Valla and Beaufort, recalling Niebuhr and his folklore theory, Schwegler with his ætiological myths, and in recent days Mommsen, finding in these discredited stories elements of a constitutional character which he accepts as reliable. A mistaken idea as to patriotism has for many years led to the falsification of Roman history. Livy found with disgust that the ancient annalists were unreliable. Ligorio and Pratilli dishonored Campanian epigraphy by their forgeries. In Italy to-day political ambition and personal aims and interests interfere with the complete and scientific study of the remarkable discoveries of recent years. Ignorance and dishonesty offer inaccuracies and misrepresentations to the learned world. We are pleased to find among Italian scholars an earnest champion of the truth. Prof. Ettore Pais was trained under German influence, was a pupil and intimate friend of Mommsen, and, being a thorough scholar possessing a love for truth which rises superior to his affection for his native land, he has become a leader in the critical school of Roman historians. We are already indebted to him for his 'Storia di Roma,' which has done much to dispel the mists of romance and tradition. He has, however, aroused violent antagonism among those of his countrymen whose stock in trade he has so ruthlessly destroyed. He has, therefore, turned to other countries for sympathy, and, because of the warm welcome he received in America, he has written the volume we are considering, "under the shadow of the great universities" which he visited, and offers it to the English-speaking public through the translation of his young compatriot, Mario E. Cosenza, an instructor in the College of the City of New York.

In this work we find a collection of essays, many of which examine with keenest criticism such legends as those of the Horatii, the maid Tarpeia, Lucretia and Virginia. There are two introductory chapters, one devoted to the critical method to be pursued in the study of ancient Roman history, another on the importance, for most ancient Roman history, of the excavations in the Roman Forum. One chapter is assigned to the topography of the earliest Rome, and there are six brief excursus on subjects bearing on topography and on the legendary history of the city. In his consideration of the topographic discoveries in the Roman Forum, Professor Pais aims to prove that they do not date back to the very early period to which the opponents of critical studies would assign them. But what does Professor Pais think of the archaic inscription and the monument under the black stone? Believing that the fragmentary word Sora stands for Soranus, a god of the dead, he claims that the inscription is a record of ceremonies in honor of the dead and under the direction of the *rex sacrorum*. The fact that a large part of the Forum valley has been shown to be a great cemetery, is strongly in favor of this view. Because of the location of the stele on a stratum later than the Gallic fire, and the uncertain testimony of the palæography of the inscription, it is impossible to decide whether the stone is of the sixth or of the fourth century. He follows Studniczka's theory as to the monument, and dates it in the period between the fifth and second century.

In the various essays on the legends, Professor Pais sets forth the results of his examination of the numerous different versions which demand critical study. This criticism is not negative:

"To trace the various discordant passages of the ancient authors, to investigate the causes of the formation of the different versions, and to ascertain which version is more ancient and which the more recent—such criticism is constructive, for it discovers the persons and facts which give vigor to the ancient traditions. It reproduces the general atmosphere that gave rise to such inventions, and reconstructs the history of the era which gave them birth. Finally, it explains the conception of the ancients regarding their own primitive history—the history which they had built up and narrated."

In such a spirit Professor Pais investigates a number of the legends closely associated with Roman history and topography, and, as a skilful yet unsparing surgeon, he cuts cleverly and deeply, looking for reliable facts on which to build his new structure. As a result of this study he forms the fundamental theory that Roman history appears as an adult organism from the very origin of the city because of the influence of Hellenistic civilization. Roman historiography mirrored the rhetorical historiography and the historical epos of the Greeks. Hence it is the Greek influence which we must emphasize, for the Greeks were the first narrators of Roman fortunes, and they participated in the compilation of the Roman national history.

"The study of the most ancient Roman legends proves that they—are, more or less, imitations of similar Hellenic stories, well known to the Greeks who first narrated the history of the Latin city. It is, then, very possible that in speaking of Tarpeia—the personification of the hill whence the guilty were hurled—they localized upon the Capitol one of the many myths of women who failed in their loyalty to their country. . . . The various elements of such legends spring from the force of circumstances which differ much among themselves. They may spring from some topographical data, or from data offered by monuments, and, as in the case of Tarpeia, those of the Tarpeian Rock and of the Porta Pandana. They may arise from etymological reasons; or, finally, from the mere reproduction of an element borrowed from some other legend."

This critical analysis of the versions of legendary history, and the recognition of the great importance of the Greek civilization in Roman story and history, will find acceptance even though the deductions made by Professor Pais may not be generally approved.

An excellent illustration of the application of our author's theories is seen in his essay on Servius Tullius. Here he reiterates his view that the last three kings of Rome are quite as legendary as Romulus and Numa. The partiality of Roman tradition, which endeavored to show that Rome was mistress of Latium even in the kingly period, and the recording of narratives of Roman history by Greek writers as early as the fourth century, have absolutely destroyed the value of the history of this time. The domination of the Etruscans is turned into a story of friendly and hospitable relations through the Tarquins. Hence King Tarquin is a misty figure, represent-

ing the actual domination of the Etruscans over Latium. Servius is a Latin conception belonging to a solar cult, and associated with a group of legends to which belong Virbius of Aricia, and Hippolytus, Pelops, and Hippodamia.

All this is very alluring and most interesting, but it is not always convincing. In fact, Professor Pais's own teaching would lead us to view with incredulity many of his theories. Moreover, his style is not such as to attract the general reader or even to detain the scholar, for it is very involved, and is lacking in logical sequence; which tends to make a difficult subject still more difficult by reason of the ambiguity. The translation is very well done, although the paragraphing is often bad. There is little to suggest the mere transfer of Italian phraseology into English. On page 25 "semi-uncial" is contrasted with "Latin writing," where the evident intention is to refer to half-uncials and capitals. On page 142, the sentence, "Another divinity was still more intimately connected with Diana Aricina—namely the *Nemus*, that is, the grove of Aricia," is unintelligible. Probably Virbius is the divinity thought of. We note also *viscus* for *vicus* (p. 17), *Camesa* for *Cameses* or *Camesene* (p. 143), *finestra* for *fenestra* (p. 149), *memorensis* for *nemorensis* (p. 144), cyclops "were" for "was" (p. 158), *Sanherib* for *Sennacherib* (p. 162), *examing* (p. 163), *word* for *work* (p. 226), and *Palatuar* for *Palatium* (p. 226). The book closes with sixty pages of notes in fine print which serve as valuable corroboration of the statements in the text. The index, which is indispensable in a work of this kind, has been omitted.

The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, May 20, 1775, and Lives of its Signers. By George W. Graham. New York: Neale. 1905.

The periodic revival of discussion of the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence is once more upon us, and the zeal of the advocates on either side of the question has been quickened by the appearance of a clever forgery, somewhat stupidly put upon the market, and therefore denounced before disposed of at a high price. In his book Dr. Graham claims to present new evidence in favor of a Declaration. This evidence is (1) a poem, dated 1777, called the "Mecklenburg Censor," in which mention is made of a "rabble":

> "In congress, they, the very first,
> Their independence to declare."

(2) a child born twelve years after the alleged Declaration and called "my Independence Boy"; (3) deeds for land which date from 1775 and not from 1776 as the year of independence; (4) a schoolboy's declamation in 1809, mentioning the Declaration, and (5) a discussion of how Martin and Gardner obtained their information of the paper. Dr. Graham believes that the resolves dated May 31, which have been accepted by historians, were adopted May 20, and were additional and supplementary to a true Declaration of Independence.

However interesting as a discussion of authorities this plea in favor of a Declaration may be, it does not carry conviction. Because Martin and Gardner associated with men who were present at a convention in Mecklenburg in May, is no reason why they should have discussed the matter with them or obtained original material. The resolves of May 31 suspended all royal commissions as null and void, and placed all legislation and executive powers in the Provincial Congress. This was in some degree a declaration of independence, and the reference in the "Censor" and in the schoolboy's oration could apply as easily to these sections as to a separate and distinct Declaration. Further, the schoolboy was a pupil of the Rev. Dr. Caldwell, who married the daughter of John McKnitt Alexander, secretary to the meeting, and had thus been under the influence of one interested in maintaining the existence of a Declaration. The fact that the resolves of May 31 were widely copied, while the more noticeable Declaration has left no trace in contemporary newspapers, is a difficult point against the passage of the latter, and is not to be lightly solved by general assertions. Nor does Dr. Graham's mode of treatment inspire confidence, for under his hands a supposition soon becomes a certainty. Martin, at the end of his chapter on the Declaration, gives as his authorities, "Records, magazines, gazettes." Martin told Dr. Hawks he had found a copy of the Declaration in the western part of the State prior to 1800. To this statement Dr. Graham adds: "Whether it was a manuscript or newspaper copy is not stated, but probably the latter." A few pages later, our author states positively that Martin had read the *Cape Fear Mercury* of June, 1775!

This *Cape Fear Mercury* is not known to exist in any collection; but it is entirely gratuitous to suppose that a copy was abstracted from the British records by Andrew Stevenson, when minister plenipotentiary at the Court of St. James. There is nothing in his official correspondence to show that he had made any discovery on so important a question, and to justify belief that in 1837 the followers of Jefferson were so jealous of his fame that they would employ Stevenson to destroy evidence of an early Mecklenburg Declaration. It would be much more to the point to discuss contemporary records, which have not yet been entirely exhausted.

For instance, why did it require only twelve days for the news of Lexington to reach Williamsburg, Va., and nearly twenty-one days to go further south and west to Mecklenburg, N. C.? Yet the news is said to have reached Mecklenburg while the convention was sitting, and led to the framing of the Declaration. Then, too, the supporters of the Declaration say that four copies of this important paper were sent by special messenger to the Continental Congress, and the receipt was acknowledged and encouragement given by Hancock and by a joint letter of the Carolina delegates. Yet the letter-book of John Hancock does not show any such letter, the joint letter has never been traced, and the two men in Congress most interested in obtaining every support for independence, Adams and Jefferson, had never seen or heard of the Declaration until it was first printed in 1819. Jefferson believed it to be a forgery, and in an unpublished letter to him Adams echoed his opinion:

"It appeared to me utterly incredible that they should be genuine; but there were so many circumstances calculated to impose on the public that I thought it my duty to take measures for the detection of the imposture. For this purpose I instantly inclosed the *Essex Register* to you, knowing that if you had either seen or heard of these resolutions, you would have informed me of it. As they are unknown to you, they must have been unknown to all mankind. . . . But who can be the Demon to invent such a machine after five and forty years, and what could be his motive? Was it to bring a charge of Plagiarism against the Congress in '76, or against you, the undoubted acknowledged draughtsman of the Declaration of Independence? Or could it be the mere vanity of producing a *jeu d'esprit*, to set the world agasp and afford a topic of conversation in this piping time of Peace? Had such Resolutions appeared in June '75, they would have flown through the Universe like wildfire; they would have elevated the heads of the inhabitants of Boston, and of all New England, above the stars, and they would have rung a peal in Congress to the utter confusion of Toryism and timidity, for a full year before they were discomforted [discomfited?]."

And a few days later he again wrote:

"If these resolutions were genuine, they ought to be published in every Gazette in the world. If they are one of those tricks which our fashionable men in England call hoaxes and boares, they ought to be printed in all American journals, exposed to public resentment, and the author of them hunted to his dark Cavern. For although you and I should as easily believe that a flaming Brand might be thrust into a Magazine of Powder without producing an explosion, as that those Resolutions could have passed in 1775, and not been known to any Member of Congress in 1776; and if they were not known to you, as I am very sure they were not, it is impossible they could have been known to any other Member."

The absence of any record in the journals of the Congress of their receipt is not conclusive, as Thomson had not yet perfected his method of noting papers and reports coming to the Congress. We may therefore accept the tradition that Captain Jack was sent to Philadelphia. It does not follow, however, that he was the bearer of a Declaration or even of the resolutions of May 31, and it is surprising that attention has not been called to an entry in the Journals of June 26, of resolutions on the State of North Carolina, recommending the good people of the colony to associate, establish a militia, and support the "American Association." In the original Journal the entry does not show that it was on North Carolina, and the corrected Journal supplies that information. This action must have been suggested from North Carolina; and as Congress had been for days sitting as a committee of the whole on the state of America, the delay in adopting the resolves has no significance. Could not Jack have brought this suggestion, and in after time his journey have become associated with the alleged Declaration? Could not Jack have taken back to North Carolina the joint letter, dated June 19, of the delegates of that colony in the Continental Congress, urging the people to greater exertions and to embody a militia? And would not Hancock have transmitted the Congress resolves of the 26th in a letter? These are quite as reasonable suppositions as those put forward by Dr. Graham, and answer to known dates and circumstances more definitely and satisfactorily.

Congress of Arts and Sciences, Universal Exposition, St. Louis, 1904. Edited by How-

ard J. Rogers, Director of Congresses. Volume I.: History of the Congress, by the Editor; Scientific Plan of the Congress, by Hugo Münsterberg. (Philosophy and Mathematics.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905. 8vo, pp. 627.

In every future history of the human mind the signal success of the St. Louis Congress must be commemorated. Justly to distribute the credit for it would probably be impossible at present. We certainly shall not attempt such a task. Speaking in the rough, as men usually speak of the credit for great achievements, the idea was the creation of Professor Münsterberg, and it was a creation such as few men are privileged ever to make. The history of its evolution will be found narrated in this volume as minutely as possible by Mr. Rogers, while the plan is explained by Professor Münsterberg. This first volume contains twenty-five papers read to the philosophical and mathematical sections of the Congress by some of the men of all the world whose words on such subjects best commend themselves to our attention.

The introductory address, by Professor Newcomb, is very properly a blend between an ordinary presidential address and an oration, and is very accurately in taste. Custom calls for the suggestion of a scientific idea in a presidential address, and an idea of wide scientific appeal. If Professor Newcomb had a hundred such jotted down in his note-book, he could not have selected one of more pressing importance or of more evident truth than the idea he chose, while in its whole philosophical scope it has certainly been treated hitherto with something like disdain; so that those who for many years have been preaching its salutary effects and consequences must be gratified to find their idol taken up by a man so prominent in the world of science as Professor Newcomb. The idea is, that while it may be true that all evolution, be it physiological or physical, intellectual or spiritual, individual or social, proceeds without any strict breach of continuity, yet it is universally found that in every development there are at least two extraordinary leaps. Professor Newcomb only mentions one, which he illustrates in the launching of a ship; but we venture to point out that the laying of the keel is another such great step. So in the development of an individual animal, one step takes place when, the unit-cells of two progenitors uniting, a third life suddenly appears, while another step takes place when the new being is launched and breaks its way into the element it is to inhabit. Now the evolutionists never cease to tell us that we are to look at the life-history of the individual to find there a miniature record of the past history of its race. If this be so, the logic of science commands us to begin with the hypothesis that there have been at least two cataclasmic epochs in the development of the race, and forbids us to surrender this hypothesis until inductive inquiry has fairly ascertained its truth or falsity. There is a natural presumption in favor of something like the doctrine of universal continuity, but upon uniformitarianism, which goes further, there lies a heavy burden of proof.

We can here mention only one or two among at least a dozen strikingly instructive papers that the reader will want to ponder long before he will have sucked their juice. It is a curious classification which adds mathematics to the usual list of normative sciences, æsthetics, ethics, and logic; and since a reviewer's *métier* is infallibility, we will curtly say that it is a confusion of thought to class mathematics with the *theory* of reasoning simply because its business is to say what conclusion would necessarily follow from each given assumed premiss or premisses. One of the most interesting communications in the volume is a discussion of the definition of mathematics, by Professor Bôcher of Harvard University. Like all others who have discussed the question, he seems to have quite overlooked a definition which one would think would have been insured against neglect by being embedded in one of the most famous of all philosophical writings. We refer to the definition of mathematics as the science of order. It is Descartes who puts it forth. He, indeed, says "measure and order"; but it has been for many years well known that quantity *is* nothing but ordinal sequence. We mean that this is well known to those who are versed in the subject, but not that it is well known to all those who ought for their own sakes to understand it; nor that it is well known to the whole indolent breed who call themselves "thinkers."

But, to return to the juxtaposition here of philosophy and of mathematics, the comparison that it compels between the general state of intellectual development of the two groups of students is one of the most impressive lessons of the whole volume. Yet mathematics is not as well represented in the volume as is philosophy; and particularly the expression of all that semi-logical department of mathematics which keenly interests every variety of pure intellect is, excepting in Bôcher's paper, distinctly weak. In applied mathematics, Boltzmann and Poincaré continued at St. Louis a controversy—a very uncontroversial controversy, it is true—which was not really of a mathematical nature and which had been quite exhausted, as far as they were concerned, years before. The subject should lie fallow until some new point of view is found.

A congenital defect of such a congress, in the province of philosophy at any rate, is that the principal speakers must be very few. At St. Louis there were two only for each section. To select the best two, the selector should add to a superhuman insight an absolutely complete and thorough acquaintance with all the young philosophists. For it must be the young men, if any, who are to open our eyes. Their elders have been tried and found wanting. The selection that naturally gets made is that of the men who, in the later of the previous years, have put forth the most prepotent ideas. But it is just these men that we have no need of hearing. The old tune is still running in their heads; they will harp on the one old string. The man who in silence and obscurity has been creating some strange, beautiful, and illuminating conception is the man from whom we desire to hear, but from whom there is little chance of hearing in such a congress. Some of the old leaders, and some only, express themselves in this volume, together with a few who, if not old leaders, have recently so expressed themselves that all philosophists would know what they had to say. The truth is, that the personal *rencontres* were of liveliest interest, but the record of what was said is considerably less so.

Geology: Earth History, Vols. II. & III. By T. C. Chamberlin and R. D. Salisbury, Professors of Geology and Geography at the University of Chicago. Henry Holt & Co. 1906.

That geology is not yet an exact science, and that many of the commonly accepted views of the earth's history rest in the last analysis upon undemonstrated assumptions, is emphasized in a striking manner in the above work. Contrary to the plan of other text-books on the same subject, marked attention is paid to the hypotheses of the origin and early phases of the earth, and several alternative views are discussed in considerable detail. For a number of years past, Professor Chamberlin's studies have led him to consider these fundamental problems connected with the origin of the earth, and have convinced him that neither the commonly accepted Nebular Hypothesis of Laplace nor the Meteoric Hypothesis of Lockyer and Darwin can possibly meet the demands that later discoveries put upon them. For example, these hypotheses presuppose an original crust with somewhat definite chemical and physical characteristics, such as no great basal formations are now known to possess. Indeed, recent studies in Canada, the United States, Great Britain, Scandinavia, and Finland have demonstrated that great granitoid areas of the Archæan rocks, which were previously supposed to be a part of that crust, were intrusive, and that they had been forced into rocks which were formed on the surface at a period much later than the original crust. Professor Chamberlin has been led, therefore, to develop the "planetesimal hypothesis," in which "it is assumed that the parent Nebula of the solar system was formed of innumerable small bodies, planetesimals, revolving about a central gaseous mass, much as do the planets today." He finds in the numerous spiral nebulæ, with coiled arms or streamers, with luminous centres and knots of light on the streamers, and which present a *continuous* spectrum, some reason for assuming that such planetesimal systems exist in great numbers. By this hypothesis, "the evolution of the system consisted in the aggregation of these innumerable small bodies into much fewer larger ones." "The earth is supposed to have started as a nebular knot, acting as a nucleus, and to have grown gradually to its present mass by accessions" of the scattered planetesimal masses.

This hypothesis calls for a relatively slow growth of the earth—cold at first, but with a rising internal temperature developed in the central portion, chiefly through compression, and creeping outward. The young earth is believed to have had no atmosphere until it attained about one-twentieth of its present mass, owing to its inability by the force of gravity to attract and hold to itself the light atmospheric gases against their high molecular velocities, which would carry them off into space. But when the growing earth reached the requisite mass, an atmosphere was gradually accumulated by contributions from the free atmospheric

molecules which came within range of its attraction, and from the occluded gases which were extruded, probably chiefly by volcanoes, from the earth itself. This conception of the primitive atmosphere is fundamentally different from the orthodox view, which postulates a vast hot and heavy gaseous envelope, containing all the water of the globe, all the carbonic acid now in limestone and that corresponding to the carbon in coal, peat, lignite, and other organic substances, and all the oxygen since shut up in the rocks by oxidation; in direct contradiction, notably, of the discovery of air-breathing animals far back in geologic history and early flying insects with structures incompatible with a heavy atmosphere, to say nothing of positive evidence of widespread glacial conditions in India, Australia, and South Africa on the very border of the tropics towards the close of the Palæozoic period, and in China in latitude 30° N. in the early Palæozoic.

Under the Laplacian hypothesis, the interior heat of the earth is assumed to be mainly residual from its original molten condition, and on this assumption serious limitations have been made by physicists to the age of the earth, based upon the probable initial temperatures and the rate of cooling—limitations which greatly restricted the time exacted by geologists for the earth's subsequent evolution, and by biologists for the beginning and development of life in the pre-Cambrian age. The planetesimal hypothesis meets this objection, and affords an undetermined lapse of time between the stage when conditions congenial to life were first possible, and the Cambrian period when the first fairly legible record was made.

In many respects these new views are nothing short of revolutionary, and although various aspects of the problem have been discussed by Dr. Chamberlin in numerous papers during the last ten years, the first complete statement is made in this work. A consistent effort has been made "to carry through the interpretations of the whole history parallel systems of doctrine built on the diverse hypotheses recognized." Such a treatment, while perhaps at first confusing to the beginner, in reality acts as a stimulant and prevents the unquestioned acceptance of theories on the mere basis of authority and custom. The question of geologic climates, particularly of the glacial climates which in the Cambrian gave rise to glaciers in latitude 30° in China, in the Permian brought about widespread glaciation at low altitudes in India, Australia, and South Africa at the borders of the tropics, and in the Pleistocene covered much of North America and Europe with a series of far advancing and retreating ice sheets with long periods of mild interglacial climate, receives exhaustive discussion. In considering the life of the various geologic periods, exceptional attention has been given to the evolution of faunas and floras and to their migrations, while much less attention has been shown to individual forms, however strange and uncouth they may have been.

Unsolved problems are frankly recognized, and the need of further investigation and revised interpretation freely indicated. Such, besides those already mentioned, are the widespread occurrence of red beds with few faunal remains, the accumulation at certain horizons of extensive beds of rock salt and gypsum, the preservation of great masses of vegetation as in the Carboniferous and Cretaceous, the extraordinary and widespread lava flows and volcanic eruptions of the Tertiary, and the great extent as well as the complex history of the glaciers of the Pleistocene, particularly when contrasted with the genial climate of circumpolar regions in the preceding geologic period.

The question of the antiquity of man in America receives more elaborate attention than is customary in works on geology, and rightly, for in so far as human relics are found imbedded as fossils, the determination of the age of the enclosing formation is essentially geologic. The authors conclude that "no relic found in fluvial material can, with full safety, be referred to an age older than the last stages at which the stream flowed over its surface." Since nearly all the supposed evidence of glacial man has been obtained from gravel deposits which have in every case been reworked, in part at least, since their deposition in the glacial period, the presumption seems to be against his existence, particularly when the absence of authentic evidence from caves, glacial tills, and interglacial deposits is considered. In the present state of knowledge our authors advocate a suspended judgment.

While designed primarily as a textbook for advanced courses in college and graduate schools, many chapters of this treatise invite the attention of the non-professional reader as well as of the scientist. All might do so but for the inherent difficulty of the subject-matter, as, for example, the complicated problems of internal and atmospheric dynamics, rather than because of the authors' method of treatment.

China and Religion. By Edward Harper Parker. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Mr. Parker must be undoubtedly counted as a Chinese scholar, but his method of composition is peculiar and his literary graces are not very great. He seems to have learned most of his Chinese on foot, for he has been a mighty perambulator in China, meeting with all kinds of people. For all his apology and explanation, which does not explain, of his peculiar list of authorities, the unprejudiced reader, whether acquainted with Mr. Parker's five or six other volumes or not, would be very glad if, in his list of fifty or so monographs or papers, there were not quite so many as twelve or fifteen signed by E. H. Parker. Despite his unappreciative reference to mere "translators and opinionists," one would not have objected to more references to and quotations from such men as Dr. Legge, and to such scholars as Groot. Still, one must be thankful for this study of the elements which make up religion as it is known in China, for, on the whole, it is cool, clear, impartial. Mr. Parker sets forth with unique illustration and fulness the relation of the Chinese Government, or political system, not only to the primitive traditions and ceremonies and the three systems of Laocius (Lao-tse), Confucius, and Buddha, but to Parseeism, Manicheism, Nestorianism, Islam, the Jews, the Roman Church, Protestantism, the Orthodox (Græco-Russian) Church, and Shintoism.

One cannot feel, after reading the book through, that he has found in it any notable accretion of knowledge, or been greatly aided in insight. The author is particularly strong and felicitous in restoring the features and figures of Lao-tse and of Confucius, and in showing the points of likeness and difference in their personalities and systems. The one is set forth as "the rugged, radical denouncer, of the Jeremiah or Carlyle type"; the other as "the man of comfort, order, reverence, and courtliness." Mr. Parker's critical knowledge of the age of documents is excellent, and he understands well how to appraise modern manifestations of ancient ideas. He writes:

"The degenerate but harmless priests seen nowadays in the Chinese towns and villages no more represent the noble abstractions of Laocius than the negro beanfeasters in America or the dancing revivalists in London depict the simple charity and democracy of Jesus Christ; yet in both cases there is a pedigree, and the charitable may admit an honest attempt to do well according to dwindled lights."

The horse-riding peoples between China and Western countries and civilizations were the chief purveyors of ideas, ritual, scriptures, and influences modifying the original bald system of rites, which even Mr. Parker calls a "religion" only in brackets. One could wish that instead of furnishing, as he has done, little more than raw materials, however abundant, he could have shown in orderly sequence the evolution of primitive rites and ceremonies into the highly philosophical system, through the conditioning influences of these outside religions. Undoubtedly Buddhism is still the faith held by the unthinking masses, while Confucianism is the creed of the scholars; yet it is doubtful whether The Sage, could he return to China to-day, would recognize his own system any more than could Jesus discern in European or American popular Christianity his own teachings and simple principles. Nor is it at all probable that the medley of pantheism in the modern beliefs associated with the name of Confucius could ever have become what it is except for the doctrines imported from India. One of Mr. Parker's best chapters treats of Nestorianism, giving also a fine reproduction of the Nestorian stone, with Syriac inscription at the foot. Although translations of the text differ, it is plain that the Christianity introduced into China in the eighth century was not that of the Greek or Roman corporation of to-day. "No stress is laid upon damnation, the sacraments, confession, repentance, the sanctity of marriage rites, the Immaculate Conception, the Crucifixion, Passion, Resurrection, life everlasting, and many things inseparable from the belief of most of the Christians of the present day."

The story of the Chinese, Jews, and Mohammedans is brought down to our time, and there is an original translation of the 'Tao-teh King,' one of the best things in the book; for Mr. Parker's phraseology makes it clear that Laocius and Confucius drew their ideas from extremely ancient books that inspired both, so that virtually the one gives the speculative, the other the materialistic expression of the same simple rule of gratitude to Heaven.

The illustrations, both literary and his-

torical, concern not only Chinese, but also Japanese, Korean, and Burman architecture, and are full-page reproductions of photographs. There is a full index.

More Famous Houses of Bath and District; being the Second Series of that work. By J. F. Meehan, with an introduction by Egerton Castle, M.A., F.S.A., illustrated with about fifty reproductions of original drawings and rare prints in the possession of the Author. Bath: B. & J. F. Meehan. 1906. Pp. xvi., 248.

Four years ago we noticed the forerunner of the above volume. The houses now discussed are numerous, perhaps thirty, although the presence of chapters which are not primarily associated with any house whatever, and which deal exclusively with a local tradition or a local celebrity, makes an accurate count very difficult. In a plate opposite page 180 appears the building in which are the Assembly Rooms made famous by Mr. Pickwick's visit. The Bishop's Palace at Wells is shown in the photograph of what must be a very valuable print, dated 1733. It is as faithfully topographical as the work of Hollar, though far less attractive. Marston House is copied from a print of about the same epoch, but it is less interesting, the matter which excites the student being the placing of the village church in a little paddock at the very door of the park rather than anything in the architecture of either. Cold Ashton Manor House is an Elizabethan mansion "from an original drawing by H. V. Lansdown." Newton Park is a square mansion of no great size, in the smiling English park which gives it its name. Wick, or Wycke, called also Wycke Court, is declared to be in wonderful preservation, having been cared for and saved from injury and renovation alike, but the picture has no attractiveness whatever except to trace the plan of the garden set close about the house like a formal centre to the irregular park grounds. Two or three picturesque ruins also are included, such as that of Farlegh or Farley Castle, which is shown with its modern house close adjoining it, from a print dated 1733, and Nunney Castle (called also Nunye Castle) from a print of the same date.

Among the local illustrations are scattered many portraits, as of John Arthur Roebuck, the famous M.P. of the mid-nineteenth century; Robert Southey, Gen. Wolfe "of Quebec," and several persons whose celebrity is less impressive to-day than the fame of their portrayers, Gainsborough, or Allan Ramsay. The curious portrait of Lord Nelson in his youth, attributed to Gainsborough, is contrasted with an old print of the man in his maturity, covered with orders and without his right arm. But the subject which will most attract American readers, perhaps, is that of Major André. There is a long record of André's life and the strange conditions in which he became so famous; and there are anecdotes here which we have not seen elsewhere, both credible and incredible, accompanied by the statement, a little odd to the American reader, that "André's story is the one overmastering romance of the Revolution."

No student of architectural art need approach this book, but there is one bit of architecture, at least, which any one might be glad to possess, the curious gateway of Bellott's Hospital, with its very rich armorial adornment above the doorway itself.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Poems, 1776-1900. Edited by Augustus W. Long. American Book Co.
Barr, Robert. A Rock in the Baltic. The Authors and Newspapers' Association.
Carpenter, Edward. Days with Walt Whitman. Macmillan. $1.50.
Denis, Ernest. La Fondation de l'Empire Allemand. Paris: Armand Colin.
Duke, Basil W. Morgan's Cavalry. Neale Publishing Co. $2.
Early Western Travels. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. XXI. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Friend of Marie Antoinette, A. Translated by Frédéric Barbey. Dutton. $3 net.
Girl Graduate, The. Designed and Illustrated by Louise Perrett and Sarah K. Smith. Chicago: The Reilly & Britton Co. $1.50.
Gould, Gerald. Lyrics. London: David Nutt.
Hall, Clare H. The Chemistry of Paints and Paint Vehicles. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Hallock, Charles. Luminous Bodies Here and After. The Metaphysical Publishing Co.
Jenks, Jeremiah W. Citizenship and the Schools. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25 net.
Johnson, Rossiter. The Story of the Constitution of the United States. William Ritchie.
Kennard, Joseph Spencer. Italian Romance Writers. Brentanos.
King's English, The. Frowde. 5s. net.
Kingsley, Florence Morse. The Intellectual Miss Lamb. Century Co. 75 cents.
Lounsbery, G. Constant. Love's Treatment. John Lane Co.
Masefield, John. On the Spanish Main. Macmillan Co. $3.50.
Meyer's Konversations Lexikon. Vol. 13. Lemcke & Buechner.
Nolhac, Pierre de. Marie Antoinette. London: Arthur L. Humphreys.
Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies in the War of the Rebellion. Series I., Vol. 20. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Poole, Ernest. The Voice of the Street. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Root, Edward Clary. Huntington, Jr. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Saltus, Edgar. Imperial Purple. Mitchell Kennerley.
Saltus, Edgar. Vanity Square. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Turner, F. H. Beside the New-Made Grave. Boston: James H. West Co. $1 net.
Venable, William Mayo. Garbage Crematories in America. John Wiley & Sons.
Wright, Carroll D. The Battles of Labor. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1 net.

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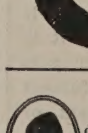

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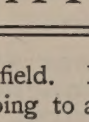

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 14, 1906.

The Week.

The mounting enthusiasm among Democrats for Bryan, with the prospect of his nomination for the Presidency in 1908, should be furnishing Mr. Roosevelt and other Republican leaders "food for thought." A good mouthful was certainly tendered them by the declaration of the Indiana Democratic Convention on Thursday in favor of "that wise and *conservative* statesman, William Jennings Bryan." "Conservative" in comparison with whom? That is the question for Republicans to chew upon. Who is it that has made the firebrand of 1896 seem a cautious and steady man in 1906? All answers, as the advertisements say, should be addressed to the White House, Washington, D. C. Mr. Bryan's popularity and swelling political support supply food for thought also to William Randolph Hearst's paid manipulators. That they are thinking about this, in their fashion, appears from their careful hiding away of the facts in obscure corners of the Hearst newspapers. Perhaps the men who are tapping that ample purse feel that it would never do to let its owner discover that there is any way to secure delegates except to go out and buy them. Or it may occur to them that the peculiar audience before which they are every day "throwing fits," must not be allowed to know that a distant leader, who has pronounced against Socialism, is winning away the Democratic heart from the only man who has a full assortment of Socialistic nostrums in his pocket or up his sleeve. Be this as it may, it it not a bad thing to see that the mass of Democrats still prefer to be led by a man who has brains (his own, not hired) and character.

The burning issue which has been raised over the President's railway fare seems likely to be settled in a common-sense way by having the Senate put a $25,000 item for travelling expenses into the Sundry Civil bill. In that event the House conferees are hardly likely to stand out against it. There is nothing complicated about this question, nor very much excuse for a difference of opinion. The President, if for no other reason than self-protection, has a right to travel with somewhat more of comfort and privacy than the less conspicuous citizen. Most, if not all, of our Presidents have in the past accepted special trains from the railroads (which were glad to offer them) without feeling that they incurred the slightest obligation in so doing. Now that the feeling has grown throughout the country that the chief executive ought to be under obligation to no private or corporate interest, Congress has wisely declared against his acceptance of free transportation in the future. If it meant to circumscribe his travelling, it should have declared so specifically; but, since it did not do so, common sense and justice demand that he have a travelling allowance. As one Congressman said, "it is not proposed to increase the President's compensation, but to prevent its reduction." It is absurd, to be sure, to say that the country requires its President to live on $50,000. He receives also an establishment costing several times as much. But certainly no economy justifies niggardly treatment of the head of the nation.

The need for the new naturalization law which was passed by the House on Tuesday week is concisely expressed in the statement that, while all the conditions of immigration and citizenship have changed radically since 1802, the naturalization law has not been reformed since that year. Congress has never exercised its specifically granted power to promulgate a uniform rule of naturalization. The House bill is drawn in accordance with the general recommendations of the commission appointed by the President last year to investigate this subject, but does not follow it in details. Its method of preventing citizenship frauds is, essentially, the establishment of a central bureau at Washington in which a duplicate copy of every application for citizenship shall be filed and be compared with the data furnished by the applicant to the immigration authorities on his arrival in this country. Our Government already has such data on file for all arrivals since 1900, but the House amended the bill so that it should apply only to foreigners arriving after its passage. It may be noted that the House retained the system of "first papers" or "declaration of intention" for aliens. The commission found that this did not furnish any adequate safeguard against fraud, and one of the most plausible reasons for retaining it is that a number of States allow residents to vote on their "first papers," and would have to amend their laws if these certificates should be abolished outright.

Aside from the inevitable criticism that national control of this subject meant the creation of another huge and expensive bureau at Washington, the chief objection made to the bill was that, since immigrants are bound to keep on coming, putting up the standards of citizenship would leave great numbers of arriving foreigners practically without a country. As Bourke Cockran eloquently phrased it: "I consider such a deliberate creation of a large alien class in the heart of our population a vicious departure from the liberal and distinctively American policy of a century, which up to the present has been fruitful of nothing but benefit." The greater part of arriving immigrants to this country undoubtedly want to become American citizens, and the requirement of some knowledge of English as a condition precedent would, of course, be a strong inducement for foreigners to learn our language. There are, to be sure, some cases in which the new law would seem a hardship. The Swede, described by one Western Congressman, who files a homestead claim, and must live on his land to take title, thus putting him out of the way of picking up English speech, is still a desirable citizen, and much better qualified to vote than many who can meet the requirements of the new bill. Yet it is not altogether a bad thing to make American citizenship a prize worth striving for, and we shall at least be saved the spectacle of our warships dispatched to protect the rights of "Americans" who never belonged in fact to this country, or who secured their papers through fraud.

Whether the bill to amend and consolidate the acts respecting copyright can be got through Congress at this session, we do not know, but we hope so. The bill represents a vast amount of labor. It is, in the main, a codification of existing statutes. Merely as such, it would be highly useful. But it also contains some amendments. It changes the period during which copyright may run, providing three terms according to subject-matter. It makes, too, some relaxation of our stupidity in the matter of copyright. It embodies, for example, the new *ad-interim* copyright for foreigners, good for two years in the case of a book printed abroad in a foreign language. Far short of going over to the Berne Convention, which our labor unions will not let Congress do, this is yet an enlightened step forward. Of course, the Typographical Union still insists that permanent copyright of books printed in English shall be granted only when the type is set in this country. The lithographers also made a gallant stand for American lithography for Americans, but finally relented so far as to except lithographs "where the subjects represented are located in a foreign country." This was really handsome of them, for they might have demanded, in case (say) a lithograph illustration of St. Sophia were wanted for a book of trav-

els, that a carefully protected American workman be sent over to do the work.

An infallible "Government," in the person of Mr. Neill, got some rude blows in the cross-examination by the House Committee on Thursday. He had positively asserted the employment of tuberculous workmen in the packing houses; how did he know? "I thought so," answered this personification of Government. He had been told so by doctors. "The fact was established to my own mind," he added. "I can only say that I believe it." He had also charged that the employees were infected with other diseases; what ones? "I am not willing to state." Finally, however, came the proof: "There were smells of medicine on these men that you get in dispensaries for certain diseases"! In some other respects, a "Government" which cannot be mistaken fared badly at the hands of searching inquirers. Representative Henry of Connecticut made a gallant attempt to stay this terrible *lèse majesté*. He reminded the Committee that the report which was being so roughly handled came, not simply from Mr. Neill, but "directly from the President," and that, in his opinion, it was "highly discourteous to question it." We wish that newspapers could thus "establish" facts on their say-so, and then have all dissent treated as treason.

Friends of the Indian are becoming more and more practical in their efforts to aid the reservation dwellers. The latest report of the Indian Industries League, formed to encourage home industries and self-support among the more backward tribes, is in strong contrast to those old sentimental appeals that called upon the civilized world to rise up in protest against the wrongs suffered by our red brothers. Where nothing but stern justice was once demanded, the League now asks funds to teach the Navajos to cleanse their wool before weaving it into blankets, and to vary the size of their woven rugs. The Pueblos are to be taught that glazed pottery has a better sale in New York than the old kind, and that it can be shipped more successfully. In the League's memorial to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs and Congress concerning the Campos and other Mission Indians of California, it is recommended that a number of arable ranches adjoining the reservation be bought and prepared for Indian occupancy. "The crime of the century," the ruthless pushing of these non-resistant tribes out upon the desert by crowding whites, is mentioned without excessive heat. Tools, tubs, spinning-wheels; tips on the blanket, basket, and lace market; a job for the Indian man near his home—these are some of the prosaic, specific things that have distracted the practical Yankee's attention from his national dishonor. It is a work of repentance in which he ought willingly to join.

Nineteen years ago, on receiving the nomination of the Democrats of Maryland as Attorney-General of his State, ex-Gov. William Pinkney Whyte said: "The Attorney-Generalship would be an excellent way for me to close my public career." Mr. Whyte was then a youth of sixty-three. At the expiration of his term in 1891 he retired to practise law and enjoy his reputation as Maryland's most distinguished citizen. His choice now by Gov. Warfield as Gorman's successor in the United States Senate is an admission that even at eighty-two Mr. Whyte is still the State's foremost Democrat. If the new appointee lives to complete his term, in 1909, his public career will have extended over sixty-two years, for he first went to the Maryland Legislature in 1847. His first appearance in the Senate, when he was appointed by Gov. Swann to the seat made vacant by the resignation of Reverdy Johnson, was in 1868. A term as Governor, a full term as United States Senator, and two years as Mayor of Baltimore preceded his election to the Attorney-Generalship in 1887. If, as "Mr. Dooley" asserted, "th' enthrance of Beveridge into th' Senate at th' age of six reduced th' average age of that body to 92," Mr. Whyte's reappearance will help to restore the former impression of maturity. Still, he is nearly two months younger than Senator Morgan, and more than three years younger than Senator Pettus—Alabama's two wise counsellors who blithely talk of reëlection in 1907 and 1909, respectively. Dr. Osler has evidently left Maryland for good.

The elimination of Addicks in Delaware has long been regarded as certain, but it is a comfort nevertheless to record his final defeat in the Republican caucus on Monday night. The State is to have two Senators again, and Addicks is not to be one of them. Thus the long assault of the most notorious and despised corruptionist of his day is at last beaten off. His audacity, his resources, his energy threatened to succeed; and for a time even President Roosevelt was ready to accept him on the ground that he was one of the men who "do things"—for example, by corruption eat out the belly of the Republican machine and thrust himself in the carcass. But they now have the satisfaction of knowing that their determined resistance has put a negative upon the schemes of one whose election would have disgraced Delaware by sending to the Senate a member at whom even Platt would have looked askance, and in whose presence all decent Senators would have had a feeling of nausea.

The old "Hail! Hail! the gang's all here," was heard at Harrisburg on June 6 when the "Regular" Republicans, led by Senator Penrose, nominated a State ticket. By naming as its candidate for Governor Edwin S. Stuart, who served as Mayor of Philadelphia from 1891 to 1895, the convention put on the cloak of respectability so far as Philadelphia is concerned. Mr. Stuart is a genial, staid, and popular man, who has a talent for being on every side of every question in order to avoid trouble. But the president of the Union League Club of Philadelphia is no such large figure of virtue that he can make the State believe that the Penrose organization wants to reform. The head of the Lincoln Party ticket has already notified his backers that he does not propose to withdraw voluntarily from the race. What some enthusiastic Lincolnites propose is to substitute the name of Mayor Weaver for that of Lewis Emery, jr., and fight the organization to the end. But it is more than probable that if the Democrats nominate State Treasurer Berry, who has already been chosen by the Prohibitionists, the reform Republicans will flock to his support. Then the unpartisan verdict of last fall's State election may be emphasized by his election as Governor.

An element of burlesque was introduced into the Harrisburg Convention when the "war-horses" of Pennsylvania Republican politics grew enthusiastic over those planks in the platform that applauded President Roosevelt's "regulating" policy, and denounced corporation rule in the State. Here were men like "Dave" Martin, "Jim" McNichol, Lane, and Miles, who for twenty years have lived and fattened on corporation "graft," hotly demanding a State commission to regulate transportation companies, asking for a two-cents-a-mile fare, calling for limited franchises, endorsing the request of the trolley companies to be allowed to carry freight, and ending with an oath of allegiance to the principle of the "square deal." The comedy was emphasized by wordy and fulsome praise of the Pennypacker Administration, and a declaration of standpattism that would have delighted Secretary Shaw. The platform makes admirable reading for those who, like Mr. Chesterton, delight in bringing logic out of obvious paradoxes.

Few will take seriously the petition for Mr. Jerome's removal from office, but many will regret that he had not refuted in advance the charge that contributions to his campaign last year have stayed his hand in the prosecution of corporation delinquents. There was abundance of good reason why the District Attorney should have taken the public into his confidence immediately

after the election. His was a people's victory, won by the people's support; and the demand for publicity in regard to the details of management was entirely legitimate. The amount of money freely given, with the main items of its expenditure, should have been frankly published. Mr. Jerome owed this to his friends, if not to himself; and, apart from this personal aspect of the matter, there was a public good to be subserved by letting the facts be known. They would throw much light on the question how much it costs to run an honest and independent campaign. By so much, they would help in framing corrupt-practices acts, and also in guiding future reform movements—such as the one to elect non-partisan judges this fall. But Mr. Jerome took perverse counsel in the business, and now has to see a formal petition to the Governor recite the charge that, "in consideration of his failure to prosecute, . . . he received for campaign purposes the sum of upward of $50,000." To say that this is a base slander, is only to heighten the regret that Mr. Jerome did not make its utterance impossible.

Publication of the names of the first college professors to take advantage of the retiring pension provided by the Carnegie Foundation shows what a wise and gracious plan that was. Here are some fifty veterans who have toiled long and well, some of whose names have illuminated our academic annals and carried the repute of American scholarship abroad, and who now, in their old age and declining vigor, will be assured of a modest support so long as they live. Of course, as the case stood before, these men were in no danger of being turned out to starve. No college that had enjoyed the honorable services and fame of Professor Young, for example, or Professor Morley, could think of leaving them in neglect when incapacitated. The alumni would cry shame upon it. But it is an undoubted burden upon college funds to retain in a professorship a man whom years have disabled from discharging its duties. For the old teacher himself, also, it has been awkward to go on drawing emoluments which he felt were intended for a younger and more active man. But now a happy solution has been found. A retirement fund which is a badge of honor has been provided; and college endowments may be applied entire to the support of professors in full strength. It is a form of old-age pensions of which all must approve.

According to the Mexican *Herald*, which seems to be in sympathy with the revolutionists, President Cabrera of Guatemala is facing a grave crisis. Gen. Lisandro Barillas, the leader of the movement to displace Cabrera, and his three chief aides, Gen. Leon Castillo, Gen. Salvador Toledo, and Col. Felipe Pinedo, are converging upon Nueva Guatemala from all sides. Castillo has attacked the Pacific port of Ocos, Pinedo has crossed over from British Honduras, Toledo has advanced northward from Salvador, and Barillas himself has invaded the country from Mexico with 700 modern rifles and plenty of ammunition. Toledo's forces, to judge from the most trustworthy reports via Salvador, number 2,000, and, according to Central American standards, they are efficient and well armed. Castillo has been defeated at Ocos, but he means to try again when his forces are increased and when President Cabrera is using his own troops to defend his capital. Contrary to the usual rule, the Barillas movement seems to have been well planned and adequately financed. Guatemala's President has assured his supporters that the revolution will soon be crushed; but the rebels are even more confident of gaining possession of the Government.

The parallel education bills under discussion in England and Prussia afford a pretty striking contrast. The British measure contemplates secular schools in which all sorts of religious instruction are tolerated outside of school hours; the Prussian bill frankly recognizes the sectarian character of the schools, and attempts to supply denominational schools according to the demand of the religious population. The Prussian proposals, which make a special case of each locality, are about what the churchmen of England would like to see effective in British primary education. How deep-seated is the desire to put the duty of denominational instruction upon the State, may be gathered from the fact that twelve thousand "demonstrators" came down from Lancashire to London on Friday to protest against Mr. Birrell's plan of virtual secularization. In a recent debate in the Commons the respective value of home, Sunday-school, and day-school teaching of religion was gravely discussed, and the home and the Sunday-school were badly worsted in the argument. It is a proof of the supreme illogicality which Bagehot venerated in the Briton, that the same people who proclaim the inefficiency of the schools in matters secular are ready to stake their lives that the schools are religion's only teachers, and her best. The British ratepayer is ready to fight lustily for the right of making somebody else bring up his children in the fear of the Lord. Mr. Birrell's plan to make religious teaching a special charge upon the sects is highly unpopular. What the outcome will be, one may hardly predict, but this much is certain: that Parliament will yet spend many a weary hour upon the Education bill without giving any attention to its properly educational features.

Just before the adjournment of the Reichstag, on May 28, the Government met with a severe rebuff. Its proposal to establish a Colonial Secretaryship, independent of the Foreign Office, was rejected by a vote of 142 to 119. The debate leading up to the decision was charged with passion. The whole disastrous colonial and military adventure in South Africa came under the sharpest criticism; and the sense of the Reichstag evidently was that, instead of swelling the military expenditure, troops should rather be withdrawn. In fact, the proposed Government credits for South Africa were deeply cut into. Thereupon Col. von Deimling, who was about to go to the colony to take command, made a violent speech, declaring that, no matter what the Reichstag did, he would never withdraw a single soldier "unless my Emperor issues a command to that effect." This led to a stormy scene. The Radical leader, Herr Müller-Sagan, resented the use of such language by an officer. If he spoke for the Government, the Reichstag would know what answer to make. If for himself, the reply was that if it was in the interest of Germany for the troops to be withdrawn, "they will be withdrawn, Col. von Deimling, whether you wish it or not!" The Clericals joined in the rebuke, and the Government had practically to disavow the impetuous Colonel. Even so, it could not get its measures passed, and meekly accepted a return to the old system of a Director of the Colonial Department within the Foreign Office.

Diplomatic relations between Rumania and Greece have been severed, but it is hard to see how these nations can take the logical next step of going to war. Their nearest frontiers are separated by two neutral Powers, their seacoasts can be attacked only by passing the Dardanelles, which by the Treaty of Berlin are barred to all non-Turkish war vessels. The case is grievous beyond record. All except the most fanatical advocates of international peace have conceded that nations must fight on a point of honor. The evident corollary to that dictum is that, in such case, nations should be put in a position to fight it out. We can recall no similar instance where nations in dire debate were restricted to a mere cessation of diplomatic civilities. It is distinctly for the Hague Conference to provide relief for such an intolerable situation. Since the basis of the dispute is largely religious, there might at least be provided a polemical arena for the Archbishop at Bucharest and the Athenian Patriarch. Meantime the Vlachs and Greeks in Macedonia will possibly continue to give a very good individual imitation of the warfare that is forbidden to their respective fatherlands.

THE EFFECT ABROAD.

The lot of the self-respecting American travelling in Europe has not, for the past few years, been a happy one. Scandals at home have pursued him across the sea. Hard upon the exposure of corruption in the public service, with high officials smirched or indicted or found guilty, came the revelations of unsoundness in private commercial morals. The insurance crookedness of last year was followed and accentuated this year by the uncovering of graft in the Pennsylvania Company; now comes the reverberating scandal of the packing business, with every one wondering what reputation is next to fall crashing. The inevitable effect upon European opinion was strikingly set forth in a recent dispatch to the *Sun* from its London correspondent. This was the more remarkable for appearing in a newspaper which has long made a specialty of flamboyant patriotism. To one not only at ease but boastful in Zion, the disagreeable information is given:

> "It becomes the duty, however painful, of any conscientious correspondent to inform his countrymen of the indictment which the world at large is bringing against them, and to warn them that it is not corporate criminals alone who are being arraigned. It is the whole American people who stand to-day at the bar of public opinion before their sister nations. Never before has American commercial honor been so attacked abroad. Never before have the American people been so criticised for neglecting their primary public duties.
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> "The Old World has come to believe in general terms that American business methods are rotten. It is a sad thing to write of the reputation of one's country, but it is the simple truth, and the truth had better be told without disguise. It will take more than a paper reorganization of the great life-insurance companies and a cleaning of the Augean stables at Chicago to restore European belief in American honesty and fair dealing. It will be a long time before public opinion on this side of the Atlantic will have any confidence in American corporate reform."

To be entirely fair, we must bear in mind the fact that there has been much exaggeration in the dispatches sent to the London press by its correspondents in this country. With English journalism growing yellower every year, its American news becomes more lurid. One has only to look at the telegrams sent from this side to the *Standard*, the *Tribune*, the *Telegraph*, the *Daily Mail*, and the *Express*, to see that their correspondents are expected to transmit whatever is startling or repulsive, without too close scrutiny or too great moderation of statement. Even the London *Times* has been partially swept away. It has, for example, in this very matter of the meat-scandals, credulously printed all the stories and rumors afloat here. For all this, allowance has certainly to be made. If American business dishonor is hurting our prestige abroad more than could the loss of a dozen battles, American yellow journalism, playing into the hands of ignorant or unscrupulous English correspondents, is inflaming foreign suspicion and heightening our national disgrace.

With every deduction made, however, the case is black enough. Americans abroad must be re-reading with new response of soul the lines which Lowell wrote in Europe in 1873:

> "I scanned the festering news we half-despise
> Yet scramble for no less,
> And read of public scandal, private fraud,
> Crime flaunting scot-free while the mob applaud,
> Office made vile to bribe unworthiness,
> And all the unwholesome mess
> The Land of Honest Abraham serves of late."

The very quotation suggests a hope. In 1873, the country seemed to be at nadir. Lowell did not exaggerate the impression. All honest Americans felt it, and were ashamed by it. Yet better days followed. In public affairs, a powerful reform movement set many things right. From Grant through Hayes to Cleveland meant an immense toning up. There are signs of similar recuperative forces at work now. Any one with a memory for the ups and downs of American politics during the past thirty years will be on his guard against appearing a "too quick despairer."

Yet the ugly feature of our present situation, causing so malign an effect abroad, is the discovery that commercial immorality is widespread. We have been familiar with political corruption, if not too tolerant of it. In the kinds of business touched by politics also, we have come to expect a certain amount of bribery and stealing. Insurance corruption seemed to go naturally with Insurance Departments to be hoodwinked or "squared," and bosses and Legislatures to be bought. Similarly, the railroad lobby has had its well-understood meaning. All along, too, that organized system of political corruption which we call protection, has been doing its demoralizing work. But we had not, until lately, believed that our standards of commercial honor were low; that business men would cheat and bribe and feather their own nests without being tempted or compelled thereto by politicians. This comfortable confidence, however, has now been badly shattered. We have seen high railroad officials shamelessly taking bribes. We have seen a great business of world-wide scope conducted with callous disregard of health and good faith. This is the sort of thing that makes Europeans suspect us and Americans hang their heads.

"Somebody ought to be punished." True; and the punishment has already fallen. Severer penalties than any statute could inflict have been visited, and will continue to be visited upon the guilty. Correction and amendment are more imperative than punishment. The chance to "do something for the country" was never better for the true patriot; and the way for him to go about it is not to clamor for vengeance upon some conspicuous offender, but to look to himself. What are his own motives? Does he lament the poor opinion of us held abroad simply because it means lowered reputation and loss of trade, or because it means a state of morals of which we all ought to be heartily ashamed? Repentance and reform can never be vicarious. If every man of us would resolve to leave off cheating, whether profitable and undetected or not, and the condoning of cheats, we should be doing what we could to set up our nation in the considerate judgment of mankind.

THE BLESSED WORD, "GOVERNMENT."

We are getting some excellent samples just now of the fallacies which men hug to their bosoms in connection with such ideas as "Government," "Government control," and the like. We frequently observe, for example, an awe-struck use of the word "official." One man says this, another alleges that; but a Government report is printed, and that is "official," putting an end to controversy. People will not look to the man behind the name. If Mr. James Bronson Reynolds comes along on his own hook and declares that he has made such and such startling discoveries, we take it for what it is worth. We know that his testimony may be ex-parte, and so we insist upon hearing others and checking off his evidence in every way possible. But the moment Mr. Reynolds is commissioned by the President to make a report, he at once becomes clothed with the sanctity and infallibility of "the Government"; and not to take his lightest word, or most innocent mistake, as gospel truth is treason and sacrilege. We see how this works when our ordinarily well poised neighbor, the *Times*, begins hurling the words "nullification" and "forgery" at Representative Wadsworth of the House Committee on Agriculture, simply because he sets up his own ideas against those of "the Government"—*i. e.*, Mr. Reynolds.

This is strangely at variance with our practice in Government prosecutions. When a man's property or life is in peril in the courts, State or national, no such sacrosanct character is attributed to what the Government says. After "the Government's case" is put in, it is open to the sharpest scrutiny and challenge and attack by opposing counsel. Because the District Attorney is "official," no one would plead that what he says should close all mouths. We know that he is just as subject to mistake or prejudice as any other man; and lawyers feel it their duty to contest "the Government" vigorously in order that it may clearly appear whether the Government (that is, the fallible men at the moment representing it) is blundering or not. But when some one comes forward in a mat-

ter of public business and says, "This is a Government report, and these facts and recommendations are official," we are expected to sit down like so many Persians under a decree of the Shah, and never dare for a moment to inquire for ourselves or frame our own conclusions.

As we said at the first, we think the report of Messrs. Neill and Reynolds establishes the existence of repulsive and unnecessary evils in some of the Chicago packing houses. They are, indeed, an old story. Local inspection by the Chicago health officers confirms them in part. But they were, in part, impeached by the testimony of Mr. Wilson before the House Committee on June 6. It would seem that Mr. Wadsworth and his colleagues do not think it a crime to ask what the truth is. They talk of going to Chicago to look for themselves. And even if the facts in the Government report remain substantially unshaken, it is not, as some appear to think, the act of a villain to dissent from its conclusions.

One good reason for dissent, or at least doubt, lies on the surface. We are asked to apply the magic of Government inspection to the Chicago slaughter-houses. They must be placed under the Bureau of Animal Industry, affirm the President's investigators. But they have already been under it, and with what result? Why, that its inspectors found nothing out of the way at all! They reported to the Secretary of Agriculture that the charges of 'The Jungle' were unfounded. So we have the infallible Government against the infallible Government. President Roosevelt is said to be very angry that the Bureau of Animal Industry did not discover the abuses which his personal agents found. Yet the latter recommend that the same negligent Bureau be given more power than before! Who will inspect the inspectors?

There is, of course, a natural explanation of the growing tendency to cast ourselves upon the national Government, entrusting it with one new function after another, and comfortably thinking that we are saved and all is well. The national authority seems to carry more weight than city, county, or State authority. To many interests, national in scope, we see it successfully applied, and we jump to the conclusion that it ought to be applied everywhere. Inspection and regulation by the Federal Government present themselves as more efficient than State or municipal. They often are so. But it is also alleged that they are more incorruptible. One form of the superstition that all good is to come from the Government is the notion that our city governments are rotten and our State administrations corrupt, but that energy resides in Washington to purify the national service. Granting, in the face of strong evidence to the contrary, that this might be true for a time, it could not long be true. If the fountain is tainted, the waters cannot flow forth pure; and if we are too feeble or venal to maintain honest local governments, we shall not long have a sound national Government. The same men and systems that produce the one, create the other; the same corrupting forces that attack the one, also assault the other, and if one gives way, for lack of virtue or determination in the citizens, so will the other. The idea that you can take a grafting official, and, by removing the words "State Inspector" from the ribbon on his hat, and substituting "Government Inspector," make him an honest man, is one of the most hideous delusions that have come with the limp dependence upon "Government" as the source of all our strength and hope.

It is easy to propose and even carry through such innovations as the President is urging. "Safeguarding the food of the people!" Certainly. Who dares object? Are you going to raise whimseys about the Constitution and our settled form of government when so great a good is to be done? But those who say this only confirm our point. There is such a prevalent craze about confiding everything to "Government" that people have left off reasoning from cause to effect; refuse to look at the ultimate consequences of a political principle if it seems to minister to their present comfort; and delude themselves with abstractions instead of considering real things and living men. But the reaction will come, and we shall discover again the old truth that if we cannot keep our own yards clean, we cannot make the national domain sweet and pure.

CROP ESTIMATES IN THE MAKING.

"It is in the United States," says the Keep Commission, in its report now published in full as a Senate document, "that the making of crop estimates and expressing the results in figures on a percentage basis has been developed." So we ought, seemingly, to regard the crop estimates, although they are not yet out of the zone of fire in Washington, as a characteristic national institution. It is also one naturally calculated to appeal to Yankee ingenuity. Given something like ten million agriculturalists, distributed over something like three million square miles of land, and spending their time cultivating all manner of vegetable products, find the results of their labors before the crops are actually sold, expressed in bushels, tons, and bales. There was really something appropriate in the atmosphere of mystery which was always thrown about the crop estimates. Reports from over the country dribbled in and were secreted in ponderous safes, a consultation of grave men took place behind closed doors, and in due time there emerged the long-awaited numerals that set the country by the ears and sent the markets up or down—unless there happened to have been an anticipatory "leak."

It has been one of the services of the Keep Commission to tear off this veil of secrecy and show what the grave men were really doing behind the closed doors. It certainly took some hardihood to question in any way the authenticity of the cotton estimates in the face of the assurance that in their making there had been digested the reports of no less than 85,000 people! It took actually more people to make the cotton estimates than it did to make all the bakers' bread in the entire country, a quarter as many as it did to spin and weave the cotton after it was estimated. And yet the Census Bureau dared to set up the work of its 701 paid agents as a standard of accuracy.

How the Commission found the very number of these correspondents, indiscriminately selected and carelessly supervised, a source of weakness rather than of strength in the estimates has been told in the dispatches. Accuracy would be better served by dispensing with the 12,000 township correspondents, the 20,000 individual farmers, the 32,000 ginners, and most of the 16,000 "special correspondents" now on the books. Let the Bureau trust to trained men, pick them carefully, give them the best opportunities for observation, and pay them adequately, and its conclusions will be better entitled to respect than ever. Ten thousand men can make a more effective count of the objects in a large area than ten, but there is no reason why their guess or estimate without an actual enumeration should be even so good as that of the ten, if the ten happen to be experts at that sort of thing.

The Keep Commission's vindication of the returns from the census of agricultural products brings out sharply enough the fundamental distinction that exists between an estimate and a count. It finds that, out of the 102 counties in which the National Board of Trade pointed out that the Census Office had found actually more farm land than there were acres within the county lines, there were only nine cases in which blunders of clerks or enumerators caused the absurd result. The others were either accounted for by "normal error," or by the standing rule that a farm on the county line is supposed to be credited to the county in which its manager resides. The general confidence expressed by the Commission in the methods of the Census Bureau as regards agriculture is the more valuable in view of the amount of editing and working over which these schedules necessarily receive after their receipt at Washington. It is pointed out with approval, for instance, that in the census of 1900 for

the first time separate returns were asked on shelled corn and corn in the ear, with the money value of each, thus providing one more check on the accuracy of returns. The census volume on "Crops and Irrigation" itself tells how the discovery was made that enumerators were lumping "speltz," a bearded Russian grain, with ordinary oats, and how this error could be allowed for. Such necessary shifts of figures naturally occur chiefly in the minor crops, especially those which the census has but recently tried to include in its reports. Thus, the returns for green vegetables were received in every imaginable form, by "barrels," "crates," "bunches," "dozens," and "heads," which, with the expert assistance of market-men, had to be reduced to a common unit. Even the most carefully collected statistical data are very far from self-tabulating.

Some months ago, the Keep Commission raised the question whether advance estimates were really worth while on crops, like cotton, where the census returned annual figures of its own. The cotton estimates, which differed in 1904 by 4.2 per cent. from the census report of the same year, have been accuracy itself compared with some of the other returns. On corn the estimate of 1900 was 78 per cent. of the census return, on wheat 83, on oats 84, barley 61, rye 94, buckwheat—almost a perfect estimate—99, potatoes 84, and hay 68. It is over livestock, however, that the census, if so inclined, would be most entitled to gloat. Mr. Hyde's "statisticians" estimated that there were 13,537,524 horses on January 1, 1900; the census found 18,280,007 on June 1. The Bureau estimated 37,379,356 swine; the Census found 62,876,108. Estimates are valuable for just what they are; but, in the light of the investigations now published, it will not be possible for a long time to come for the public to swallow them as, in any sense, of authority equal or even comparable to those often unappreciated monuments of application, the census volumes.

THE TOWN MEETING FOR CITIES.

Newport adopted last week the new charter framed by the city's Municipal Association and granted by the Rhode Island Legislature last winter, thus in a day passing from a system of ward politics and sectional strife to a modified "town-meeting" scheme which is offered as a model for small cities. For a Council of 20—now made up of 12 Republicans and 8 Democrats—the new plan substitutes a non-partisan body of 195. From each of the five wards of the city 39 representatives are to be chosen, who, in the words of former Chief Justice Shaw of Massachusetts, shall "meet for the purpose of deliberation, instead of the whole body of electors." A Board of Aldermen is retained for executive work, and the powers of the Mayor are largely increased.

This Newport charter is an interesting adaptation of the admirable town-meeting idea that New England has cherished. Since 1855, when Newport formally became a city and gave up the town-council scheme that governed most Rhode Island municipalities, the charter had been stretched and distorted until it no longer satisfied the people. Newport's interests have been subordinated to those of ward politicians. For the past twenty-five years the successive mayors have appealed to the City Council to appoint a committee to draw up a new charter. Last December the Municipal Association was authorized to draft an act that should serve as a pattern for all small cities of the State. The committee that framed the charter was made up of representative men—lawyers, workingmen, and merchants. As explained by one of the most intelligent members, "the aim of the committee was to get back to first principles and common sense. The town-meeting system of old New England was an ideal government, for there was no corruption and no graft."

But in a city of 25,000 inhabitants, it was obviously impossible to bring all the electors together in a single meeting. What was decided upon as an alternative was the selection of a Council big enough to represent every voter, which should elect the city officers and appropriate all money that should be spent by the city. The Council's power should be limited, however, to the appropriation of money; to the smaller Board of Aldermen was to be left the expenditure of the money, but only for the specific purpose indicated by the representative Council. The largest possible freedom of discussion in the latter's meetings was to be encouraged. Any citizen who objected to an appropriation by the Council, or to any of its policies, was given the right to circulate and present petitions to that body. On the petition of 150 electors, a referendum was to be granted on questions affecting the city. In the election of this Council of 195 men, it was provided that no party emblem or attribution should appear on the ballot—merely the candidate's name and address. Instead of a partisan body of 20, therefore, the city proposed to provide itself with a non-partisan body of sufficient size to insure the putting of the city's interests ahead of those of any boss or political clique.

Sectional interests in a city of the size of Newport are likely to conflict; the committee kept in mind the necessity for bringing "downtown" and "uptown" together in sufficient numbers to thresh out their differences in an intelligent way. The hesitation felt by business men of the city in going into politics was to be overcome. Local bosses who, under the old charter, could make a merchant "be good" on threatening him with local legislation designed to ruin his business, would be harmless under the new law. A candidate for this great council was not to be chosen in caucus. Thirty signatures of electors in the candidate's ward and a filing of his nomination paper in the city clerk's office was hit upon as the method for getting a name on the ballot. The most serious objection urged by the genuine doubters was that thirty-nine men could not be found in each ward who would consent to stand for election. But this question was disposed of in the campaign made by the new charter's friends, who pointed to Brookline, Mass., which is of about the same population as Newport, and which retains the old town meeting. There, it was found, the average attendance for purposes of deliberation is about that proposed for the limited town meeting or representative council of Newport.

Simplicity and publicity were aimed at in framing the Newport charter, but it seems to possess, besides, an educational value that cannot be overlooked. In a recent paper by the president of the American Civic Association the ignorance of the average "good" citizen about the most elementary principles of municipal finance was strikingly pointed out. The elector who knows the salary of the mayor of his city is the exception. The assessed valuation of a city, its tax rate, the city debt, and the rate of interest paid on it, the constitutional debt limit, and the valuation of property for purposes of taxation—all these matters, and more, are as unfamiliar to the average city man with the right to vote as are the details of the administration of the Panama Canal zone. In such a body as the Newport representative council, intelligent voters will have a better opportunity to learn how they are governed and for what the money they pay as taxes is spent. This is the sort of knowledge that must precede any effective plan to improve municipal government.

THE WEALTHY LOWER CLASSES.

Whatever the recent anti-capitalistic campaign may have effected, it has at least caused a right-about-face in the general attitude towards wealth. For a matter of fifty years every American boy has been taught both that he was the architect of his own fortunes and that he must build big. The millionaire was held before the barefoot boy as a shining goal. We were unhesitatingly assured that the self-made man of great riches was the noblest work of the American commonwealth, if not of God. Among the ultra-successful there was no doubt of this doctrine. To be sure, there were rifts in the lute of universal adulation. The Goulds, Fisks, and Wards had

occurred, but it was believed that they were highly exceptional. There was nothing to shake the faith of the average millionaire in the exemplariness of his own career. In fact, the acquirement of colossal wealth passed for something like a self-sacrificing virtue. It encouraged the conviction that the cap of every American boy covered a potential millionaire.

How quickly the revulsion has come about may be gathered from the fact that it is only four years since the feast given by our "captains of industry" was widely said to be the most impressive spectacle that America could show to Prince Henry of Prussia. To-day many of these captains are variously under investigation or suspected, universities are rebuked for receiving their money, warrant-servers seek their persons, their hegemony has sunk to that of a world of graft. A "social philosopher" declares in the *North American Review* the inexpediency of any American citizen being permitted to earn more than the salary of the President of the nation. In short, great wealth is now on the defensive, its possession requires explanation if not apology. The virtuous scion of ten generations of clergymen or bank clerks may now turn up his nose and thank Heaven that there never was a captain of industry in his family.

Possibly the moral indignation of the have-nots against the haves is excessive. The well-to-do, and even the poor, frequently enjoy their privileged condition through no merit of their own. The salaried man who is inclined to rejoice inordinately in his superior lot should recall that only accident may have kept the golden bar sinister off his escutcheon—but for the grace of God he might be personally even as the Armours and Rockefellers. In fact, we counsel such a person not readily to give place unto wrath, but to fix his attention rather upon the blessedness of his own condition. Better be a serene retail hatter than a fevered excoriator of the Trusts. The Horatian mood retains its value, and we can imagine an entire generation of folk neither poor nor rich murmuring, *Beatus ille qui procul negotiis*, with a new relish.

Certainly, the delights of the middling lot have received fresh illustration from the recent embarrassments of the unco' rich. The obscure citizen may put his Sunday quarter in the plate without fearing the echo, "Tainted money." He is not subject to the importunity of those who would force free stock upon him, but may select and buy such securities as his judgment approves; he is not liable to the harrassing debate whether his Trust should be fined or his person imprisoned; even his passions and weaknesses are safeguarded by the withholding of his annual insurance dividends, while no such fence against temptation surrounds mere insurance presidents. Finally, the average prudent man may bargain for his services without being enjoined for restraint of trade; he may accumulate "green trading stamps" without falling under the law against receiving rebates; he may kill and even can his own chicken without dread of theorists, chemists, or sociologists. To contrast with this care-free lot that of the millionaire, subject, as it is, to all manner of suspicion and actual constraint, is superfluous.

A further and rarer felicity awaits the man who adroitly steers between poverty and riches. He may fairly aspire to association with gentlefolk—with the unheeded mass among which good manners and the older social amenities have taken refuge. What one may call the gentler pleasures of life are largely forbidden to the energetic persons who manage colossal deals in the morning and symbolically huge motors and steam-yachts afternoons and Sundays. Under modern conditions of business success, it is possible, perhaps, but most difficult, to practise the finest of all arts—that of living. We opine that these considerations should turn wrath against the financial generation now in the pillory into something like compassion. What a positive good fortune, it should seem, to work in a calling where ruthlessness is not the condition of success, and where the over-accumulation of money is not the goal.

To-day a wise father might well say: "Son, from generation to generation this family has earned its living and paid its bills, it has had the privilege of honest and gentle associations, no member has condescended to be very rich, none has been indecently poor; it is for you to be worthy of this tradition—to keep your family in reasonable comfort and yourself out of the committees, courts, and newspapers." That this would be good advice cannot readily be gainsaid; that it will be universally given may be doubted. Sufficient volunteers will probably be found to undertake the invidious and disadvantageous succession of the present magnates. Many more, we trust and confidently believe, will shake off the cant and cult of mammonism, readjust their standards, and come to a state of mind equally removed from sullen envy of the wealthy lower classes and from discontent at their own humble but highly favored lot.

THE PARIS SALONS.

PARIS, May, 1906.

That there is something wrong with the two Salons, French critics have been assuring us for the last few years. The old Salon continues to be what it has ever been since the unfortunate secession from it of almost all its most distinguished and brilliant contributors; the new Salon is fast sinking, if it has not quite sunk, to as low a level. It was with pleasure, therefore, that I heard of the Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts' proposal to give this spring a retrospective show covering the sixteen years of its existence. For it seemed to me as if in this record of the past might be found a clue to the present demoralization or stagnation among artists, and I waited for the chance of comparison it promised before my usual visit to the two Salons.

Unfortunately, the retrospective show has turned out the greatest disappointment of all. It is held in the two Pavillons de Bagatelle, in the most charming part of the Bois de Boulogne; and if you happen to have a morning or an afternoon to idle away in delightful gardens, with enchanting views from every terrace, the excursion is more than worth while. But if your object is the serious study of modern art, you might just as well spare yourself the long drive or longer journey by train and tram, and remain content with the ten thousand or so pictures and prints in the better-known galleries nearer the centre of Paris. The show has no claim to the name of retrospective except the fact that no new work by the few members of the Society who have a place is shown. The collection is not representative. I cannot imagine on what principle the selection was made, nor can I see that it has any object save to furnish an excuse for the opening of the two Pavilions to the public. The rooms are pleasantly arranged, and this is about the best that can be said for them. The artists appear to have been chosen at haphazard, and in no case is their finest or most characteristic work included.

There are a few not very remarkable examples of Puvis de Chavannes, Cazin, and Alfred Stevens, the usual portrait as a peg for millinery by M. Carolus-Duran and M. Roll. Of the theories and tendencies and movements of the last sixteen years, you can learn absolutely nothing; not as much as a suggestion is to be had of the great development in black-and-white, and the experiments in color-printing that, for long, made the section of drawings and prints the most interesting at the new Salon. Really, I saw little of any importance save three portraits by Carrière, painted in the eighties before he had allowed his mannerisms to grow upon him; a small but strong and beautifully modelled head of a boy by Mr. Dannat—a head that makes one wonder the more at Mr. Dannat's recent excursions into sensationalism and his present absence from contemporary shows; and a head of a girl, wonderfully fresh and charming, by M. Besnard. One other thing I noted—how quickly the painter of fashion goes out of fashion: it is not many years since the death of Duez, a popular portrait painter of his day, and already his large and elaborate portraits of women, two of which are hung, strike one as curiously vulgar and vapid.

It may be, after all, that the clue wanted was to be had in those three portraits by Carrière. A whole room has been devoted to his work at the new Salon. There are large canvases, portraits, the family groups one knows so well—those tragic impressions of maternity—studies and sketches, undeniably a characteristic series. It must be admitted that the result is sadly monotonous, and, though I hesitate to say it, tiresome. Carrière is one of the artists who cannot stand a "one-man"

show. Look at two or three even of his latest pictures, and you see only their beauty and all that is genuine and true in them; look at a number gathered together, and you feel only the convention, the mannerism, to which he yielded until in the end his eyes were closed to everything else. There is all the atmosphere you could ask for in the three portraits of the Bagatelle collection, and in one, of a mother and child, all the tenderness and sentiment. But there is no trace as yet of the mist, the fog, which from that period on began to envelop his pictures, while the figures in them faded into vague, dim phantoms. Put those three portraits in the Carrière room at the Grand Palais, and you could not but realize what Carrière, though he remained always the artist, lost by his absorption in a convention that, springing originally from his very personal way of looking at things, led him eventually to mistake it for nature. Never yet has an artist relied solely upon convention and not been weakened or wrecked by it. And this probably accounts for part at least of the stagnation, as it is described, of modern art. Go the rounds of the new Salon, and you will quickly learn how many besides Carrière have given themselves up more and more to the convention, the mannerism, the eccentricity that may first have made their fame. You can pass over the painters who endeavor to thrive on the conventions of others; you can pass over the painters who in their turn, like Duez in his, are the popular portraitists of the day; you can pass over the weaklings, the amateurs, the sensationalists who ought never to have been permitted to litter up already overcrowded walls. But come at once to the painters of genuine distinction, originality, technical accomplishment, and what do you find?

Take, for instance, M. Boldini: there is no one now at work who has a greater command of his medium, or can give you life itself on his canvas with greater vividness. But how he has let his facility and vivacity run away with him! He shows three portraits this year. One, the usual fashionable lady in the usual fashionable attire—a three-quarters length on an oval canvas—is treated with something like reticence. But the others! On two large upright canvases he has painted, with the directness, the certainty of touch that is so astounding, two women arrayed in the last extreme of the very last fashion. The rendering of textures is amazing—indeed, too amazing; for it is the very dexterity with which the violet-and-rose and the black-and-white "creations" are reproduced in all their elaboration of stuffs and fidelity to the mode, together with the distorted impossibility of the figures, the absurd and meaningless pose of arms and hands, the vacuous expression of the faces, that makes both portraits seem no better than the caricatures of fashion plates upon which, of late years, it has amused M. Boldini to squander his ability and knowledge. Or, take again an artist as different in vision and method as M. Aman-Jean. We are familiar now with his portraits, languid in pose and color, self-conscious in arrangement, but with an unmistakable personal charm. The charm, however, is gradually being lost in the languor. To judge from exhibited results, you might think that M. Aman-Jean could scarcely summon up energy enough even to paint. His canvases diminish in number and size. He has managed to send only three to the present Salon, and these, in their vagueness and pallor, would seem to have exhausted him. From one, a young girl, in pale rose, looks out with a languor less inane, to be sure, but hardly surpassed by the languishing grace of the handkerchief-box beauty. In a second, shadowy figures in shadowy purple draperies move aimlessly and languorously about a tranquil lake in the twilight. All three carry you to a world where the very shadows droop under the burden of weariness.

M. Besnard, who is more vigorous and less mannered, cannot escape the decorative formula that is of such service to him in his mural decorations, but is not so appropriate to his portraits, and this year he shows only portraits. One is of M. Barrère, French Ambassador at Rome, but the painter's interest, it is evident, was all for the splendor of the official uniform and of the spacious room where the ambassador stands, a patient and convenient dummy; the other is a family group against a conventional landscape background, but the mother and her four children, who are arranged on the old pyramidal principle, and seen in the "open air" and gay light of the modern studio, belong less to the actual world than to the land of decorative panels. To this land, M. Gaston La Touche's large "Fête de Nuit" makes no pretence of not belonging. It was painted for the Palais de l'Élysée, and is now placed in a room at the Salon specially prepared for it, where, with his other pictures, it hangs on walls of a neutral yellow instead of the usual red so disastrous to the gayety of his color and the quality of his light. Lovers, in a brilliantly illuminated boat, floating through the mystery of night, or, in a scarlet coach, driving through the falling gold of the autumn woods; a woman (a nude) by a stream in the same woods—these are M. La Touche's subjects. And he sees them in the light that, before now, has shone in many of his pictures; he uses them as motives for schemes of color that threaten to become hackneyed by his own abuse of them. And so it is with painters of distinction like M. Lhermitte, M. Billotte, M. Ménard, M. Sidaner, M. Thaulow, M. Buysse, M. Claus, who repeat themselves until each year's pictures seem little more than a repetition of last year's, with only some slight variation in theme and scale. And some of the younger men of promise, like Mr. Frieseke, are in danger of falling, all too soon, into the same trick of repetition. Mr. Frieseke's women grow more wooden with time, puppets upon which he hangs his delicate harmony of Whistler-inspired color. Or others, like Mr. Childe-Hassam—who has two fresh, bright landscapes and a clever nude, a woman at her toilet seated before a mirror—are too willing to devote their cleverness to reëchoing Monet or one of the other French Impressionists.

It is a pleasure, in the midst of so much that is perfunctory or lifeless, reminiscent or imitative, to come upon the work of Mr. Morrice, who has had the courage to seek new motives under new conditions, and to study them for himself under these conditions, instead of adapting them to a well-worn recipe. He has exchanged the boulevards of Paris and the French seashore for Canada and its snowcovered fields and towns and shops; and he has shown that he can feel no less the beauty there is in the white lonely road under an incredibly blue sky, or the square wooden base of a house perched primly in the cold white wintry landscape, or the little row of houses so like a French village, facing the snowy street. There is nothing of the realistic rendering of snow and ice that astonishes one in M. Thaulow's versions of the Scandinavian winter; Mr. Morrice gives rather the aspect, the feeling of this frozen landscape with its pure cold color, its cold white light, the subtle gradations and effects in its vast expanse of white broken by the swift sleigh, or by the little house, unlovely in itself, but of such pictorial value.

M. Cottet is another artist with the courage of experiment. His Brittany and Bretons have been deserted—for an interval anyway—and he has painted instead three large, full-length studies of the same model, or sitter, under different effects of light. She stands, the background no more than indicated, first in the light of noon, then in a gray light, then by lamplight. It must be confessed, however, that the explanation in the catalogue is necessary, for in no one of the three does the light quite explain itself. It is true, too, that the color is dingy and dirty. But there is character and observation in face and figure, there is the painter's attempt to see something for himself and to solve a new problem. An arrangement of Pont-en-Royans in Dauphiné also has character. The town, climbing up picturesquely from the mountain stream against the grim mountain range, is a contrast in every way to the Breton village or the bare sweep of Breton countryside in M. Cottet's earlier pictures. M. Simon seldom paints a portrait for the sake of the portrait alone, and not also for the difficult or amusing effect of light or atmosphere it may suggest. "Jour d'été" he calls his group of three children, and with reason, for you can see how much less concerned he was with the children than with his study of summer sunshine as it came streaming in upon them through an open window.

It is surprising how few are the good or notable portraits. M. Caro-Delvaille, from whom such great things were expected, hardly justifies the expectation, though his ambition is not at fault in his large portrait groups of three musicians and of Mme. G. D. and her children, and though there are passages in both of rare beauty. Fantin-Latour never did anything better than the vase of roses and the loose sheets of music on the piano in the picture of the musicians. But the piano itself is clumsy; it seems to fill the canvas, crowding the figures into the corner, as if the painter had felt the impossibility of getting anything save its own clumsiness out of it. M. Carolus-Duran has had only men for sitters—one a cardinal—but they have not saved him from the meretriciousness of his later manner. M. Blanche is not at his best, least of all in the portraits of Mr. Shannon and Mr. Ricketts, already exhibited in London; a peculiar luridness in the flesh tints and an exaggerated modelling in the faces are the unpleasant substitutes for expression and character. M. Roll, in a

large equestrian portrait—"Le Dragon"—is melodramatic; Borchardt, in his "Emperor William," who wears what I take to be a hunting costume, is simply comic. Mr. Sargent has nothing, neither has M. Gandara; it is long since Mr. Alexander and Mr. Humphreys-Johnstone have been represented. Other men for whom one always looks with interest are absent. M. Louis Legrand sends no pictures, nor does Mr. Maurer. Though there seems to have been a general exodus of painters to Spain, M. Zuloaga, who is mainly responsible for it, does not appear. M. Anglada is here, however, and has lost nothing of his skill in the rendering of strong, brilliant color. His "Fiancée de Benimanet," in an extraordinary flowered gown, standing by a mule that cannot be seen for the gorgeousness of its trappings, would, less skilfully treated, degenerate into vulgarity and garishness, but in his hands becomes a technical triumph, if little more. As for M. Garrido, in one canvas he repeats himself—this time painting a whole group of children's faces, almost all with the smile that made his reputation—and the State has bought the repetition; in two others, he tries to vie with the grotesques of M. Veber. But M. Veber does this sort of thing with more spirit, and he has a series of his little caricatures of life in paint as reminders of where M. Garrido found his model. When M. Veber uses the same method for an elaborate decoration, as he has done in "Les Contes de Fées" for M. Rostand, it can hardly bear the severity of the test. There is not much else to mention, except that M. Lobre and Mr. Gay are still the leaders for the small pictures of domestic architecture and interiors they brought into vogue, though this year M. Lobre has been working also in the churches of Chartres, but with less success than in his drawing-rooms; that Mr. Vail has some new arrangements of Venice, where he has found so many motives; that M. Storm von Gravesande exhibits for the (to my knowledge) first time as painter, showing several clever little studies of still-life.

The sculpture is even less interesting than the painting. M. Rodin, as if holding himself in reserve for the society of which he is now the president, contributes only a small head, full of character, but catalogued vaguely as "Sculpture." I discovered nothing else of special note. There are signs of lassitude again in the section of prints and drawings, where, only a few years since, was so much life and vigor. Save for the pastels of Louis Legrand, Luigini, and Steinlen, the etchings of Legrand and Maclaughlin—the same he exhibited at the International—the woodblocks of Schmied, there was not much to strike one particularly one way or the other. Indeed, the section of prints in the old Salon, where Sir Seymour Haden and Mr. Pennell show their etchings, Mr. Belleroche and M. Dillon their lithographs, Mr. Wolf his wood-engravings, is now altogether as noteworthy.

The pictures at the old Salon, however, have degenerated more hopelessly into convention or commonplace. M. Harpignies continues to command attention by the dignity of design and solemnity of sunshine in his landscapes; M. Pointelin to move you by the tragedy and serenity of his moorland, though, this year, he has a wooded stretch of country in the morning light that, for him, is almost gay. Mr. Cooper's Philadelphia and New York "skyscrapers" make, I believe, their first appearance at the Salon. M. Bail paints still-life with his accustomed cleverness, M. Bonnat and the others provide the expected portrait. But the one painting—or series of paintings—I need now mention is the decoration for the Capitol at Toulouse by M. Henri Martin. It is shown with the care a large work of this kind is so apt to receive in Paris. A room apart has been reserved for it, so that some idea can be formed of its effect in the hall for which it is destined. On one side is the long panel representing mowers at work, already hung in a previous Salon and then described by me; on the other, a conventionalized Toulouse, its red brick, warm in the sunshine of the Midi, seen from the opposite river-bank, where people of the town—some of the figures are portraits—wander and linger in strained attitudes that suggest an unaccountable intensity of feeling. The town is well arranged, but to the people, though they gaze upward to heaven or down to earth with an emotion invented to meet the needs of the design, the painter has not succeeded in giving the pictorial interest of his peasants in more picturesque loose shirts and large, broad-brimmed hats, who move with the natural and rhythmical grace of the mower at work. I am not sure that the light and colors M. Martin gets from his broken brushwork and restless technique will prove exactly restful to the Toulousains, who enter the Capitol with eyes already dazzled by the sunshine and glare of their streets and squares.

In the Sculpture Court is the accustomed collection of statues and busts and huge florid monuments, mostly able in execution, but forced and theatrical, so fierce is the competition for applause where craftsmen share such a fair average of accomplishment. Most interesting to Americans is the equestrian statue of Gen. McClellan by Mr. MacMonnies, designed for Washington. It has not the inspired swagger of Mr. Saint-Gaudens's Sherman, but it is restrained and dignified. The General sits well upon the horse, and the horse makes no fantastic, melodramatic leap into space, but stands safely on its pedestal.

Much other good and scholar-like work there may be—and is. But the great evil of modern picture exhibitions is the large scale upon which they are planned, so that the good and scholar-like work cannot always hold its own against the flamboyant performance of the notoriety-seeker and the sensation-monger. N. N.

THE VALLEY OF THE SINALOA.

SINALOA, MEXICO, March, 1906.

A unique geographic feature of northern Sinaloa is a long range of mountains reaching out at right angles from the Sierra Madre in a westerly direction to within thirty-five miles of the Gulf of California, sharply dividing the lower portion of the Fuerte watershed from that of the Sinaloa River. The range is cut through by a low pass near Ocoroni, giving rise to the local distinction of the eastern part of the range as the Sierra de Tasajera, while the seaward extension is called the Sierra de San Blas. Although this divergence of an important mountain range from the axis of the orogenic movements of so great a system as the Sierra Madre, with which it is connected, is remarkable enough, still more so is the close correspondence of its geological structure to that of the mother range. Here are the same vast accumulations of andesites, andesitic breccias and tuffs, overlaid by caps, now deeply eroded, formed by successive flows of rhyolite, all shot through by later dikes of trap. It is a singular phenomenon, this narrow ridge, with so diversified a history of stupendous volcanic activity, rising clean-cut out of the broad plain to altitudes of from 2,000 to 5,000 feet, without foothills or lava steps. Journeying toward the south, one emerges from the pass suddenly into the broad, fertile valley of the Ocoroni. At the same time one is conscious of having reached a climate that is softer and sweeter than the Fuerte valley. The Tasajera-San Blas range is a climatic as well as geographic barrier.

There are no such cotton lands anywhere on the west coast as those along the Ocoroni River, nor is there any region of equal extent so ideally beautiful. The crystal river winds through well-drained bottom lands, reaching thirty miles from the town of Ocoroni to the eastward, where the vista ends in the blue domes and pinnacles of the great Sierra. On the north is the rugged outline of the Tasajera range, while the southern border consists of low wooded hills forming the front of the elevated mesa called the Tabla de Ocoroni. The latter is a broad expanse of gravelly plain, densely covered with a scrubby growth of multitudinous species of acacia and other trees, here and there broken by open grassy savannas, ranged over by herds of cattle. The stage road across this mesa is like a park drive, firm and level, winding through shrubbery resplendent with the yellow bloom of acacias and Brazilwood and the gorgeous pink crowns of *amapas*. But it is a still place, strikingly songless after the bursts of melody from the mocking-birds, larks, wrens, and sparrows of the river bottoms. Now and then a large hare, a *tochi* or a *conejo*, loped across the road, and once a tiger-cat stole into sight, took a hurried glance at the intruders upon his solitudes, and then flung himself precipitately into the hidden depths of the woods. No human abodes are here, for the soil is shallow and poor and the few water-holes are not permanent. From the edge of the Ocoroni valley to the very confines of the city of Sinaloa, broken only by the narrow valley of the Cabrera arroyo, is an uninhabited and most inhospitable wilderness.

At Sinaloa, however, nature is fruitful and generous again. Her bounty has called into being a well-built city on the banks of the Sinaloa River, in a broad valley with flashing canefields, where pillars of smoke are rising at this season from the sugar mills, interspersed with long *potreros* (the name given in Mexico to fields of corn-stubble), now full of cattle nibbling at the remaining stalks. On all sides are wooded hills and rugged mountains, most conspicuous being the Sierra de Mapiri in the east, crowned by the precipitous peaks of Casanate. The river is one of extreme fluctuations between the majesty of roaring floods and the insignificance of a dwindled stream half filtering through expansive gravel

bars. But the fertility of its valley is abundantly evidenced by the signs of agricultural prosperity, and this condition continues down to the coastal plain, where it is joined by the Ocoroni valley at Guasave, the most favored spot, by virtue of its climate and its rich loose loams, in the entire length of the Sinaloan coast.

Sinaloa is a city with a past, both in wealth and political importance, but it does not occupy a commanding position geographically, and so seems destined to play a minor rôle in the future development of the State. It is solidly built, and enjoys the distinction of having water works; but as the intake for the pumping station is so situated as to capture a goodly portion of the city's drainage, this does not constitute a particularly attractive improvement. It is a great stronghold of the Church, and was once an important mission station. The Romanesque tower of the old mission church has resisted the destructive effects of time and flood, and is still an imposing structure, simple but elegant in its perfection of outline and proportion.

To realize the full beauty of this valley one should view it at sunset from the heights of Buena Vista, ten miles east of Sinaloa, when the evening colors lie upon the winding waters in the fertile *vegas*, and the white city, nestling against its hills, is etherealized by the amethystine hue that envelops the distant landscape. From Buena Vista to Bacubirito is a succession of bosky hills, with an occasional glimpse of the red cliffs of Casanate, and one superb vista of the wild Picachos de los Cuates, like another and greater Kremlin with its infinite minarets and domes. At Huera is a lovely cañon, with deep green pools and jewelled cascades, and dripping walls of rock overgrown with such a varied wealth of rare and exquisite plants as make it a veritable botanist's paradise. The abundance of water and the many rich intramontane valleys have resulted in a chain of prosperous settlements all the way to Bacubirito, so that the traveller can obtain plentiful comforts. (The novice in Mexican travel may question the existence of anything in the country districts which may be termed "comforts," but of this more anon.)

Bacubirito enjoys a setting of exquisite beauty as first seen from the heights south of the great bend of the Sinaloa River on which the city stands. Its white buildings, and the tall, white, graceful spire of the mission church of San Pedro, in the midst of a spreading green valley, stand out in brilliant, cameo-like relief against the deep blue wall of the Sierra de Ocorahui, the first of the mighty ridges which mount ever higher and higher to the region of labyrinthine cañons and snowy summits in the Sierra Madre. It is a beautiful picture, and arouses expectations which are not realized on entering the town. The church, though simple and inexpensive, is a model of elegant form, far surpassing anything that would be found in communities of 3,000 people in the United States. The early Spanish missionaries carried with them, and taught in enduring monuments, a fifth gospel of architectural beauty. How far they may be credited with the cultivation of artistic appreciation in other directions it were not easy to answer. That they taught the rudiments of many arts we know, but something must be allowed to the native tendency of the Mexican Indian to express himself in æsthetic form, else it would be difficult to account for the rare modelling and wood-carving that one so often finds among the rude dwellers of the hills who have not even had the opportunity of seeing the prototypes of their own artistic creations. So strong is this tendency that one of the difficulties which the American constantly encounters in directing labor in Mexico is to prevent his carpenters, masons, and machinists from expending undue time in the refinements of detail. The Mexican reaches out after beauty as the flower does after light. He ornaments his person, and bears his finery with grace. He turns his saddle and bridle into works of art; the common arriero's mule-brushes are things to delight the eye by their form and color; when he fences in his cornfield he weaves patterns of beauty with his wattles twisted from post to post; he sleeps on a *petate* woven with artistic designs. The spirit demanding that his works of utility shall combine a charm for the eye extends everywhere, even to the humblest laborers. The factory and the impatient utilitarian foreigner are fast crushing out the expression of this feeling for beauty, and in the name of progress the Mexican may lay aside the arts of his childhood, and, hanging up his guitar, become songless and money-getting; or he may grasp at the culture of civilization behind the first wave of financial development that is rolling in upon his country, and find better and larger means for revealing the soul and talent that lie in him.

Eastward from Bacubirito is a maze of mountains, carved out of the western edge of the elevated plateau known as the Sierra Madre, interspersed with pleasant valleys, so deeply cut by ages of erosion that the semi-tropical climate has been carried back in long lanes from the lowlands of the coast, giving rise to the oft-repeated phenomenon of canefields and gardens luxuriant with bananas and papayas (the *melon-zapote* of Mexico) surrounded by towering mountain walls leading within rifle range to pine-clad summits that invite the winter snows. In this region are mining districts still celebrated, like that of San José de Gracia, and the multitude of copper-gold veins being developed promises a revival of mining on a large scale. Through Bacubirito once passed the commerce of the great mines of Trigo, and a considerable portion of that of the world-famous mining town of Guadalupe y Calvo, as well as that of the once noted Guadalupe and San Manuel gold mines at La Cunibre de San Manuel, a district again attracting capital from England and the United States. The copper mines of Mapiri, and the gold placers of the Descubridora arroyo at the very doors of Bacubirito, are also contributing to brighten the future of this decadent foothill city.

Coming now to the question of Mexican comforts, it must be confessed that these are relative. The soft luxuries of civilization have not yet invaded the country districts. A bed in the modern sense does not exist. The wayfarer is expected here, as in Asia Minor and in northern Africa, to carry his bedding. But the good-natured, kindly ranchers will give you a snug place on the *portal* to roll up in your blankets and sleep, and, if you are sufficiently gracious, they may offer a braided rawhide *tarima* (bedstead) to keep you up from the hard ground. The great wide porch, or *portal*, is healthier and no doubt cleaner than a room, but, as a special mark of favor, a *pieza* will often be placed at the stranger's service. The instincts of the Mexican are all for courtesy and hospitality. If not forthcoming, it were well to consider what you may have said or done to forfeit his goodwill, or it may be that you are suffering for the sins of some of your less considerate predecessors. The forbearance of the Mexican in the face of the rude invasion of his premises and the wholesale appropriation of his household conveniences on the part of the average American, without ever a "thank you" or "by your leave," speaks volumes for his innate courtesy and fineness of feeling.

His wife, if encouraged by a proper show of politeness, will find much more to please the palate than *tortillas* and *chile con carne*. Her culinary repertory is by no means limited, and she usually has an embroidered or a drawn-work tablecloth, and some dainty dishes, with which to add grace to the feast for a favored guest. It will not do to judge by the first impressions of a rude and somewhat unkempt Mexican ranch house. These adobe and plastered wattle walls hide unsuspected mysteries of refinement and good taste, which are reserved for the elect. The staple foods are so different from those of other countries that they often seem coarser and less palatable to a newcomer than they really are.

Until one has attained complete indifference to the deprivation of butter and light bread, and looks forward with keen interest and appetite to his next meal of *tortillas*, he is in no proper frame of mind to appreciate either Mexican cookery or travel. The next step in adaptation to his environment is taken when he becomes critical of the finer points in the production of this national bread. When he can distinguish the difference between the mellower lowland corn and the harsher mountain corn, when he knows if the corn has lain too long in the lye, or has been hurried prematurely to the *metate* for grinding, and has learned the advantage of waiting patiently for the *comal* to become sufficiently hot to properly bake the cakes, his discrimination is refined for initiation into the subtler delights of *asadera* and *requeson*, those rare cheeses in which the Mexican housewife excels. The second curds, or *requeson*, obtained by gently heating the whey from the rennet-curds, is a viand of incomparable delicacy, to which a very gracious hostess will add the harmonious flavor of quince preserves. With growing experience the traveller will learn to look for honey, which abounds on every side; for tender cheese fritters with orange syrup; for *guay-abate* and other exquisite fruit pastes; and he will long marvel that a fried egg should remain such a greasy horror in the United States, when in Mexico it is as delicate as if it had been poached. There are good cooks and bad ones in Mexico as well as at home, and those who condemn the Mexican cuisine *in toto* are usually the same who aver that the Mexican speaks a jargon instead of the Spanish language. It raises a grave doubt as to his close acquaintance with either.

The overbearing manner of the average

American in Mexico, with his indiscriminate contempt for the people of every station in life, which he makes no effort to disguise, is not only humiliating, but is bad policy on the economic side. It arrays the people against us, and is responsible for a large share of that extortion which embarrasses nearly every enterprise which we establish in that republic. It is notable that Americans who affiliate cordially with the Mexicans do not suffer in this manner. We are now about to witness an attempt at the commercial conquest of Sinaloa by our people, which can be achieved with mutual good-fellowship to the eminent advantage of both if we are careful to maintain a spirit of fairness and fraternity. But Sinaloa is not California, and the brutal overwhelming of the Mexican population, which our courts and public opinion permitted there, cannot occur under the Mexican flag. The spirit and manners of the Californian pioneer will not aid in our peaceful invasion of Sinaloa, and it must be confessed that these unworthy characteristics are too much in evidence among the forerunners of that invasion.

COURTENAY DE KALB.

Correspondence.

THE SPANISH ARMADA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of the *Geographical Journal* for May (see your issue of May 31, p. 450) you say that, "in the year immediately before the sailing of the Armada, Sir Humphrey Gilbert reported to the Queen that there were 600 Spanish fishing-boats on the coast," etc. Was it not Sir John Gilbert who made this report? Sir Humphrey was lost at sea a few years earlier (1583). HENRY F. WATERS.

MELROSE, MASS., June 1, 1906.

[In our abstract from the *Journal*, we inadvertently wrote "year" for the "years" of the text.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

Among the autumn publications of the Macmillan Co. will be 'English Literature from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer,' by Prof. William Henry Schofield of Harvard; 'The German Workman: A Study in National Efficiency,' by William Harbutt Dawson; 'Thought and Things; or, Genetic Logic,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin; and 'The Romantic Composers,' by Daniel Gregory Mason.

'The Religion of Nature,' by E. K. Robinson, is in the press of McClure, Phillips & Co.

The third publication of the Club for Colonial Reprints (Box 1275, Providence, R. I.) will be 'The American Village,' a poem by Philip Freneau in facsimile of the original New York edition of 1772, which only came to light four years ago. Mr. Harry Lyman Koopman will provide an introduction, and Mr. Victor Hugo Paltsits some biographical data, which will add to our knowledge of Freneau's first printers, Inslee & Carr. The volume will be embellished, and but 100 copies will be printed.

Captain Mahan is directly antagonized in a work, 'Heresies of Sea Power,' on the eve of being brought out by Longmans, Green & Co. The author is Fred. T. Jane.

The seventeenth volume of Collections of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, edited by Dr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, deals with the French régime in the territory of the upper Great Lakes (1727-1748), in strict continuation of volume sixteen, whose range was from 1634 to 1727. The documents here Englished are of the same character, and have mainly been derived from the several French archives in Paris. They graphically illustrate the efforts of the French to complete their control over the Indian tribes, endangered by the hostility of the Foxes, and to promote their great object of fur collecting and trading. It is a most valuable service to history to have rendered them accessible in our vernacular.

Dr. Thwaites's indefatigable hand reappears in the introduction and notes to the latest volume in the valuable "Early Western Travels" series of reprints (Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.). Fur still leads him on, for the two Oregon narratives here united had a not remote reference to that trade. John B. Wyeth's 'Oregon' is the humorous and vivacious "short history" of the author's partial connection with his kinsman's transcontinental adventure. In John K. Townsend's sedate and humane 'Narrative of Journey across the Rocky Mountains to the Columbia River,' in company with the elder Wyeth, the naturalist prevails, and his observations of the Indians also occupy a large and interesting space. Townsend (1833-34) was already shocked by the wanton destruction of the buffalo. In a time of thirst, "I perceived that Richardson was masticating a leaden bullet to excite the salivary glands." A similar expedient was resorted to by Melville, of the ill-fated Arctic *Jeannette* expedition, as will be remembered by readers of his grewsome relation.

Mr. James Alexander Robertson's new translation of Pigafetta's relation of 'Magellan's Voyage around the World,' published by the Arthur H. Clark Co., in two volumes, with an additional index volume, is a work of laborious and admirable scholarship which should prove of interest both to professional students of history and ethnology and to the curious reader of travellers' tales. Not content with presenting for the first time in English a complete and unabbreviated version of Pigafetta's narrative of the first circumnavigation of the globe—Stanley's translation for the Hakluyt Society having omitted many passages of considerable ethnological significance—Mr. Robertson has been at the pains of making a literal transcript of the oldest Italian manuscript of Pigafetta, which is conserved in the Biblioteca Ambrosiana at Milan. This he has printed, with exceptional fidelity in the matter of abbreviations, shorthand symbols and spacing, on parallel pages with the English rendering. The tone of the translation is of a simplicity that, without imitating, suggests the naïveté of Hakluyt's men. The elucidative notes are abundant, and generally satisfactory. We have noted but two defects in this commendable undertaking—an over-subtlety of arrangement in the order of sub-entries in a highly analytical index, and the absence of the marginal notes, and even of the descriptive running-titles, which are particularly serviceable in aiding the reader of old voyages to keep his bearings as he follows a garrulous narrator through uncharted and perilous seas.

To their excellent series of "English Men of Action" the Macmillan Co. have now added 'Captain John Smith,' edited by A. G. Bradley. Within little more than two hundred small pages is condensed the variegated career of this remarkable man, whose life—even when divested of the marvellous adventures with which, most likely, his editor tricked it out to win the favor of a wonder-loving public, as Othello courted Desdemona with tales of men whose heads do grow beneath their shoulders—deservedly places him among England's heroes. Mr. Bradley cheerfully accepts the three Turks' heads, the Lady Tragabigzanda, and the rescue by Pocahontas (which Smith ungratefully forgot until sixteen years after his first narrative, by which time the Princess had become a favorite at James's court); nor do we in the least find fault with him for this, for Smith without Pocahontas would be like King Arthur without the Round Table. The whole story is agreeably told, and the book in every way pleasant to read.

Mr. Morton Luce's 'Handbook to the Works of William Shakespeare' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Company) seems to be accurate in statement and sound in its literary judgments, generally speaking, yet in looking over it there are probably few to whom the thought will not occur: "How much better a book is the 'Shakespere Primer' of Prof. Edward Dowden!"—to whom, by the way, Mr. Luce has dedicated the present work. To be sure, the 'Shakspere Primer' needs a thorough recasting to be brought up to date—for the same author's 'Introduction to Shakespeare' does not take its place; yet, even with this drawback, which, as far as school and college use is concerned, a competent teacher can do much to remedy, Professor Dowden's book continues to hold the first place among works of its class. It combines condensation with charm of style to a degree that renders it, in a certain way, a classic. On the other hand, it cannot be said that either of these qualities is conspicuous in Mr. Luce's 'Handbook,' although the style is agreeable enough but for a slight want of logical precision in the more general discussions. About three-fourths of the 457 pages which the book contains is given up to introductions to the individual works—each introduction being divided into two sections, "Historical Particulars" and "Critical Remarks." The same division, practically, is adopted in the preliminary chapters. Apart from the appendices, the work concludes with a chapter on the Philosophy of Shakspere and another on his Art. The author's plan leads to a good deal of repetition, which might have been avoided by a better arrangement.

Introductory matter and appendix constitute more than one-half of a very small volume, a translation from the French,

Paul Sabatier's 'Disestablishment in France' (Scribners). The author already enjoys a certain reputation with American readers; and although this book is less concerned with the past than with the present, it may well attract them. It is scarcely more than a pamphlet, however, and its chief merit is that, in its presentation of some of the facts connected with the disestablishment of the Roman Church in France, it always presents a point of view that is essentially French, if not French of the majority. Its chief defect, for those who are not among the admirers of the writer's earlier work, is, as might be anticipated, its complete failure to attain an historical point of view.

With the publication of the fourth part of Dr. Pope's 'Handbook to Tamil' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), the series is complete. This fourth part comprises an 'English-Tamil Dictionary,' and may be had separately or bound with the 'Tamil-English Dictionary,' which complements it. Of the excellence of this series there is no need to say more than has already been said in connection with the three other parts. The dictionary is, of course, only a small one, intended for the use of beginners.

Amid the swarm of latter-day Dante scholars, bent upon the investigation of problems historical, geographical, astronomical, theological, or allegorical, there is one—and one of the most erudite—who never can forget that Dante, with all his science and philosophy and literary theories, was primarily a poet. Hence it is always refreshing to come upon a critique from the pen of that venerable *Dantista*, Francesco D'Ovidio. His latest contribution is a solid volume of 634 pages, 'Il Purgatorio e il suo Preludio' (Milan: Hoepli), containing a full account of the narrative of the second *cantica*, with an ample running commentary. The book will be as enlightening to the novice as it is interesting to the expert. While the author by no means neglects the symbolic aspect of the 'Commedia'—which, indeed, is less conspicuous in this part than in either of the other two—he devotes himself rather to the literal interpretation, and still more to the artistic quality of Dante's work. Repeatedly he warns us against allowing ourselves to be led by a too rigid system into the assumption of motives that may well have been remote from the poet's mind; according to D'Ovidio, the all-powerful consideration with Dante is, in every instance, the æsthetic impression to be produced. The main object, then, of this exposition is to make the reader see and feel the various phrases of beauty as the poet saw and felt them. This the author does with a responsive sympathy, a subtlety, a quick imagination which his profound and accurate scholarship has in no wise dulled. Few, if any questions are left unpropounded, and many are, it would seem, definitively answered. Solution, however, is less important to D'Ovidio than speculation; cautious, suggestive, discursive, he is seldom dogmatic. The first canto of the "Purgatorio" is examined in minute detail, and there is naturally a long discussion of Cato. Other topics that lead to amplification are the belief in a purgation after death; the difference between pagan and Christian sin, and between the punishments of Hell and those of Purgatory; the figure of Statius, whom D'Ovidio does not regard as a real guide; the visions of the two German Matildas; and the identity of the maidenly keeper of Dante's Eden with Matilda of Hackeborn. The style, somewhat diffuse, is luminous and graceful. In spite of its size and the great difficulties that beset the subject, the book is not only an attractive but an easy one to read, and is to be commended to all students of Dante.

"The advantages which American libraries offer are, among others, these: Hours of opening extending from early morning to late evening; pleasant and inviting reading-rooms; attendants who are at the exclusive service of the readers; excellent and easily available catalogues; an arrangement of the books which is easily understood; access to the books without undue formality, even in the stack rooms; liberal rules for lending, either without any, or with easily procurable, guarantee; travelling departments; children's departments, closely connected with the schools; schools of library economy." Thus Dr. A. B. Meyer sums up the results of his observations during his visit to this country in 1899, and of his subsequent study of American library literature, in a small volume entitled 'Amerikanische Bibliotheken und ihre Bestrebungen' (Berlin: Friedländer). The chief purpose of his visit was to study the means of protection against fire, and, in general, matters relating to the erection and maintenance of buildings for the use of museums, libraries, universities, etc.; and the reports which he published on his return to Dresden, we believe, have been carefully studied by librarians and museum officials in this country, both in their original form and in the translation which was recently published by the National Museum at Washington. The new book, a pamphlet of 80 pages, is confined to libraries, as its title indicates, but covers the whole field. It is addressed to the intelligent reading public, and the author's avowed object is to spread the knowledge of American library methods among his countrymen. For the benefit of the specialist, Dr. Meyer offers a short but well selected bibliography and numerous notes, chiefly of a bibliographical nature, covering together not less than 25 pages. The volume is illustrated by a photograph of the Boston Public Library's Bates Hall, and has a good index. We have noticed a few, but only a very few, inadvertencies; for instance, on page 9 it is stated that the New York Public Library was founded by the city, and the Astor and Lenox Libraries, with the Tilden bequest, combined with it; on page 11, the paragraph about the Buffalo Public Library reads as if it had been newly founded in 1897; the Newberry Library of Chicago does not collect objects of art (p. 44); the relation between the American Library Association and the Library Bureau (p. 13) is now practically nil.

A checklist of incunabula in the Royal Library and other book collections in Berlin, prepared by Dr. Ernst Voullième, has been published as a supplement to the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*. The Royal Library possesses 4,700, while among those in other collections 300 do not duplicate these, thus making the total number of titles in the catalogue exactly 5,000. The majority, or 2,732, are from German presses, Italy being represented by 1,966, and all other countries together by 302; of English incunabula there are none. The arrangement is by countries, cities, and presses, with an alphabetical author-index and a list of Hain-numbers. Bibliographical details have been omitted as being unnecessary in a library checklist. They will, of course, be given in the large catalogue of incunabula in German libraries which is under preparation by a Government commission, of which Dr. Voullième is a member.

The question as to Professor Harnack's work in the University of Berlin since his appointment to the librarianship of the Royal Library has now been definitely settled. He has been excused from delivering two courses of lectures in church history, and a second professorship has been established in this department, which has been filled by the selection of Prof. Karl Holl of Tübingen, a recognized authority in Patristics and the early Christian centuries.

The German Palestine Society is bringing out three publications containing an exceptionally large amount of new material for the scholar and the investigator. The first is a "Karte der topographischen Materialien des alten Jerusalem," with letterpress by Director August Kümmel of Barmen. The chart is on the scale of 1 : 2,500, and on two sheets of 75x100 centimetres gives in red a map of modern Jerusalem, with the remnants of ancient Jerusalem as discovered to date in black, excluding everything that is mere theory or hypothesis. The second work is an exact reproduction of the mosaic map of Palestine found in December, 1896, in Madeba, in ancient Moab, the size being one-sixth of the original. It is issued in ten sheets, with an explanatory text by Professor Guthe of Leipzig. Each lithographic stone plate has been compared with the original by Palmer, an architect of Jerusalem, and as the work, for the publication of which seventy stones are needed, passes through the press, a second comparison is made by Professor Guthe. The third publication is that of a map of the East Jordan country, prepared by Dr. Schumacher of Haifa, in ten large sheets, as a companion and supplement to the map of Western Palestine in 26 sheets, published by the British Palestine Society.

Letters have been received from Dr. Sven Hedin giving full particulars of his journey through Persia, during which he crossed the Great Salt Desert three times. He describes it as like the bottom of a big inland lake, full of salt mud, and having an absolutely level surface, with a western shore as sharply drawn as any strand line. He carefully mapped the country along his route, made panoramic views of the mountains at fifty of his sixty-eight camps, secured a great number of photographs and sketches of typical Persian figures, while his written observations fill 1,200 pages. The plague was raging at Seistan when he arrived early in April. The population of the principal town had been reduced from 2,500 to little more than 300, largely by death. In one village, containing 170 people, 150 had died, and it seemed as if nothing but a miracle could stop the spread of the disease westwards.

Siam is slowly but surely taking a place

among the civilized nations. Among the most recent reforms is the abolition of the gambling farms in the country, which is the more praiseworthy as they have been an important source of revenue. The next step contemplated is the closing of the gaming-tables in Bangkok. In order to do this, as well as to get the funds needed to establish schools, to improve the sanitary condition of the capital and to build roads into the interior, the Government is seeking a revision of the commercial treaties signed in 1855, raising the import duties on foreign merchandise from 3 to 7½ per cent. In the negotiations with the treaty Powers most valuable assistance has been rendered by Prof. Edward Strobel of Harvard University, who was appointed in 1903 General Advisor to the Government of Siam, Mr. Westengard, another Harvard man, being his assistant. "The ability and tact with which he has discharged the duties of his difficult post," says a correspondent of the London *Times*, "are recognized by all." He has gained the confidence of the King, his foreign employees, and the representatives of the great Powers. The improvement which he has assisted to bring about in the friendly intercourse of the State with these representatives "cannot be too highly praised." Germany's increasing influence in Siam is significant. She stands easily first in respect to shipping, with a fleet of thirty-nine steamers of 62,240 tons, calling at Bangkok, while the railway construction is virtually a German monopoly.

A performance of James Shirley's "The Opportunity," the first, it is believed, since the seventeenth century, was given by the members of the Alethenai and Philomathean Literary Societies of the University of Illinois on Friday evening, June 1. The stage, writes a correspondent, which was built on the south campus, was enclosed at the back and sides with green cloth, with the trees showing above. The different scenes were indicated by appropriate properties, brought in and off by young men in crimson velvet doublets, and most of the entrances and exits were made from the sides. To atone for the absence of scenery, which was hardly felt, the costumes were markedly handsome. The text used was about three-quarters the length of the original, cuts being required both by the change of taste and by the time element. The play combines romantic intrigue, based upon mistaken identity, with splendid low comedy, and, in spite of its many conventionalities, it scored a complete success. The plot was unfolded with absolute clearness, even to those unfamiliar with the story. The acting was fully up to the standard set by the performance of "'Friar Bacon" last year.

—The State of Mississippi is printing its Territorial Archives (1798-1803) under the careful direction of Dunbar Rowland, director of its Department of Archives and History. The present volume i. contains all the orders, proclamations, letters and papers of the first provisional governor, Winthrop Sargent, a Boston veteran of the Revolution, and a man of high tone and upright administration as the archivist contends against the detraction of his successor's nephew. His appointment by President John Adams was opposed because of his Northern and Eastern origin and Federalist views; both in Congress and in the Territory he was looked upon very much as were carpet-baggers afterwards; but he retained his home in the South and died there. His other chief troubles arose from the neighboring Indians—beggars and drunkards as opportunity served—and to keep on good terms with them he needed an interpreter, whom he found in one Cæsar, a colored man; but he, being a chattel, was forcibly taken from him at a critical moment to serve the ends of speculators desirous of entering the Indian country. Cæsar he paid $15 a month, "the highest Wages I had known to have been given to a Prime slave." Gabriel's Virginia rising in 1800 shook even the Mississippi Valley. Gov. Sargent gave warning to slaveholders and militia officers: "Almost every day adds to the number of our Slaves, and (Reasoning from the fine feelings of Man) to the number of our most inveterate Enemies also. 'Tis more than probable that in the Lapse of another year, there will be more Blacks than Whites within the Mississippi Territory. That we deprive them of the sacred Boon of Liberty is a Crime they can never forgive." The Virginian Claiborne, with whom Jefferson replaced Sargent, had increasing difficulty with the river riff-raff at Natchez as well as with Indians and negroes in liquor. His Council rejected a law to prohibit the importation of male slaves above fifteen. "Common Negro Fellows will generally Command $500 per head," being wanted in cotton-growing, and the Territory seemed in danger of being overrun (in the Governor's words) by the "most abandoned of that unfortunate race." Claiborne needed an Indian interpreter as badly as Sargent. Portraits of both governors are given, and there is a good index.

—Mr. Worthington C. Ford's monumental edition of the 'Journals of the Continental Congress' makes commendable progress. The fifth and sixth volumes, covering the period from June 5, 1776, to the end of the year, have lately appeared. As in the earlier volumes, there is considerable new matter, other sources besides the manuscript journals being drawn upon for material. Of the Declaration of Independence, Mr. Ford gives, under date of June 28, the "first draft" and the "reported draft" in parallel columns; the former being from a manuscript in the handwriting of John Adams, already printed in Paul Leicester Ford's edition of Jefferson's writings, and the latter from the familiar manuscript in the Department of State. The changes made in Congress or committee are indicated in footnotes. A third text, that of the engrossed original in the Department of State, with the signatures, appears under date of July 4, though the document was, of course, not actually signed until later. Two forms of the Articles of Confederation are also presented: the first printed text, from a copy in John Dickinson's hand, submitted July 12, with Dickinson's queries about its provisions in footnotes; and a second printed form, under date of August 20, in parallel columns with the first. The "plan of treaties," reported July 18, follows Adams's text, with the addition of notes from a copy by James Wilson and from other sources. The final form was not agreed to until September 17. The instructions for the negotiation of a treaty with France, September 24 and October 16, are a valuable commentary on the "plan." Of the other more elaborate papers, the most notable are the articles of war, agreed to September 20; the report, September 2, on the exchange values of current coins in Spanish milled dollars, printed from a recently discovered Jefferson manuscript in the Library of Congress; and the address to the inhabitants of America, "particularly to the inhabitants of Pennsylvania and the adjacent States," December 10, drawn from Force's "American Archives."

—A glance at the 'Journals' is enough to show how varied and complex were the matters with which Congress, at its best a loosely organized body, was called upon to deal, and how quickly the demoralizing pressure of war made itself felt. Early in June a Board of War was appointed, the exportation of salted beef, pork, and other supplies forbidden, and disloyal persons committed to the tender mercies of the States. June 17, the employment of Indians was authorized, and rewards offered for prisoners taken by them in the Indian country. The situation in Canada fills a considerable place in these volumes, as do the affairs of the northern army and the ill-concealed quarrel of Gates, Schuyler, and Arnold. The approval, July 17, of Washington's refusal to receive letters from Lord Howe, and the report of the committee which conferred with Howe in September, recall another familiar episode. The confiscation of the property of British subjects was authorized July 24, and the war carried into the enemy's camp by the offer of rewards to British and Hessian soldiers who should desert. The characteristically elaborate plan for a great seal, submitted August 20, is made the occasion for a particularly valuable note by the editor. There are numerous references to the monopolization of military supplies by individuals, and to the problem, rapidly becoming acute, of keeping full the ranks of the army. December 12 the approach of the British drove Congress, which had been in session since September 5, 1775, from Philadelphia to Baltimore, where it resumed its sittings on the 20th. The last important act of this memorable year was to confer upon Washington practically full powers for six months. The appendix to Volume VI. gives a list of the fourteen standing committees of Congress and their members; notes of debates made by Adams and Jefferson; a speech of John Witherspoon, September 5, 1776, on the message from Lord Howe, the source not stated; a continuation of the bibliographical notes on contemporary prints, following those appended to Volume III.; and an index to Volumes IV., V., and VI.

—The gaps which remain in the biography of the Stuart period are being fast filled up, and there seems to be considerable demand for expensive books on characters like Digby, Falkland, Prince Rupert, and Alexander Leslie. Among members of the royal family, Henrietta Maria long received undue neglect, especially when one considers the fact that her part in the shaping of her husband's policy forecasted the rôle of Marie Antoinette during the French Revolution. Both these women, whose lives were rendered tragic by the strifes of their adopted countries, remained alien in spirit to the best aspirations of their contemporaries and were aliens also

on the soil of their husbands' dominions. Both received from nature a slight mental equipment along with some compensating qualities in the firmness they showed under misfortune and in their willingness to undergo personal privations. Without carrying further this obvious parallel, we may say that it is suggested by the appearance in a second edition of Ida F. Taylor's 'Life of Queen Henrietta Maria' (Dutton). The materials for such a work are not only ample, but, so far as the personal history of the Queen is concerned, largely untouched. Here we shall refer only to the letters deciphered by Mr. Everett-Green—the letters of Henrietta to Charles I.—and to her correspondence with her sister, Christine of Savoy, as edited by M. Ferrero. Drawing from these sources and from the chief political records of the time, the present biography sets forth Henrietta's traits with the fulness of detail which a work in two volumes permits. On the whole the personal element is dominant, and it would be by no means impossible for a subsequent writer to sketch the Queen's career from a political standpoint without trespassing much upon the territory that has been preempted by our author. Thus, to take two examples, the dealings of Henrietta with Rome in 1640 and the development of the Army Plot are matters of much more importance in the political development of her career than they are made to seem here. On the contrary, the part of Henrietta's life which succeeds the ruin of the royalist cause is investigated with the utmost minuteness. At the time when the cause of the Stuarts in exile was at its nadir, she showed an almost incredible want of tact in managing the affairs of her own household. Perhaps her most startling blunder was the attempt to force the conversion of her son, the Duke of Gloucester, attended as it was by unmaternal harshness when he refused to enter the Catholic fold. Her relations with Digby and Jermyn likewise reveal the weaknesses which made her an impossible representative of the royalist cause. An inconclusive appendix considers the evidence regarding her marriage with Jermyn. In conclusion, we must call this work a much more finished and interesting performance than the same writer's 'Revolutionary Types.' It would be difficult to appreciate the historical position of Henrietta more succinctly than in the following words: "Unfitted by nature and training to cope with a crisis of almost unexampled difficulty, she was forced into a position she was unqualified to fill; and her errors of judgment, while almost inevitable, invited the condemnation not only of her enemies, but of those of the King's adherents who suffered for them."

—A graceful but slight book is 'The Letters of Richard Ford,' edited by R. E. Prothero (Dutton). It consists of a selection only of those letters which Ford wrote between 1830 and 1857 to his friend Henry Unwin Addington—a very brilliant man to a dull one. Mr. Prothero has woven them together with intercalated narrative, and made their setting fairly intelligible. Yet only the ghost of Ford has passed into these pages, of the writer of the Handbook, the appreciator of Velasquez, and the friend of Borrow. Some sides, it is true, come out very curiously. There is that mixture of high culture and fineness with roistering goodfellowhood and healthy largeness of utterance even to coarseness, characteristic of a man whose life had bridged the gap from Peninsular to early and mid-Victorian days, and whose friends had stretched from Irish half-pay majors stranded in Spain since the war, through the gradation of the mighty Borrow to such as Lockhart and the dandies. He and his world were both broad, and the breadth of both is impressionistically suggested here. We have a touch of the Duke—*der Einzige*—of Seville, Cadiz, and the Alhambra (there Ford camped in state like Washington Irving), with muleteers, brigands, revolutionists, comic-opera consuls, and Spanish magnificos of all degrees. On one side it is plain how Ford came to know the Spanish character and Spanish situation; but, on another, it is not clear how he acquired his immense knowledge of Spanish locality and his book-learning in Spanish history and literature. It may be that the scrappiness of these letters obscures the real width of his itineraries, and, in the case of such genius as his, the book-learning is acquired in unregistered hours. But, even so, the development of the wanderer after Borrow's own heart, the friend of José Maria the king of Andalusian brigands, and the British tourist of mild æsthetic tastes, into the Quarterly Reviewer and Spanish Handbooker who flavored masses of knowledge with the pepper of his style, is at most hinted, hardly conditioned. Yet for the hint we may be thankful; Ford is Ford in these pages—what there is of them. There is a series of very charming illustrations: two portraits of Ford himself; two drawings of interiors in the Alhambra as it then was, by the first Mrs. Ford; portraits of the first and second Mrs. Ford and of Ford's mother; a Velasquez in Ford's possession, etc. They are all very well reproduced.

—To the notice of Celtic scholars may be recommended Professor Kuno Meyer's edition of the Triads of Ireland, the 'Trecheng breth Fene' (literally, a triadic arrangement of the sayings of Irishmen), being the thirteenth volume of the Todd Lecture Series, Royal Irish Academy (London: Williams & Norgate). The collection has come down to us in nine MSS. dating from the 14th to the 19th century, viz., the Yellow Book of Lecan, the Book of Ballymote, and the Book of Hûi Maine, 14th century; the Book of Lecan, 15th century; two paper MSS., one written in 1575, the other in 1745, and three others but lately discovered, only one of which has as yet been collated. Allowing for omissions and insertions, the text in all these MSS. is identical; they have all been used in constructing a critical text in the order of that of the Yellow Book of Lecan. The Triads appear to be divided into certain groups according to their contents. The first 61 are topographical (*e. g.*, the three dark places of Ireland: the cave of Knowth, the cave of Slaney, the cave of Ferns, or the three rent-paying places of Ireland, Clonard, Glendalough, Louth); 149 to 172 relate to legal matters (*e. g.*, three deposits which need not be returned: the deposits of an imbecile, a high dignitary, and a fixed deposit); of the remainder the majority are general observations on men and manners (*e. g.*, three unfortunate things for the son of a peasant: marrying into the family of a franklin, attaching himself to the retinue of a king, consorting with thieves; three nurses of theft: a wood, a cloak, a night; three false sisters: perhaps, may be, I dare say). A few only have a local application (*e. g.*, three things that constitute a blacksmith: Nethin's spit, the cooking hearth of the Morrigan, the Dagda's anvil). The language may, on philological and other grounds, be described as Late Old Irish (*e. g.*, the allusion to the Viking in § 232). The editor judges that the present collection must have been made some time during the second half of the 9th century. It would be a mistake to suppose that it represents more than a small part of the numerous triads scattered throughout Early Irish literature. If they were all put together they would make a small volume, especially if they included those still current among the natives of Ireland, Gaelic and English-speaking. The popularity of the Triad as a form of literary composition among the Irish is ascribed by some to the influence of the doctrine of the Trinity on the Celtic imagination. Inasmuch, however, as Irish literature boasts not only triads but duads, tetrads, pentads, heptads, etc., Professor Meyer is inclined to prefer another explanation, and to find the model for all these enumerative sayings in those of similar character to be found in several books of the Old Testament.

THE LIFE OF LORD RANDOLPH CHURCHILL.

Lord Randolph Churchill. By Winston Spencer Churchill, M. P. In two volumes. The Macmillan Company. 1906.

For a son to write the life of his father is only a shade less difficult than for a wife to write the life of her husband. In the case of Lord Randolph Churchill, the delicacy of the task is increased by the fact that most of his contemporaries and many of his seniors are still living, and that he was eminently a fighter, a man who excited strong antagonisms, and was constantly embroiled with politicians on his own side just as much as with his opponents. These difficulties have been overcome, if not always with perfect success, yet to a far greater extent than would have been expected, in the biography which lies before us. Mr. Winston Churchill has, of course, as he was bound to do, presented his father's character and career in the most favorable light, but he does not conceal the facts, or try to give them a false color. He does not take occasion for attacks on or sneers at his father's rivals or opponents. He lets the events carry their own moral with them, while no doubt dwelling more than a perfectly impartial biographer might do upon the circumstances which justified, or excused, Lord Randolph's frequently erratic conduct, and saying less than such a biographer might say about the faults to which this erratic conduct was due. No one will blame him for this; nor does the truth of history sensibly suffer, since every one discounts a biography by a near relative just as one discounts a funeral oration. The impression given is, however, not quite the impression which history will record.

As a literary performance, the book deserves the highest praise. It is lively, vivacious, interesting from beginning to end. Readers familiar with the British Parliamentary system will, of course, understand it better and therefore enjoy it more than can those who have not lived in England or studied the singular constitutional machinery and not less singular party machinery of that peculiar country. But those, also, who do not possess that special knowledge will find the portrait of this bold, dashing, energetic personality full of fascination, and will understand the kind of hold which it took upon the rank and file of the Tory party during the ten years from 1883 to 1893.

Randolph Spencer Churchill was the second son of the Duke of Marlborough, an eminently respectable peer of moderate talents and conventional opinions, who held posts in two Conservative Administrations and in one of them was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Born in 1849 (his mother being a daughter of the third Marquis of Londonderry), educated at Eton and Oxford, he was a little too wayward and fond of amusement to distinguish himself in examinations, though he made on those who knew him the impression he had made on his own family, of possessing remarkable powers of mind. He entered the House of Commons in 1874 as member for Woodstock, a sort of "pocket borough" (standing at the gates of Blenheim Park, the Duke of Marlborough's residence), which disappeared under the Redistribution of Seats Act in 1885, after which date he transferred his services to the newly created electoral district of South Paddington, a part of London. From 1874 till 1880, his own party being in power, he took politics and Parliament pretty easily, showing his independence and his powers of speech only on some three or four occasions. When the Liberals came into office under Mr. Gladstone in 1880, his chance came. Opposition gave him opportunities, just the sort of opportunities which a bold and reckless spirit knows how to use. He sprang immediately to the front. With three other members, one of whom subsequently attained eminence and became Prime Minister (Mr. Arthur Balfour), he began a series of skirmishing operations which quickly rallied the Tory party from the depression into which the unexpected defeat at the election of 1880 had plunged it. Constantly harassing the Ministry, obstructing their measures, allying himself to any or every discontented section of the House in turn (including the Irish, of whom he was afterwards to be the formidable opponent), he inflicted so much annoyance on the majority as speedily to become the favorite champion of the more ardent, or violent, spirits in his own party.

His own nominal leader was Sir Stafford H. Northcote, an able, accomplished, and experienced man, prudent and wary, but without that love of combat which is so valuable an ingredient in the chief of a party, or an army, or a tribe, or any militant organization. Northcote's quiet and cautious strategy disgusted the militant men. Young Churchill gave them sport, and they liked him for it, and he grew to be more and more a hero among the fighting elements in the party, outside as well as inside Parliament. Mr. Gladstone was the usual object of his attacks, and Mr. Gladstone, who in the exuberance of his strength could never resist the temptation to demolish an antagonist, brought Randolph Churchill more and more into notice by his elaborate replies to the latter's charges. At first, people hardly took seriously the "Fourth Party," as it was called, the party which consisted of these four members, two of them quite young. Randolph Churchill in particular was only a "free lance," who did not (so people thought) much signify. But presently it was seen that he had both a body of doctrine and a settled plan of operations. The doctrine was an appeal to the working class to expect from the Tory party and not from the Liberals, who had theretofore been deemed the advocates of democratic progress and social reform, the legislation they desired. The plan of operations was to popularize the party machine of the Tories and to capture it for his own purposes. The doctrine was really a development, under new conditions, of Disraeli's ideas, first delivered as far back as shortly before A. D. 1840, according to which Toryism was, by supporting and exalting the Crown, and also by appealing to the peasantry, to overcome Whiggism, the party of oligarchy and the commercial middle classes. The plan of operations was borrowed from the organization of the so-called "Birmingham Caucus," which had been built up by Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Schnadhorst on lines suggested by the organization of political parties in the United States.

Lord Randolph pressed this double scheme with immense vigor. He virtually succeeded in capturing the Tory party machine, and he became the apostle of what was called "Tory Democracy." Both as regards his doctrine and his *modus operandi* he was vehemently opposed by the ordinary Tory politicians, and especially by the Tory aristocracy, who dreaded this new democratic programme and did not wish to surrender the control they had hitherto exercised over the selection of candidates for Parliament and the framing of party programmes. However, he succeeded. He concluded an alliance with Lord Salisbury, although aristocratic doctrines and a hatred of popular methods were typically embodied in that statesman. He procured the deposition of Sir Stafford Northcote from the leadership of the Tories in the House of Commons. He became the most prominent and influential House of Commons member of the Tory Cabinet of 1885. He secured for himself the leadership of his party in the House of Commons when the Tory Cabinet of 1886 was formed after the defeat of Mr. Gladstone's first Home Rule bill, a defeat to which his passionate speeches in the country and tactical skill in the House of Commons had largely contributed. Within six years he had risen to be by far the strongest force in the then dominant Tory party, except the Prime Minister (Lord Salisbury), and his influence with the rank and file of the party was probably greater than that of the Prime Minister himself.

A rise so swift and striking had seldom been seen in English public life. Then came the fall, a fall even more sudden and startling. Being Chancellor of the Exchequer, he desired to produce a brilliant budget, and to effect economies in the public service by reducing the charges for military and naval expenditure. The War Minister refused to reduce his estimates. The matter was discussed several times in the Cabinet, and Lord Randolph thought that he would not get his own way except by playing his last card. He seems to have believed himself indispensable, nor was he alone in that belief. He resigned office. Lord Salisbury accepted his resignation. Many people thought the Ministry would collapse. It did not collapse, but went on very much as before, quietly adopting, after a few months, some of the very economies which Churchill had fought for in vain. This happened in December, 1886. He never entered office again. During the five and a half years which followed (till the Tory Ministry fell at the general election of 1892), he generally supported the Administration he had quitted, though now and then showing his teeth and denouncing some of their acts in speeches not inferior to the best he had ever delivered before. Most people had expected him to try to overturn the Cabinet, but he never seriously tried to do so, perhaps feeling that he could not, for the failure of his resignation *coup* had shown him that his power was less than he had fancied.

The story of the steps by which he climbed and the mistake by which he fell is told with great dramatic skill in these volumes, and though the episode is only an episode, and may not have permanently affected the march of events, it is an episode of extreme dramatic interest. His chance of regaining power would have come in 1895, when the short-lived Liberal Administration of 1892 perished, and Lord Salisbury formed another Cabinet. From that Cabinet it would have been impossible to exclude him. But he had already passed away from the strife. His constitution had never been strong, and he had subjected it to terrible strains. In 1894 he succumbed to a malady of the nervous system, which had shown itself more than a year before.

In the narrative which the book gives us there are some omissions, some questions suggested to which the answer is not, and perhaps cannot, at present, be given. The materials may not be as yet fully available, because in the custody of persons unwilling to show them, or the biographer may have felt himself precluded from using some parts of what he possessed. Moreover, Lord Randolph was often impulsive, sometimes wayward, and, as his conduct was usually unpredictable, it remains in some cases unexplainable. The same boldness, verging on recklessness, which had so often brought success, brought failure when given rein once too often. Never had any statesman more conspicuously the defects of his qualities.

On those beside whom or against whom he strove, some interesting flashes of light are thrown. Lord Salisbury is, of all the leading English statesmen of the last seventy years, the one who has remained least known to people in other countries; and, apparently, he was rather inscrutable even in his own. There are some letters from him in these volumes which show great shrewdness and caution, but less epigrammatic vigor of phrase than his speeches would have led one to expect. His real feelings towards Lord Randolph are never indicated, but they cannot have been

friendly. The latter had been accepted as a necessary ally, and was got rid of so soon as he had, with surprising imprudence, given the older man the chance for which he was waiting. Some of the references to Mr. Gladstone, though slight, have also their interest. Lord Hartington comes sometimes into the story, and always with credit. Those who in this city remember Mr. Louis Jennings, who, as editor of the New York *Times*, bore an active part in the anti-Tammany campaign of 1871, will find here an account of the last phases—melancholy phases they were—of his checkered career.

Lord Randolph Churchill was not an original thinker in the sense of excogitating creative ideas. Neither was he an orator, in that sense of the term which makes it denote a man who can rouse the emotions and touch the imagination. But he was a born Parliamentarian, with an extraordinarily quick eye for a situation, extraordinary resource and boldness in dealing with it. He was a speaker good enough to be not only forcible and rousing on a platform, but also cogent and formidable in debate. But he was also much more than a mere speaker. Though he brought no general administrative experience to the first office he held, that of Secretary for India, and no financial experience to that of Chancellor of the Exchequer, he seems to have impressed the old officials of both departments as one of the ablest chiefs they had ever known. Had his official career, which extended to only twelve months in all, covered as many years, he would doubtless have made a permanent mark on British legislation. Only a very few Parliamentary reputations survive the generation that saw them in their bloom, and Lord Randolph Churchill's will not be one of those, because it is not associated with any event or measure of first-rate importance, and did not touch the deepest underlying principles of politics. But he played a part striking enough to engage the attention of the historian; and if his career had been prolonged for ten or twenty years, it might have been one of the most remarkable in the Victorian age in its permanent effects as well as in its transient brilliance.

In Quest of Light. By Goldwin Smith. Macmillan. 1906.

It is all but a century and a half since Rousseau, speaking through his Savoyard Vicar, argued—

"If I were to have no other proof of the soul's immateriality than the triumph of the wicked and the oppression of the good in this world, that alone would prevent my doubting it. So manifest a contradiction, so shocking a discord in the universal harmony, would make me seek to explain it. I should say to myself: All does not end for us with this life; at death everything returns into order."

This reasoning, which did not save 'Émile' from being burnt in Catholic Paris and Calvinistic Geneva, cannot be said to have gained strength in the meantime. Darwin has intervened, and the remorseless processes of evolution seem to leave no room for moral inferences based upon the successive stages of man's unending struggle upwards from the beast. Mr. Goldwin Smith accepts evolution, but he still falls back on the refuge of Jean Jacques:

"Apart from our individual destiny," he says, "is it not sad to think of all the uncompensated suffering which, on the hypothesis that existence ends here, fills the pages of human history? Does death level not only the king with the beggar, but the best of men and the greatest benefactor of his kind with the worst of tyrants or assassins? If it does, can we believe in the moral government of the world? If we cannot believe in the moral government of the world, where is the sanction of morality?"

The Darwinian (who points to the equally uncompensated sufferings and misfortunes and arbitrary fates of our brute brethren) finds the required sanction in the code-building of the race. "Take," says Mr. Smith, "any product of human industry, a manufactured article, for instance; trace it back in thought to the multifarious agencies which in countries and ages widely apart have contributed to its production." Is our moral code, it may be asked, any less or otherwise "a manufactured article"? Mr. Smith himself shows us the factory at work:

"The Mosaic law, whatever may be the date of its redaction, belongs in its character to a primitive era, and for that era is a notable advance in civilization. Recognizing primitive customs, it improves on them. . . . It, however, betrays its human origin in ordaining death for witchcraft. . . . The Decalogue is very high morality for its day, as the continuance of its authority has proved, though its allusion to the Creator shows that it was not inspired by the Maker of the world."

Will the clack of the factory ever cease till a future life (if at all required) shall be humanly viewed as a recompense not alone for the good, oppressed here or cut off untimely, but for the triumphant wicked, the tyrant, and assassin, equally impotent links in the chain of heredity, and above all entitled to challenge their Creator with

"Man's forgiveness give—and take"?

Mr. Smith fears, and thinks he sees signs of, an impending "moral interregnum" consequent upon "the collapse of the traditional beliefs on which morality has hitherto largely rested." But no true evolutionist can share his alarm. With all the spread of the Darwinian doctrine saints are still carried in procession to stay the ravages of Vesuvius in eruption, and prayers may any day be put up in our churches for the breaking of a drought or the cessation of floods. Twenty-five years after the appearance of the 'Origin of Species,' we heard an eminent divine on an ocean steamer solicit contributions to the Liverpool seamen's fund in gratitude to God for a safe voyage, and the next night conduct a meeting of thanksgiving that He had spared us the worst consequences of having meanwhile struck on the coast of Ireland. Rousseau himself might quiet Mr. Smith's apprehensions. Foreseeing that he would be taxed with tending to produce a moral slump or "interregnum" by his "Profession of Faith," he affirmed it to be constructive rather than destructive, adding: "Besides, the people will always have a positive religion founded on human authority."

"Moral responsibility" plays a large part in Mr. Smith's quest of light. In the full sense of the term, he thinks it can hardly exist "without a belief in consequences of conduct beyond the present life." "Apart from individual interest there can only be social responsibility," with insufficient control. Moral responsibility, however, would seem to have the same standing and social origin as morality itself, and to be dirigible to the same fount; backward looking rather than forward. Mr. Smith appears to find in it *ex vi termini* an evidence for a moral ruler of the universe. Again, when he says of Ingersoll's lecture on Genesis, that "he destroyed reverence as well as superstition," he gives the impression of classing reverence with moral responsibility among the evidences. He distinctly does so in the case of conscience.

"Conscience implies the existence of a deity, to whose tribunal it appeals as to that of a power which upholds righteousness and directs all in the end to good." "Conscience has proclaimed that it shall be well with those who do good, and ill with those who do evil, not only in this transitory life." "Does not every man, when he obeys his conscience against his passions or his interest, virtually express a belief in something beyond this world?" "Is [not] conscience the voice of the Power which rules our world?"

Mr. Smith does not attempt to define conscience, and even allows "that it may be true that conscience, like other parts of our nature, including the scientific faculties, is developed by an evolutionary process. This," he adds, "does not affect its authority." But its authority can, if it be a manufactured article, rise no higher than its source, and the familiar terms a perverted, debased, tender, supersensitive, even a "New England" conscience denote various stages in the evolution. The individual conscience (all else is an abstraction) is the sum of the constituents of one's sense of duty, partly inherited, partly acquired, ranging from pure self-interest to the very highest philanthropy and self-sacrifice. Its function is moral judgment in this life, not pronouncement as to the future. Mankind has never fixed its connotation, and in these pages it is weighted with an assumption that will be freely contested. Many of the most admirable consciences of the day are unattended and unsupported by any belief in a future life or in the existence of a moral governor or even maker of the universe. Mr. Darwin himself is a case in point; and he ended by saying: "But man can do his duty."

The "brotherhood of man" is another proof on which Mr. Smith rests heavily. To warrant belief in it, he holds "there must surely be some paternal and consecrating power." "Even in our respect for the sanctity of human life is there not a certain religious element? Could it exist in full force without the idea of a brotherhood of man, which seems to imply, if not a distinct belief in the fatherhood of God, something beyond mere identity of species?" It was asked of old, "How much better is a man than a sheep?" And the consciousness of human superiority to all dumb brutes has certainly determined the race in its treatment of what might, Darwinianly speaking, be called its forebears. The emergence from cannibalism has been succeeded, no doubt, by a fellow-feeling transcending the sense of "mere identity of species"; but we see on every hand proofs that this feeling can be fully satisfied by humane and disinterested en-

deavor for our contemporaries and for posterity.

There remains the expectation of a redress of the present constitution of the world—which Mr. Smith, like old Omar, would engage to improve upon—in another coveted and therefore assumed existence. Rousseau could give no assurances on this head, and our seeker after light can as little. Spiritualism, which Mr. Smith rejects as sheer imposture (presumably he would not, with a witty Frenchwoman, have one believe in ghosts rather than not in a future life)—spiritualism has never depicted conditions beyond the grave that would appeal even to a suicide. Mr. Smith, by the way, is no stickler for immortality: the idea passes his comprehension. In this he is again at one with the Savoyard Vicar: "Je crois que l'âme survit au corps assez pour le maintien de l'ordre; qui sait si c'est assez pour durer toujours?" Who indeed? But are we not as sure of the *duration* as of the *order*?

Mr. Smith's undogmatic little volume is a contribution to the literature of the "Will to Believe." It is in short chapters, mostly letters to the New York *Sun*, during the decade from January, 1896, to February, 1906. Necessarily there is much restatement of the leading ideas we have touched upon, for the letters are gently polemical. Sometimes they consist of comment also on new books.

Somerset House, Past and Present. By Raymond Needham and Alexander Webster. E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 344.

The present Somerset House, one of the finest public buildings of London, has also claims on us as being, in a sense, a relic of Old London. It occupies the site of one of the old palaces, places, or houses of nobles or great ecclesiastics which, in the sixteenth century, stretched along the south side of the Strand, their gardens going down to the Thames. Somerset House owes its name to the Protector Somerset, who fixed on a site whereon to build him a palace suited to his great position in the state. This was perhaps not his first choice. Our authors tell us that certain writers who have charged Somerset with the design to build on the site of Westminster Abbey, "have strained credulity to the utmost in their desire to defame the Protector." Dr. Heylin, however, in his 'Ecclesia Restaurata,' makes the definite statement that the Protector was bought off from the design to destroy the Abbey only by the grant to his nominees of long leases of about thirty manors, including the manor of Islip. Heylin declares that the transaction so weighed upon the mind of Benson, the Dean, that he died soon after. Heylin, it is true, wrote about a hundred years after Somerset, but, as sub-dean of the Abbey, he would have access to documents to which it is but reasonable to suppose that he could appeal in support of his statements. It is not enough to allege improbabilities against these definite statements made by so weighty a writer as Heylin.

Having fixed upon the Strand site, Somerset proceeded to "convey" it to himself. He cleared it of a parish church, three episcopal residences, an Inn of Chancery, and several tenements. Next came the question of finding building materials. Foiled in his attempts to pull down St. Margaret's, Westminster, he blew up the beautiful steeple of St. John, Clerkenwell, and destroyed a cloister and some chapels belonging to St. Paul's Cathedral. Pegge, on whom our authors rely for a vindication of Somerset's proceedings, makes this artless defence:

"Richard Sampson, Bishop of Lichfield, had relapsed into popery and avowed it in the second year of King Edward. Under such a disadvantageous claim to the royal favor, this Bishop would more placidly relinquish gratuitously a part of his possessions to the Duke of Somerset, a zealous Protestant, than hazard impending deprivation by an obstinate refusal."

Here is the defence offered for the appropriation of building materials: "Pulling down one edifice of stone towards the erection of another was the obvious and most expeditious way of obtaining materials." Nor is our authors' defence more tenable when they say that Somerset's faults were largely the faults of his time: "They tell us he was rapacious; but if we reflect that when the Church disgorged her accumulated wealth, one and all of the more power laymen scrambled to become rich upon the spoils, the fault in Somerset is not unpardonable." But brigandage is none the less brigandage because it is widely practised, and the simple fact is that Somerset was one of the worst of the plunderers of the Reformation.

The Protector was in residence at "Somerset Place" in 1547, but the Episcopal houses were not pulled down till 1549. The new palace could not have been carried far towards completion when Somerset fell. "The Duke of Somerset had his head cut off on Tower Hill"—so, under the date January 22, 1552, runs the cold-blooded entry in Edward the Sixth's journal, recording the violent death of his uncle. Somerset House now became a royal residence; here Queen Elizabeth sometimes stayed, and, after her, Anne of Denmark, the Queen of James I. From this royal lady the House was long known also as Denmark House. Inigo Jones was at work upon the palace under Anne, but his chief employment here seems to have been in the following reign. He built a splendid chapel for Henrietta Maria, to whom the palace, described as the finest in all England, was specially assigned. From this time till the Revolution of 1688, with the interval of the Commonwealth, Somerset House, the residence of a Catholic Queen, and its chapel were as a plague spot to Puritanism. Under the Commonwealth "a feminine tub-preacher clapped the Bible and thumped the pulpit cushions" in this chapel. In Somerset House, Cromwell lay in state after his death in Whitehall. At the Restoration, Henrietta Maria once more took up her residence here till she quitted England for France in 1665. It was in 1678 that the politicians working behind Titus Oates selected Somerset House as the supposed scene of the supposed murder of Sir Edmund Berry Godfrey. Here, too, on the authority of the Doctor of Salamanca, Queen Catherine plotted to poison Charles. Catherine was desired by William III. to leave Somerset House, but she spiritedly refused to give up a house secured to her by treaty; she left England in 1692. During the reign of Anne, residence in Somerset House, as to-day in Hampton Court, was assigned to widows and others having court interest. In 1775 a house was settled upon Queen Charlotte in lieu of Somerset House, on the condition that the latter should be devoted to public uses. The old palace was pulled down, and the present building erected by Sir William Chambers. A portion of the building was ready for occupation in 1780. Chambers's design was completed later by the erection of King's College on the east side, and of the new wing on the west.

The new Somerset House has its memories as full of interest as the old. Quarters in the new building were assigned to the Royal Academy, which held here its first exhibition in 1780. The Royal Society and the Society of Antiquaries were also located here. In Somerset House, Reynolds, in the presence of Edmund Burke and of a crowd of notabilities, delivered the last of his Discourses. Here, prior to his funeral in St. Paul's, his body lay in state. The exhibitions at Somerset House have included pictures by the greatest of the English masters. In the rooms of the Royal Society, Sir William Herschel announced the discovery of Uranus, or, as he desired to call it, Georgium Sidus, in recognition of the King's favor to the Royal Society. In Somerset House were also established many Government offices, among others the Navy Office. In his 'Handbook of London' Peter Cunningham repeats a story told him by an old clerk in the Audit Office:

"When I first came to this building, I was in the habit of seeing for many mornings a thin, spare naval officer, with only one arm, enter the vestibule at a smart step, and make direct for the Admiralty over the rough paving-stones of the quadrangle, instead of taking what others generally took and continue to take, the smooth pavement at the sides. His thin, frail figure shook at every step, and I often wondered why he chose so rough a footway; but I ceased to wonder when I heard that the thin, frail officer was no other than Lord Nelson."

The learned societies have long since migrated, and the vast building is now merely a collection of Government offices. Before the construction of the Embankment, Somerset House rose directly from the river. The Terrace, with its superb view of the City to the east, was a retired spot favorable to contemplation and perhaps to courtship. Here, "on fine afternoons in May," Herbert Spencer and George Eliot "paced backwards and forwards, for an hour or so, discussing many things." "There were reports," says Spencer, "that I was in love with her, and that we were about to be married. But neither of these reports was true."

The greatest credit must be given to our authors for the diligence shown in collecting so large a mass of material pertaining to Somerset House. Some of it, relating less to the building than to political history, might perhaps have been omitted with advantage to the book. Indeed, our authors' vehement Protestantism is somewhat too much in evidence. Reference has been made to their treatment of Somerset's misdeeds, none the less misdeeds because they were perpetrated by a pillar of Protestantism. Again, twice over (p. 49 and p. 121), we are told the very doubtful story of the penance alleged to have been imposed by her confessor on Henrietta Maria—a journey, perhaps bare-

foot, to Tyburn, her confessor riding in a coach by her side to the fatal spot, where prayers were made for the souls of Catholics who had died there. There is not a word about Bassompierre's denial of the charge: "Je sçay assurément, messieurs, que vous ne croyez pas ce que vous publiez aux autres pour leur faire croire . . . l'on a trouvé ou forgé cecy hors de toute apparence et vérification." Bassompierre could hardly have told the King's Commissioners that they knew quite well that they did not believe the story if there had been any truth in it.

The book is copiously illustrated. It ought to be a rule to indicate the originals of illustrations. This is not always done in the present case. Three or four illustrations and the matter of two appendices are borrowed without acknowledgment from Pegge's 'Curialia.'

Species and Varieties, Their Origin by Mutation. By Hugo DeVries, Professor of Botany in the University of Amsterdam. Second Edition. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 1906.

Biological science had scarcely settled down to a general acceptance of the fact of evolution before it was divided into hostile camps on the question of method, and it is sometimes reproached with being further removed from unanimity on the general problems of evolution to-day than during the lifetime of Darwin. The fact must be admitted, but not as a reproach; for this diversity of interpretation is merely an index of the varied character of the data and methods of the current researches in evolutionary theory.

The cornerstone of Darwinian evolution is, of course, natural variability; and the great demand of Darwin's time for a "consistent theory of variation" has not yet been satisfactorily met by field observations, statistical studies or microscopical investigations upon the structure of the germinal protoplasm. That the subject must be attacked experimentally is now generally recognized. Long before the Carnegie Institution established its permanent station for the study of experimental evolution on Long Island, private enterprise had carried on various lines of breeding experiments with these problems in mind. One of the most important of these series of experiments, both in the length of time which they cover and in the exactness of their scientific method, is the work of Hugo DeVries at Amsterdam. DeVries has won general admiration for the precision of his experiments and the insight shown in their interpretation. Thanks partly to his two recent visits to this country, not only his work, but his charming personality as well, is widely known in America; and now his face may become familiar from the new portrait frontispiece to the volume under review. These lectures on the origin of species by mutation were originally delivered at the University of California during the summer of 1904, and were published the winter following. After the lapse of scarcely more than a year a second edition is called for.

There has been some misunderstanding regarding the relation of DeVries's conception of mutation to natural selection and other recognized evolutionary factors, so that it is well to quote a few words bearing on this point from the preface:

"My work claims to be in full accord with the principles laid down by Darwin, and to give a thorough and sharp analysis of some of the ideas of variability, inheritance, selection, and mutation which were necessarily vague at his time. It is only just to state that Darwin established so broad a basis for scientific research upon these subjects that, after half a century, many problems of major interest remain to be taken up. The work now demanding our attention is manifestly that of the experimental observation and control of the origin of species. The principal object of these lectures is to secure a more general appreciation of this kind of work."

The most important result of DeVries's experiments is the analysis of variations into two groups. The first are ordinary bodily variations, generally small in amount, and not appearing in the germ cells. These are termed *fluctuations,* and can play a relatively small part in the evolution of species because they are but slightly, if at all, hereditary. The second group comprises more pronounced deviations from the specific type, which affect the germ-plasm and therefore are transmitted undiminished to successive generations of offspring. These are termed *mutations.* Since they generally appear abruptly and fully formed as "sports," it follows that the evolutionary process is in general discontinuous; species being produced in a fully differentiated form, and not gradually by very small variations (fluctuations), as Darwin assumed to be the rule. Not all species in a state of nature are producing mutations; some are apparently in stable equilibrium, but others, such as the now classic evening primroses, are actively mutating in a great variety of different directions. Natural selection acts upon the potential species thus produced, and only those whose new features are advantageous survive.

DeVries here and in his larger work, 'Die Mutationstheorie,' conclusively demonstrates that in the plant species under investigation new varieties and species are actually produced abruptly by mutation, and he assumes that this is the general method of organic evolution. This latter point, however, is not lightly to be taken for granted. It by no means follows, for example, that species formation takes place in the same way in the higher animals, and from a very careful analysis of the geographical range and other characteristics of certain wild North American mammals Dr. C. Hart Merriman has expressed the conclusion (in the Vice-Presidential Address before the American Association for the Advancement of Science at New Orleans last January) that mutation is not an important factor in these cases. On the other hand, it is very probable that in the mental evolution of the higher animals mutation is a factor of great importance. Automatic actions, originally conscious, but stereotyped by long repetition in the individual, are not likely to be capable of transmission to a second generation; but, as is well known, there is a large class of instinctive actions which are innate and do not require practice for their performance. The physical organization for these actions is transmissible, and this organization is undoubtedly subject to mutation. If it be granted that new instincts may arise abruptly in this way in a state of efficiency without the necessity of the assumption of a gradual perfecting process through infinitesimal gradations, many questions of comparative psychology become greatly simplified. Psychologists of the genetic school will rank the doctrine of mutation along with organic selection (of Baldwin, Morgan, and Osborn) as one of the most important of the recent biological contributions to the problems of the origin and development of mind both in the lower animals and in human society.

Great Japan: A Study in National Efficiency. By Albert Stead. John Lane Co. 1905.

Is this book a prod to British inefficiency, or a genuine investigation into the reality of Japanese progress? The burden of Lord Rosebery's "forward" is that party politics in Britain spell inefficiency. "Inevitable as the fog," they keep out of employment a great mass of precious ability. "Party means the rule of the . . . few fit, the accidentally not fit, and the glaringly unfit." As for Mr. Stead's scrap-book itself—for scrapbook it is—it is rich in long excerpts that seem, on their face, to have been furnished at the Japanese Legation in London, or duly culled from the works of Japanese, who are past masters in the art of putting the best foot forward, and is a treasure-house of information. There is a generous table of contents, and an excellent index to nearly half a thousand pages of text. Twenty chapters treat of the nation's head, patriotism, Bushido, ancestor-worship, true religious freedom, the simple life, education the foundation of the nation, socialism, humane war, the position of woman, Japan as the pioneer of internationalism, etc., etc. The burden of the text is "Great Japan," the language almost unbroken panegyric. Two-thirds of the pages are filled with official utterances and arguments of Japanese writers, skilful not only in the use of words, but of our own delusive phrases. The thesis advanced is, that the Japanese are the happiest, healthiest, most efficient, and broadest-minded people in the world. We are led, by implication all along and by frequent direct statement, to believe that for "twenty-five hundred years" this has been so, that ancestor-worship is the cause of Japan's amazing efficiency in war and peace, that "these influences" of "self-sufficiency and pureness of blood" (p. 2) "are as strong as ever they were, and have not been affected by the adoption of Western ideas," etc.

No critical scholar, however, as we have often had occasion to point out, believes that the Japanese are an old nation. They have nothing worth the name of history of events and persons (though they have data for a study of institutions) before the fifth century. There was no such thing as genuine ancestor-worship in prehistoric Japan; nor any, except as North American Indians or the early autochthonous nations had it. Formulated, real ancestor worship was borrowed from China. The 'Kojiki' does not reveal family life in any but a very rudimentary state of evolution. Mr. Stead says the Emperor is "believed to be descended

from the Sun." So was Tecumseh. Repeatedly we have the mythical statement of "the gift of the Constitution by the Emperor," with not a word said of the twenty-one years' fierce struggle of parties from 1868 to 1889, the bloody insurrections, or the loss of eminent statesmen by assassination. In fact, Mr. Stead has been attacked by that peculiar malady of Japanitis which sets all the charming and delightful facts in the foreground, and suppresses the disagreeable but vital realities underneath.

To talk, as Mr. Stead does continually, about this "pure-blooded people, with no admixture of race, certainly not similar to that resulting from the invasions of the Anglo-Saxons or the Normans into Great Britain," is nonsense. The Ainu, the straight-eyed people with un-Mongolian full beards, speaking an Aryan language, once lived and roamed over the whole of the main island, and the story of their subduing and assimilation is known; while the names of mountain and rivers are still Ainu. The Malays and Negritos filled the southern islands. The Yamato race from Tartary—their traditions reflecting the river-valley life in Mantchuria and their decision in council of "gods" or chiefs to emigrate—the three distinct cycles of tradition in the 'Kojiki' telling of many migrations, form but another close parallel to the peopling of Great Britain, and prove the Japanese a highly mixed people, who had no real nationality until near the tenth century, and then only after four hundred years of known military activity and conquest. In fact, there could have been no nation, such as we see to-day, except for outward alien pressure and inward alien teachings. The Japanese of forty years ago had hardly a practical conception of "Japan." It was Kaga, Satsuma, Aidzu—the clan—not Japan. "Bushido" is, as conceived by foreigners, largely a modern idealization, in sunset clouds of memory, of military customs followed by the Samurai, who constituted but one-tenth of Japan. To say that, in 1871, Bushido was "at hand," is to leave out the teaching for ten years previous of the great teachers from America, who from 1859 drilled their pupils in American notions and in Arndt's poem, "Where is the German Fatherland?" The work of "adapting Bushido to the needs of Japan" means actually incorporating into the minds of tender youth, during a generation or more of public schools, both the ideas and the ideals born in Europe and America, at first by foreign teachers and then by natives. "The social evil is far less than it was" (p. 40). Of course it is, since Christian sentiment in the Diet secured a law which the Salvation Army, in spite of the brutal violence of opposing Japanese, murderous and church-burning Tokio toughs, got enforced, freeing over 12,000 women enslaved in vice against their will.

The chapter on "True Religious Freedom" is almost wholly a mosaic of quotations, chiefly from living Government officials of the constitutional era (and from one called "a Japanese writer," who is an American), and tells just how liberal the provisions of the Constitution of 1889 are. Yet we are left in ignorance of the crucial question, Does Japan grant "true religious freedom" to the native scholar who inquires into the origins of Mikadoism, or who shows how primitive Shinto was deliberately and officially turned into a political engine? How heavily must one discount Japan's boasted intellectual freedom when he recalls the deposition of a professor for dissecting official orthodoxy concerning Shinto tradition, and sees, even in October, 1905, a university professor put out of his chair because of his criticisms of the Portsmouth treaty—that is, of the theocratic ruler and of his divine ancestors. Of course, the Japanese Government, in alliance with Great Britain, freely permits Christianity, but that is not the point. How can there be genuine freedom when (p. 10) concerning the representative of Heaven and of the gods, the "imperial ancestors," the Tenno (Heaven King), one must keep silence or be persecuted? Hear how Marquis Ito, "the framer of the Constitution" and the commentator thereon, lays down the law: "The Emperor is Heaven-descended, divine, and sacred. . . . He shall not be made a topic of derogatory comment nor one of discussion."

Viewed as a manual of plausible and often valuable information, the book is a welcome addition to the library on Japan; but to take Mr. Stead's statements on their face value is to accept a fabric of delusion.

Gregory the Great: His Place in History and Thought. By F. Homes Dudden, B.D., Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

Mr. Dudden's 'Gregory the Great' is the first noteworthy attempt to place before English readers a comprehensive account of the life and work of the great pope whose name is so closely associated with the beginnings of Anglo-Saxon Christianity. It is an ambitious undertaking for so new a member of the guild of historians, for Gregory's career, more than that of almost any other pope, led him into an immense variety of relations, involving, for their due understanding, the widest knowledge of the times. As civil administrator of the City of Rome under the Empire, as monk and founder of monasteries, as resident ambassador of the Papacy at Constantinople, as Pope extending his influence throughout and beyond the Romanized world, finally as preacher and theologian, Gregory developed an activity such as few public men in any age have ever displayed. To grasp all these aspects of his personality and his work would be the problem of a lifetime as long as his own, and the present book is apparently the firstling of its author's historical and theological studies.

With this limitation in mind, we may say at once that Mr. Dudden has made a valuable contribution to historical literature. He divides his work into three books, treating respectively of Gregory's life before he became Pope, of his pontificate, and of his theology. Of Gregory's apparently complex personality Mr. Dudden has, we think, a view quite in accord with the facts, equally removed from extravagant laudation and petty criticism. He sees in him the earliest illustration of that strange compound of hard sense with intellectual distrust of the senses, to which we give the convenient label of "the mediæval man." He has his doubts whether Gregory was quite up to the standard of "sainthood," though he wisely refrains from a definition of that standard, but he fully appreciates his extraordinary executive capacity and energy. Only in a few brief summaries does he attempt any formal analysis of Gregory's character as a whole, but rather lets his narrative tell its own story of personality.

For example: no study of the mediæval man can be adequate which does not in some way explain his relation to the world of miracle. It is not enough to say, as Mr. Dudden does, that Gregory, like every one in his day, lived and moved in this fictitious world. Miracle was not only a mysterious power over everyday minds; it was an instrument in the hands of men who knew how and when to use it. There is a subtle humor, for instance, in Gregory's dealings with the subject of relics. He made no scruple of bringing home some very valuable ones from the East; but when an empress dared to express a desire for some of the precious treasures of the Roman shrines, Gregory's pen can hardly fly fast enough to tell the awful consequences of even approaching so potent charms as these. All this does not touch Mr. Dudden's sense of humor in the least, but we may be tolerably sure that whatever stood for that quality in Gregory's eminently practical make-up was all alive at such moments. When Gregory solemnly reports that, during the reconsecration of an Arian church, the crowd were suddenly aware of a pig running about among their feet and making for the door, a prodigy granted "by the Divine Mercy, that all men might clearly know that the foul inhabitant was departing from the place," Mr. Dudden, with equal solemnity, adds a note: "Those who have been in a great crowd in a Roman church, and know how the children manage to squeeze themselves through it, will be able, perhaps, to make a shrewd guess at the real cause of the phenomenon here reported."

It is surely not asking too much of a modern historical student, fresh from his school, that he should give the most ample and critical account of his sources. This, Mr. Dudden nowhere does. His statement of authorities occupies less than six pages. Chief among them are, of course, the more than eight hundred letters of Gregory himself, and their chronology is a matter of the most vital importance to their use. It is mere shiftlessness, therefore, to say, "All that needs to be said on that question has been said already by Ewald"—without giving us a word as to what that is. It is not enough to say, "Paul the Deacon, son of Warnefrid, compiled the short *Vita Gregorii Magni*"—we ought to know in a work of this magnitude the substance of all that critical scholarship has to tell about such a man as Paulus, if we are to estimate aright his treatment of Gregory. Mr. Dudden has got beyond the stage of invoking "a distinguished German *savant*," but he is still capable of quoting an "Italian" and a "German" opinion, and of grouping his authorities as "English" and "foreign." His style affects the grand manner. He cannot resist temptations to be picturesque, and is fond of imagining the places and the people that Gregory "must have" seen and heard. His stage-pictures, it must be added, are based upon wide and sound reading, but one cannot help re-

gretting the amount of space sacrificed to these literary decorations, and thus taken from what might have been given to a more complete and orderly account of sources and methods.

This criticism applies, however, hardly at all to the last book, that on Gregory's theology. Here the style becomes direct and simple, so that one feels that herein lies the author's real strength. His estimate of Gregory's contribution to theology as the systematizer and popularizer of Augustinian thought seems eminently sound. Here as elsewhere he shows us the great bishop as an organizing talent, not a speculative genius, but rather the mediator of others' thought to the needs of every-day humanity. The age of original thinkers was past and the great reconstruction of the scholastic period was not yet ready. Gregory's mission was one of adaptation rather than of controversy, and he fulfilled it in doctrine as in practice with the materials at hand. Mr. Dudden has succeeded in bringing out in clear relief the truly constructive aspects of his work, and in leaving on the reader's mind an adequate impression of one of the greatest of Christian prelates.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Century of Bibles. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Anthology of French Poetry. Compiled by Frederick Lawton. Macmillan Co. 60 cents.
Audubon, John W. Audubon's Western Journal: 1849-1850. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Barbara. The Garden, You, and I. Macmillan Co.
Barbour, A. Maynard. Breakers Ahead. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Bazán, Emilia Pardo. The Mystery of the Lost Dauphin. Translated by Annabel H. Seeger. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Benson, A. C. Walter Pater. Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.
Betts, George Herbert. The Mind and its Education. Appleton.
Book of Common Worship. Philadelphia: Presbyterian Board of Publication.
Boothby, Guy. The Race of Life. F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.50.
Boxall, George E. The Anglo-Saxon. A. Wessels Co. $1.25.
Constantinople. Painted by Warwick Goble. Described by Alexander Van Millingen. Macmillan Co. $6.
Early Western Travels. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Travels in the Interior of North America by Maximilian, Prince of Wied. Vol. I. Cleveland, O.: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Ecclesiastical Records of the State of New York. Vols. V. and VI. Albany: J. B. Lyon Co.
Elson, Henry William. School History of the United States. Macmillan Co.
Euripides' Alcestis. Translated by H. Kynaston. Henry Frowde.
Flash, Henry Lynden. Poems. Neale Publishing Co.
Foley, James W. Songs of Schooldays. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25 net.
Fordham, Elias Pym. Personal Narrative, 1817-1818. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Fosdick, Lucian J. The French Blood in America. Fleming H. Revell Co. $2 net.
France, Anatole. The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard. Translated by Lafcadio Hearn. Harpers. $1.25.
Franklin, Benjamin, The Writings of. Edited by Albert H. Smyth. Vol. VII. Macmillan.
Gillin, John Lewis. The Dunkers: A Sociological Interpretation. Columbia University.
Harwood, W. S. The New Earth. Macmillan Co. $1.75 net.
Haynes, George H. The Election of Senators. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50 net.
Heroes of Discovery in America. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Holley, Marietta. Samantha vs. Josiah. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Journals of the Continental Congress. 1774-1789. Edited by Worthington C. Ford. Vol. VI.: 1776. Washington, D. C.
Joutel's Journal of La Salle's Last Voyage, 1684-7. New edition edited by Henry Reed Stiles. Albany: Joseph McDonough. $5 net.
Kelley, Gwendolyn D., and George P. Upton. Edouard Remenyi. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Labiche, Eugène. La Grammaire. Edited by Moritz Levi. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
La Grasserie, Raoul de. De la Catégorie du Genre. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Lectures on the Method of Science. Edited by T. B. Strong. Henry Frowde. 7s. 6d. net.
Lincoln, Joseph C. Mr. Pratt. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Longinus on the Sublime. Translated by A. O. Prickard. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d. net.
Lord Curzon in India. With an Introduction by Thomas Raleigh. Macmillan Co. $4.
Lucan's Pharsalia. Translated by Sir Edward Ridley. Second edition. Longmans. $4.50.
Luce, Morton. A Handbook to the Works of Shakespeare. Macmillan Co. $1.75.
Mark Twain's Library of Humor: The Primrose Way. Harpers. $1.50.
Mathieson, William Law. Scotland and the Union. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
McAdoo, William. Guarding a Great City. Harpers. $2 net.
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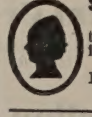

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The Week.

The usual comment on the new State formed by the union of Oklahoma and Indian Territory is that it waited too long for what it deserved. In the public mind, this rich territory of 70,000 square miles has been knocking none too insistently at the doors of Congress demanding to be taken into the "sisterhood of States." As a matter of fact, if the Fifty-eighth Congress had provided for the union of the two Territories in a single State, some awkward questions would have remained to vex the State Government. It is true that no Territory ever approached these two in the matter of population before admission, but in no Territory was it ever so small a handicap not to have Statehood. The demand to be released from the disabilities of the old status has been really urgent only since the Fifty-ninth Congress met last December. The outcome is creditable to the progressives of Oklahoma and Indian Territory, but in view of the problems that had to be considered we cannot think that the delay was due altogether to the Speaker's stubborn determination to yoke Arizona and New Mexico into the team.

Amazement has been frequently expressed by critics of the Statehood bill that the wishes of some 800,000 people of Oklahoma and nearly the same number in Indian Territory could be ignored. They forget that the increase of population has been sudden. The census of 1900 gave Oklahoma 398,000 population, and credited 392,000 people to Indian Territory. Since then both these figures have doubled. But, however rapidly the white population increased, there was no available magic by which to turn, at once and to their advantage, 80,000 Indians into so many "Statehood or bust" advocates. Add to this the fact that 31,400 square miles out of the 70,430 belonged exclusively to these 80,000 Indians, and it may be understood that patience and skill were needed to effect the combination. Though the separate-Statehood idea never spread very far in Indian Territory, there was certainly a good case to be made out for the "State of Sequoyah." It required a really admirable broad-mindedness on the part of Indian Territory to put herself, temporarily, and probably permanently, under a State government at Guthrie, to agree to a brief limitation of the ordinance of prohibition, and to shoulder a proportionate share of the responsibilities without any near prospect of getting a fair share of political rewards.

Now that Oklahoma is disposed of, what is to become of Arizona and New Mexico? Is the Foraker amendment merely a polite way of keeping out both Territories, or is it, as some of its former opponents now profess, a practical equivalent of the original Two-State bill? Nobody knows. But much of the advance speculation seems to ignore the very radical difference between what the people of Arizona want and what they will take. Nobody has so much as asserted that they wanted to be amalgamated with New Mexico. For several years past one of the chief industries of the Territory has been the dispatching of telegrams to Congress at supposedly psychological moments. Separate-Statehood resolutions have figured prominently among its exports. But why any one should place the slightest confidence in the fact that at the State Fair in Phœnix last year only three Arizonians out of many thousand voted for joint Statehood, is a mystery of statesmanship. Of course, they voted against joint Statehood because the alternative was separate Statehood, instead of, as in the coming referendum, no Statehood at all. When the solicitous parent asks, "Would you rather have me give you a nickel or a dollar?" there is never any doubt what the child will reply. But when it is a question between taking the nickel now and trusting to the chance of getting the dollar at some time in the future, it is a different matter.

Nothing but complete success could justify the President's extraordinary course in the meat-inspection controversy. We say nothing of his abandonment of the Constitutional theory of the independent spheres of Congress and the Executive; he had already left that a thousand miles behind him. But next he came out in the rôle not merely of a dictator, but of a hectorer. In an angry, scolding, and even insulting tone towards a leading committee of the House of Representatives, and, inferentially, towards the House itself, he offered a rude challenge which was instantly accepted. Chairman Wadsworth gave Mr. Roosevelt as good as he sent; convicted him of ignorance of the very bill he was denouncing; and answered his letter with an acerbity and sharp resentment with which, it is safe to say, no President was ever addressed under similar circumstances. It was not doubtful that the House would stand behind its committee and its Speaker, and read the President a lesson. Thus Mr. Roosevelt, not content with having inflamed the Senate against him, rushed into a quarrel with the House.

Chairman Wadsworth repelled with heat, for himself and his colleagues, the President's charge that they had made themselves the tools of the packers. He implied that Congressmen knew what their constituents wanted. In fact, evidence accumulates that the vast farming interests affected are anxious to have the meat-inspection business settled quickly and with as little friction as possible. Representative Williams discovered this on Friday, when, in an attempt to drum up Democratic support for the President, he found that the Texas delegation would fail him, since Texas cattle-growers are demanding the House substitute for the Beveridge amendment. All through the West, indeed, there is a new-born feeling that Trust-busting is not what it was cracked up to be. This docking the cheering spectator 10 per cent. on the price of his cattle makes the spectacle of heroically attacking the Octopus much less thrilling.

Peace has come so suddenly in the cruel meat-inspection war at Washington that many a Peterkin will be asking what the fight was all about. It should be enough that "it was a famous victory"—this time for all concerned. The President won, Speaker Cannon won, Chairman Wadsworth won, and Senator Beveridge beat them all. The obvious fact is that the bill as now agreed upon represents a compromise. Mr. Roosevelt has yielded on at least three points which, in his message and letters, he had said were essential—the payment of the cost of inspection by the packers, the dating of the labels on canned meats, and the making "the judgment of the Secretary of Agriculture" final. On the other hand, the President has succeeded in getting the court-review provision stricken out and putting back the appointment of inspectors under the civil-service rules. The whole adjustment seems fair, and might, one would think, have been reached without all the shouting. It is a capital illustration of Mr. Roosevelt's flexibility as a politician that, after his violent letters to Mr. Wadsworth, he should have sat down in sweet reasonableness and patched up a compromise. All hands seem now disposed to cut the flurry short; and with the passage of the inspection bill, and the fine certificate which the packers will soon get from the committee of veterinarians and pathologists about to investigate their establishments, we shall all be presently acclaiming American meats as the best and purest in the world.

Why the Government is making such a fuss over the freight rebates secured by the packers on their export shipments, we do not quite understand. It would have been simple enough two years ago, because then the sale of American products to foreigners at a lower price than stay-at-home citizens paid was a reprehensible practice, which no one fell into except occasionally under necessity. But since the country has learned this winter from the speeches of several of the most eminent Republicans that "dumping" our surplus abroad is the rule, and is the best possible thing for home industries, no matter how low prices the foreigner pays, a Republican Attorney-General has not the faintest excuse for interfering with this phase of business. For, if it is a good thing to sell meat or steel rails cheap abroad, it must be a better thing to sell them cheaper still. The greater the reduction in price to the foreigner, the more praiseworthy are the agencies which bring this condition about. If the rebate cuts off another fraction from the price the Frenchman or German pays for his American goods, ought we not, therefore, to encourage the rebate? At home it is different, because we want our countrymen to pay high prices and thereby escape being made "cheap men."

Even without a new law for systematizing the consular service, it is possible for the President to institute about as near an approach to the merit system as he chooses. The sixty-one transfers sent to the Senate on Friday are, we take it, just about what would have been put into effect had the Lodge bill been passed in its original form. Out of eleven consul-generals in the batch of nominations, two are promoted from posts of the same title, but at less important cities; seven are raised from the grade of consul, one from that of vice-consul, while the eleventh man, Mr. Haywood, though not now in the service, has been a confidential clerk in the Department, and had served with distinction as Consul-General at Honolulu. The list of consuls shows similar advances from the grades of vice-consul and consular agent. The whole, which is said to be the result of several weeks' work by Secretary Root and Mr. Carr, the efficient chief of the Consular Bureau, is in every way a splendid beginning for the permanent improvement of our representation abroad. The trouble is that the maintenance of a high standard in the consular service is dependent solely on the will of the Executive. Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Root have high ideals for this important branch of the Government's work. It is the duty of Congress to place the reform on such a basis that no future officials who may be less particular about this matter can undo the good that has been accomplished.

It is a fine game of cross purposes which the House and Senate are playing in the matter of the Panama Canal. No sooner does the Senate decide to pass a sea-level bill on June 21, than the House proceeds to whip through a lock-canal amendment on the Friday previous. This may seem amusing, but it is really tragic. To see a vast Government undertaking so mishandled and left in such a tangle is depressing. What course will the President elect? With the two houses of Congress deadlocked, he cannot act under the authority of either. He himself has expressed doubts of the present adequacy of the original Spooner act. It is said by some that final decision in regard to the "type" of canal may be left over till next session, and that meanwhile work can be done in the Culebra cut and elsewhere of a sort that would be necessary under any plan. Unfortunately for this contention, Chief Engineer Stevens has pronounced against it. He has declared that no more work of any consequence can be done to advantage till the engineering features are fixed. Of course, the $26,000,000 can be appropriated and spent on supplies and sanitation, if it is absolutely necessary to get rid of the money, but that will scarcely advance the real canal. It is a vexing posture of affairs for a President who had to exceed his powers and outrage a weak nation three years ago, because he could not wait another day for that canal.

In voting to purchase Panama Canal supplies in the home market, unless the President regards the prices as "extortionate or unreasonable," the House of Representatives has been lamentably inconsistent. Why, in the name of William McKinley, Nelson Dingley, and all the saints of the calendar of protection, should the Government balk at extortionate and unreasonable prices? The existing tariff laws are framed for the express purpose of allowing manufacturers to wring the last penny from the hapless consumer. The private citizen must pay outrageous bills, like them or not; the Government which has framed the tariff schedules ought equally to abide by them. The burden of decision, we note, is thrown on an omniscient President. He and he alone can tell whenever a price has exceeded the bounds of propriety. In the process of determining the exact line between reason and unreason, he must be guided by benevolent intuition. Obviously, he must leave wholly out of the reckoning the quotations of the foreign market, glutted with the products of pauper labor. The price in the home market may be equally delusive, for it may, in the words of Congress itself, be extortionate and unreasonable. Congress has refused to approve as a standard the "export prices" which our Trusts are asking of the foreigner. Nothing, then, is left for the President but the "inner light."

If Secretary Root's reply to the Panama Liberals who want the United States to guarantee fair play in the coming election is read without taking a breath, it sounds impressive. It is as sonorous and as evanescent, in real meaning, as one of Abraham Brick's eulogies. We understand well enough that Gov. Magoon is to be our "watcher" down there —"will be instructed to look over the situation"; but what, in the name of international diplomacy, are the "usages which obtain between nations" when one hears that election frauds are being perpetrated in the other's territory? Beyond going to the officials of the Panama Government and warning them that he is watching the polls, Gov. Magoon can do nothing; Mr. Root's note will have no terrors for the Panamans. It can be matched in bombastic unintelligibility by the least important among Latin-American officials. However, Dr. Arosemena and his fellow-Liberals will have the advantage of being able to say that President Roosevelt has expressed a deep interest in the election. This could not be construed as "intervention"; and if the moral sense of the electors of Panama is as keen as it should be, the knowledge that "Roosevelt wants a square deal down there" should be more effective even than Mr. Root's note and Gov. Magoon's good-natured and entirely unofficial supervision.

"Unless [our] petitions are answered in a better tone in the future," said Sampel Gompers on June 11 before the International Brotherhood of Bookbinders, "we shall change the request into a demand." We suppose the right to "demand" is a natural offshoot of the right to petition. Certainly, political parties out of power are very fond of "demanding" reforms they want, and organized labor should enjoy the same privilege. But just what is the "tone" which Mr. Gompers insists must be made "better"? About a week before, the House Committee on the Judiciary decided, by a divided vote, not to report any of the anti-injunction bills. This is a committee made up of eighteen of the ablest lawyers in Congress. All but four of them have served on the same committee in previous years, and listened not once, but more than once, to the multitudinous arguments for and against these measures. The whole ground was gone over again this year. If a majority of the committee is not yet convinced of the wisdom of the proposed legislation, there may possibly be some other

reason than over-friendliness to the capitalistic class.

"Perkins, 798; Cummins, 725," is less disquieting to the Iowa progressives than "Perkins, 822; Cummins, 820," would be. While the reform Governor is far behind his rival in the number of delegates pledged, his supporters point out that, in order to divide the vote, Perkins must get 23 more supporters. Whether it will be "23 for Perkins," in the slang sense, cannot, of course be predicted. But it should be remembered that hardly more than a week ago Cummins was farther ahead than Perkins is now. If Shaw turned Scott County's 35 delegates to the standpatter, it is not inconceivable that the Governor himself might work industriously in the eight counties that have still to hold conventions, and triumph finally. It would be a pity to lose Cummins from Iowa politics just now. The real fight should come later, when a successor to Senator Allison is chosen, and when Secretary Shaw himself might become the Governor's rival. To meet the great apostle of high prices and standpattism in hand-to-hand fighting would be to acquire merit; to fight him through Perkins, and lose, would be to submit the "Iowa idea" to undeserved indignity.

The scheme for a national school of fine arts is still pretty much in the air. Apparently, a new organization is planned. Neither the present Art Students' League, with its remarkable record, nor the Academy Schools, with their Columbia affiliation, are felt to carry the desired authority. To create an American École des Beaux-Arts would be an interesting experiment, but the utility of one new mill for the wholesale production of artists is by no means evident. The aspirant who cannot find some sort of teaching to his taste in New York, Boston, or Philadelphia, is surely hard to please. In fact, an observer of our painting and sculpture might be inclined to believe that the facilities for instruction in these subjects were not too scanty, but quite the contrary. It is easy to see how, by the founding of a national school, a very welcome dignity and emolument might be conferred upon a score of our more prominent artists. That in a brief time such a school should enjoy the authority of that of Paris is, of course, out of the question. It is not even certain that such a result is desirable. American art, like that of England, has always been rebellious against authority; it has thriven best along extra-academical lines. If this be our national genius, we had better accept it with all its limitations, than ape the bureaucratic fashions of France. But if somebody must found something, a national school of fine arts affords a fairly entertaining and presumably harmless field for experimentation.

Mr. Chamberlain's cabled prediction that the Liberal Government would not last a year, turns out to have been simply a way of cheering on his constituents at Birmingham. He was exhorting them to be "ready," to make up their minds to give him 1,000 greater majority next time, and he then, in a fine oratorical glow, declared that no man could tell when the summons to battle might come —why, possibly next spring! It is hard even for the London *Times* to take this as a sober prophecy, though it remarks on Mr. Chamberlain's skill "in electioneering questions." He seems, however, to have got into so confirmed a habit of predicting the fall of Mr. Balfour's Government that he has begun it already on Bannerman. It is a little too preposterous. The Ministry is no doubt having trouble with the Education bill, but no quarrel with the Lords or the Church of England on that subject can seriously embarrass it. At most, a recasting of the Cabinet would follow. The trouble with Chamberlain is that he had so freely denied in advance the capacity of the Liberals to form a Government which would hold together a twelvemonth, that he now appears as a prophet to support himself in the rôle of a reviler.

In view of the disposition to regard the revolution in Russia as a fact almost accomplished, Mr. Lionel James's account of an interview with Gekker, the revolutionary leader, in *Macmillan*, is interesting if only for its novelty. Gekker said that "the general strike and the revolution at Moscow have both, in a sense, been failures." Mr. James infers that the objective of the revolutionists is indefinite. Their ideal is that of anarchism rather than of republicanism. The greatest obstacle in the way of the revolutionary movement is the expense of carrying it on. This is felt especially by the Union of Unions, whose "funds are low." In South Russia, for example, this organization levies an inhabited-house tax of a third of one month's rent per householder. The Jewish Bund levies a tax based on a tenement return, and the Social and Constitutional Democracy a poll-tax of about 50 cents a head. Terrorists and anarchists often resort to blackmail for tribute. This naturally tends to make the movement unpopular. But revolutions usually pay their own way, sometimes by the self-sacrifice of their supporters, often by pillage and devastation. Nor is a definite and positive ideal altogether essential to revolutionary success, as was proved by the changing purposes and policies before and during the Reign of Terror.

Mr. Bryan's remark at St. Petersburg upon the patience of the Duma in waiting for the full assertion and recognition of its rights, but echoes the comments of the most skilled French and English newspaper correspondents on the spot. They have several times thought a violent break with the Czar imminent, yet thus far it has been averted. One restraining influence on either side is little spoken of, yet it must have much quiet influence. We mean the critical state of Russian finance, with the great commitments of Germany as well as France in Russian loans. As a consequence, there must be a steady diplomatic pressure upon the Czar not to take any rash step which would mean a default on Russian bonds held abroad. Business relations must also be availed of privately to impress the same warning upon Russians of position in the commercial and financial world. None but the maddest revolutionist, in fact, could wish to see the old régime go down in crash and conflagration, with the sure result of repudiation of Russia's debts and the dislike and distrust of her most powerful neighbors. The financial argument makes strongly for concessions by both Czar and Duma (on Friday, Russian fours sank to 72). It plainly will not bear everything, however. The division of the Duma into social classes shows that there are 200 peasants to 17 merchants and 34 landlords. That suggests the limits of the appeal on the score of public finance.

The deadlock which thus far the Czar and the Duma have contrived to avoid, seems to be approaching. By prorogation, the court can at any time force the situation, but it is unlike Nicholas II. to precipitate a conflict that may be approached by gradual stages. In fact, the break is rather more likely to come from the side of the Duma. Till now it has occupied itself in memorials which could be evaded, and in platonic condemnation of the Ministry, which could be ignored. The moment it passes any broad, constructive law, the issue of obedience between Parliament and Crown will confront the public officials. That moment can hardly be long deferred; and, since the Czar shows no signs of attenuating popular demands by anticipating their formal presentation, the present suspense undoubtedly makes for revolution. Delay is surely no way out of the present *impasse*, when each levy injects seditious material into the army, when the agrarian disorders are reappearing, and a general strike is being seriously planned. But no monarch, we believe, has ever yet taken the fable of the Sibylline leaves seriously, until his name in turn has become an accepted illustration of the classical theme.

THE EXECUTIVE AS LEGISLATOR.

It is always instructive to trace the development of extra-Constitutional practices. In the making they are often more interesting than when fully formed. The great extension which Mr. Roosevelt is giving to the functions of the President as an author of legislation calls attention afresh to the process by which the Executive, whom the Constitution plainly expected to keep his hands off law-making (except for recommending measures), has become the most potent of all in acute legislative crises.

It is, admittedly, of ancient date. Washington not only asked but worked for legislation he thought necessary. When the Senate amended one of his treaties he lost his temper and expressed his displeasure to the Senate in person. Lincoln pushed this prerogative of the President, with many others, to an extreme in the days of the civil war, when so many laws and precedents had to be silent. Grant was influential with Congress, through expressed wish and threatened veto. Cleveland made his daring utterance against the Gorman silver compromise, and smashed it; he wrote his famous "perfidy" letter in the effort to prevent the Wilson tariff bill from being protectionized in the Senate, but failed. McKinley was far less open in his methods, preferring to be confidential and cajoling; but it is probable that no President ever came nearer getting what he wanted from the lawmakers. The names cited show how impossible it now is to raise the Constitutional point against the habit, with any force. The general rule seems to be that when the President interferes to compass legislation which you ardently desire, you are entitled to proclaim his action a patriotic exercise of the powers of his great office; but when he bestirs himself to secure the enactment of laws which you regard as vicious, you have the privilege of denouncing his course as utterly repugnant to the Constitution.

President Roosevelt's innovations in this particular are mainly those of technique. He has surpassed all his predecessors in the openness and directness of his procedure. With an inborn contempt for conventions, he goes straight to his goal. Of what avail would be the White House telephone, unless Mr. Roosevelt could speak over it to the Senate as plumply as if he were on the floor? For him to hesitate to make that use of it would be to refuse to take advantage of the resources of civilization. And during the past two weeks in connection with the meat-inspection controversy, we have seen the President taking charge of legislation with a simple good faith as marked as his somewhat over-confident zeal. To the Chairman of the House Committee on Agriculture he wrote in the imperative tone of a Prime Minister giving orders to a subordinate. He summoned the Speaker. With a member of the House Committee he went over the pending bill, line by line, precisely as if he were himself chairman, licking a law into shape before reporting it. This country has never seen anything quite like that. The President never before so completely assumed the rôle of a legislator.

Mr. Roosevelt is carrying off the part with customary dash. He is, however, uncovering certain awkwardnesses in the double relation. Obviously, when the President of the United States turns his hand to legislation, he has a great advantage over ordinary Representatives or Senators. They may speak in the name of their constituencies or States; he comes forward as the chosen of the whole people. (Of course, it is only something more than half the people at the time of election, but immediately thereafter, by a pleasant fiction, the President becomes the interpreter of the sentiments of every man, woman, and child.) This necessarily carries great weight; but it also lays upon the President the duty of making no mistakes. The infallible spokesman of the infallible people must fall into no blunders. Hence the misfortune of the gross error which President Roosevelt made in his first letter to Mr. Wadsworth, and which he handsomely acknowledges in his second. After saying that "I have gone over your bill very carefully," he had to admit that he did not know what was in it. Now, this would be a sore discomfiture to a debater on the floor of the House; and when the President comes forward as practically such a debater, he cannot escape appearing discomfited also. This is certainly a disadvantage of Mr. Roosevelt's open and slashing style. If he had simply conferred and advised, without rushing too hastily into cold type, he would not have had to make his apology. And an infallible people does not like to see its infallible President forced to apologize.

But Roosevelt the debater rides off on the excuse of a sovereign that the blunder was not his, but that of his advisers. It was Beveridge that misled him. It was Reynolds whose sociological eye failed to find in the bill what the President now confesses was there all the time. Yes, but the President did not say that it was Beveridge and Reynolds who had carefully gone over the Wadsworth bill and found it "very, very bad." He inadvertently used the "I," and that makes it difficult afterwards to say "they." The people in Parliament, under a Constitutional monarchy, are entitled to demand the resignation of the "they"—the Ministers at fault—but we have no way of getting at Beveridge or Reynolds. They may continue to poison the mind of the President. This shows the vice of his frank assumption of the rôle of legislator. Therein he wears the guise of a Prime Minister, responsible to a Parliament; but he does not take the penalties with the privileges, nor resign when he fails.

Persistence in this over-loading of the Presidential office with the burdens of legislation will, we think, be bad for Presidents, since it will expose them to new acrimonies, and so lower their dignity; and for Congress, we are certain, it will be worse. Initiative and informed debate and vigilant watchfulness are rare enough already in our legislators. It would be a pity to take away the spur to the exercise of those qualities by strengthening the habit of looking to the White House for the framing as well as the suggestion of laws. If the tendency goes unchecked, there will be more point than ever to the story of the rueful Representative who said: "I was always told that when I entered Congress I should find my level, but I never dreamed what a level it was."

SECRETARY AND PRESIDENT.

"I wired Des Moines yesterday that I would not accept an invitation to speak at Davenport on the evening of June 13, as it necessitates cancelling two important previous engagements. On receipt of your invitation, I conferred with the President, and have decided to cancel the other engagements and accept yours. I will be with you on Wednesday evening.

"L. M. SHAW."

The obvious inference from this dispatch to an anti-Cummins leader is that, with the express approval of the President, Secretary Shaw was cancelling important engagements in order to take a hand in the Iowa fight. But no; the Secretary of the Treasury ingeniously explains that he was merely trying to circumvent a wicked newspaper correspondent who had asserted that Shaw and Roosevelt are not in cordial agreement. The phrase, "I conferred with the President," would prove to all the world that the Secretary and his chief were at least on speaking terms. To all appearances, however, Mr. Shaw's telegram may make the statement of the correspondent come true. President Roosevelt repudiates in his most emphatic style the idea that he has taken sides in the struggle. He "has sent no message"; he "has not interfered, is not now interfering, and will not interfere."

Into the personal aspect of this rebuff it is hardly becoming for an outsider to go. Sensitive Cabinet officers have resigned on hints not nearly so broad. But we are not the keepers of Mr. Shaw's conscience. If his personal dignity allows him to be held up to Iowa and the country as practically a maker of false pretences, we have nothing to say. A Secretary who likes that sort of thing, would like extremely the telegram from the President exposing him in the eyes of all the world. He would

meet the blow with Christian resignation.

There is, however, a public aspect of the matter which concerns us all. Questions of political as well as personal propriety are involved. The whole relation of a Secretary to a President comes in. Is it permissible that a member of the Cabinet should speak on a question of public policy in tones at variance with his chief's? We know what the wholesome precedent has been. Secretaries have not been compelled to think the same thing as Presidents. Their views of national or even of party policy may differ from his, and they may tell him so frankly. It is their duty to give him conscientious advice, even when it goes counter to his preferences. But in public, it has been understood, the Cabinet officer makes no deliverance which has not the approval and does not reflect the opinions of the President. We exclude, of course, all the minor nothings of Secretarial discourse—the happy "home-coming," with greetings to old friends among whom it would be such a pleasure to live and die; the opening of fairs: the purely ceremonial occasions on which the people are so fond of having a "direct representative of the President" in evidence to say the undisputed thing in the solemn way. No one sees impropriety or anything else that signifies in such speeches. But there is a clear difference when one of the President's official family makes a deliberate pronouncement upon an important measure closely affecting public policy, and sharply debated. In such cases, he ought to speak the mind of the President, or else keep still.

This is precisely the irregularity into which Secretary Shaw has fallen. He has made and keeps on making speeches which he ought not to deliver unless as the exponent of the Administration. Yet the head of the Administration openly repudiates him. He, however, goes on as if that made no difference. The excuse that nothing is involved but "factional differences" among Iowa Republicans is hollow. Behind the contest between Gov. Cummins and Mr. Perkins lies a national political question of the highest import. It is intransigeant Dingleyism vs. tariff revision. In going out to campaign against Gov. Cummins, Secretary Shaw becomes by necessity the eulogist of the high tariff and the antagonist of any man who would cut away an inch from one of its schedules. In that rôle he has, in fact, displayed himself. He has taken a positive and uncompromising position on this burning issue, and one that is known to diverge from the President's. In assuring Gov. Cummins's friends that he would nôt "interfere" to their prejudice, Mr. Roosevelt made it clear that he would do nothing to oppose the triumph of their tariff-revision doctrines. Thus he put himself radically at variance with his Secretary of the Treasury. Such a conflict is, we maintain, improper and mischievous, if not unprecedented.

The voice of the Administration should be single in all such matters. It ought not to give an uncertain sound. When a Secretary goes out to make a carefully prepared speech on matters in political debate, the people are entitled to regard it as an official utterance. So it has been in the past. When Mr. Hay spoke as Secretary of State, or Mr. Root as Secretary of War, they were rightly taken as being the mouthpieces of President McKinley. One cannot imagine Mr. Shaw's predecessor in the Treasury making slap-dash political speeches, getting rapped over the knuckles for them by the President, and then cheerfully saying it didn't count. The rules of the game cannot thus be lightly set aside. The impossibility of conceiving of Mr. Gage or Mr. Carlisle or Mr. Fairchild or Mr. Sherman or any other predecessor of Mr. Shaw's indulging in his hap-hazard methods, shows how violative of sound tradition they are.

President Roosevelt, we presume, lets it go on out of abounding good nature, and in a sort of "free-for-all" idea. He probably looks upon Secretary Shaw's Presidential candidacy with amusement, and thinks it does not matter greatly what such a man says. But it does matter thus to have a wise rule of official propriety trampled upon. We cannot afford to have the Administration made to appear either happy-go-lucky or at cross purposes. So we think that Mr. Roosevelt should end this Shaw comedy, even if by a sudden exit of the leading actor. There ought, at least, to be no occasion next winter to repeat the Gridiron joke of the last: "Secretary Shaw has induced the President to induce him to stay in the Cabinet another year."

CONGRESSIONAL GUARDIANSHIP.

Two comparatively insignificant items in the Indian Appropriation bill have served in a Senate debate to bring out very clearly the point that, when the regular officials of the Government turn a deaf ear to the grafting adventurer, Congress is too often ready to consider his claim. Like the action of last session, when the $750,000 fee of the Choctaw attorneys was allowed by a citizens' court created by Congress, the two items in this year's bill are illustrative of a system that has had many supporters. In the debate, the Senate conferees, who, with the House managers of the bill, brought in the report that was adopted, confessed that neither the Secretary of the Interior nor the Commissioner of Indian Affairs had approved the items. Nevertheless, the Senate agreed to the report, the bill's backers putting the blame for its defects upon the stubborn House conferees. Commissioner Leupp and Secretary Hitchcock, whose special business it is to investigate such claims, were overruled by the efforts of lobbyists; Congress, the sympathetic mother, nullified the wise disciplinary judgment of the Indian Office.

In the case of Andrew Jackson Brown of the Seminole Nation of Indians in Indian Territory, protesting Senators found much instructive material. The Indian Appropriation bill merely attempted to validate the acts of Brown, acting as administrator *de bonis non* of J. D. Jenkins, a special agent of the Interior Department appointed to disburse some $186,000 among the heirs of "loyal" Seminoles who lost property and money in the civil war. As administrator, Brown paid the $186,000 to those adults and minors who proved their right to share. Then, as a member of a trading company into whose debt many of these Seminoles had fallen, Brown proceeded to pay back to himself some $72,000. Some of this came from the estates of minor children whose liability for the debt was in grave doubt.

A brother of the chief of the Seminoles and a kind of Pooh-Bah of the little nation, Brown paid out and took in with lordly indifference to criticism. After a time lawyers were engaged by the Indians to investigate Brown. A technical defect in his appointment as Jenkins's administrator was found. An investigation of Brown's payments and collections was about to be made. He appealed to the Indian Commissioner and the Secretary of the Interior to cure the defect in his title and validate his acts as disbursing agent. After sufficient investigation, both these officials declined to admit his plea. It was at this point that kind Mother Congress was approached. It was nothing but a lawyers' fight, said Brown and his friends. Jenkins was a good man, and so was his administrator *de bonis non*. Complaisant, the Indian committees took the attitude that it was only a few score Indians who might possibly suffer from Brown's methods, while Brown's friends were bothering them terribly. It was easier to give the man what he wanted than to fight as Leupp and Hitchcock urged be done.

Just as Brown was relieved by the bill from the obligation to prove in court that his actions were regular, so in the other case Congress was asked to recognize, and, by inference, recommend, the payment of a claim that the Indian officials had decided should be left to the adjudication of the courts. In 1891 the Government found that a grant made to the Colville Indians in Washington included a white settlement. It was desired to regain possession of 1,500,000 acres, half of the grant, and Congress concluded that, since the grant had been made only on an Executive order, the Indians had not obtained a valid title. The 1,500,000 acres were,

therefore, opened to settlement. In 1892, a firm of attorneys bargained with the Indians to collect a dollar an acre for the receded land on a 10 per cent. commission. The contract was to stand for ten years. Nothing was done until this year, four years after the lawyers' contract with the Indians expired, when the committees of Congress were convinced that the Colville claim was a valid one. The $1,500,000 was allowed, and the dead contract between the lawyers and the tribe was recognized to the extent of recommending it to the Court of Claims, with a request that the terms be duly considered. Again the officials of the Interior Department were overruled by the lobby.

The theory of the Indian Office is the very sensible one that the Interior Department is capable of looking out for the interests of the Indians. In the Colville case, there was no other difficulty in the way of collecting the claim, once it was investigated, than the delay due to the necessity for not overloading the year's appropriation bill. Neither Mr. Hitchcock nor Mr. Leupp could discover how the lawyers had earned $150,000. But unless the House stands firmer against the item than the Senate did, the Colville case will become a companion exhibit to last year's Choctaw case. When it was decided to break up the tribal holdings in Indian Territory some years ago, 4,000 Choctaws living in Mississippi wanted to share in the division of land and money. Mansfield, McMurray & Cornish, lawyers of South McAlester, agreed to keep these 4,000 claimants out for 9 per cent. of what it would cost the Choctaw Nation to take them in. This cost was estimated to be $20,000,000—a citizenship was valued at $5,000—and when the Mississippi Choctaws were finally ruled out, the lawyers presented their bill for $1,800,000. The Interior Department disapproved the contract, but Congress was appealed to, as usual. For doing what the Department was willing and able to do as part of its regular work, the South McAlester firm was given $750,000 by a citizens' court created to pass upon the claim. In the Senate debate, Mr. La Follette said that "at least one of the members of the court or commission, which was created by special act to pass upon their claim, was a brother-in-law of one of the Senators who supported the legislation establishing the court."

The quality of mercy shown by the Congressional guardians is surely not strained; upon the scheming attorney and the Indian trader it droppeth like the gentle rain of the Cascades. Will the House reject the conference report, and insist upon giving to the decisions of Secretary Hitchcock and Commissioner Leupp the weight they should properly have?

TROUBLING NEW JERSEY.

Jersey Republicans, of the faithful organization type, are looking forward to one of the saddest summers of their lives. Of what avail is it for them to have made an appropriation to keep down mosquitoes, if swarms of Colbyites are to buzz and sting all over the State, from now till November? This threat of an all-summer campaign is terrible to the bosses. The idea is simply appalling to them that the exasperating and infernally successful work done in the summer months of last year by Senator Colby in Essex County, is this year to be extended to Morris and Union and Middlesex and Hudson and other parts of New Jersey. What are clouds of *culex* and *anopheles* compared with the horde of organizers and speakers which the Colby Republican League is preparing to let loose upon the devoted State, to fight it out on that line if it takes all summer?

The Colby movement is admittedly progressing with unexpected rapidity. Wherever its organizers appear, the names of leading Republicans go upon the rolls by the hundred. By "leading Republicans" we mean, of course, not the prominent party workers and office-holders, but the most respectable and influential Republicans in the various localities—the class of men whom the orators are accustomed to point to in proof of the fact that the party embraces the substantial property-owners and the intelligent people of the community. Republicans of this class are going over to the Colby ranks almost in a body. This is conceded by the party hacks. They deplore it, they are angry and bitter about it, yet they cannot deny the fact.

What is its true explanation? At bottom, profound dissatisfaction throughout the Republican party in New Jersey with the methods and personnel of its managers during the past ten years. As soon as Bryan made Democratic New Jersey Republican by 80,000 majority, the Republican machine set out to fasten itself upon the State, and its rule has been mercenary and brainless. It has unblushingly allied itself with unscrupulous corporations, whose pliant tool it was eager to become, and has put the ban upon independence and ability. By its United States Senators ye shall know it. Kean and Dryden! The open way in which those two men, neither of whom would have been thought of but for his wealth and corporation backing, were foisted upon New Jersey Republicans, could not fail to fill the decent members of the party with discontent and disgust. Had the party no honor that was not purse-felt? Had it no men with a voice, that it must select those whose only talking was done by their money? There can be no mistake about this. The delivering of the party over to mere money-bags was felt by reputable Republicans to be an insult and an outrage. It provoked a smouldering revolt which the appearance of a man like Colby was certain to cause to burst into the flame which all men can now see. In its essence, the Colby movement within the Republican party of New Jersey is one of protest against the tyrannical, stupid, and money-grubbing spirit in which the party organization has been conducted. It is a blow full in the face of the Republican bosses.

This fact, indeed, is put in the forefront of the Republican League platform. Its first plank declares for

> "The overthrow of the control of the party organization by corporations through the medium of the bosses, and to that end the nomination of all candidates for public offices by direct primaries without the intervention of delegates or conventions."

That is explicit. It is doubtless to this avowed purpose that so many Republicans of the greatest weight are rallying. Other parts of the programme, though subordinate, are important. One of them is the demand for a "thorough investigation of life-insurance companies." This is aimed at Senator Dryden and the Prudential. The taxation and franchise questions are not so critical as they were before Gov. Stokes and the Legislature capitulated to Senator Colby on those issues last winter. Doubtless much remains to be done to prevent the laws then passed from being ingeniously nullified in execution, and other demands put forward in the name of the Republican League have their interest; but it is undeniable that the movement is gaining the body and impetus which are so troubling the dreams of the Republican bosses, mainly because it is an organized assault upon the old machine, and an appeal for new measures and new men.

Precisely on this score do the innocent Republicans of the organization make their plaint. "They want to destroy our machine in order to build a new one of their own. They want to turn us out of office so as to get in themselves." And then they add that they fear Colby is "ambitious." He wants to be Governor some day. And Mr. Record admits that he should like to be Senator. There you have it—nothing but ambition and office-seeking! Of course, to the Brutuses of the machine, it is a dreadful thing for any one but themselves to have "ambitions." Dryden desires to be reëlected Senator purely in the way of business, we suppose, but for Record to aspire is culpably ambitious. Naturally, Dryden cannot stoop to a joint debate with a man of that sort. Besides, as he remarks in his letter of refusal, he has "other plans" for reaching the people. If the Prudential were ever thoroughly investigated, we might learn something about those plans. Meanwhile, we imagine that the grief of the machine at anybody's actually seeking an office in order to carry out a programme, will merely convince the Colby-

ites that they are on the right track. What the bosses like is a reformer who will emit some fine generalities in May, and then go away, not returning till October to see what the effect is. They do not know what to do with a man who buckles down to a fight all through the hot months, contesting every ward, organizing in every voting division. It is this unprecedented and wholly irregular activity of the Colbyites that is making this summer one of such discontent to the New Jersey Republican bosses, and plunging them into the depths of a divine despair.

DIVORCE TOO DIFFICULT.

The matrimonial infelicities of the head of a great industrial corporation have been freely ventilated in the press. One has been regaled with the future intentions of disagreeing husband and wife, with rumors of the alimony to be arranged and of the names to be "mentioned" or suppressed in the decree. There has been humiliating argument as to the propriety of an unsuccessful husband continuing as the chief of a colossal manufacturing Trust. In short, we have the unedifying spectacle of two people who wish to part, and who are abundantly able to pay the expenses, being subjected to all manner of vexatious delays and invidious publicity. With the divorce laws of forty-odd States to choose from, the farewells of this unfortunate couple still cumber the newspapers and occupy the public sympathy. Could there be a stronger argument against our backward divorce procedure? How long shall we continue to hamper high finance with the matrimonial red tape calculated for an unenterprising bourgeoisie?

We take it that law must in the long run follow the customs of a land. If so, the absurdity of applying the same law to persons whose whole aspect of life—and consequently habits—rests on opposite principles, need not be labored. For your clergyman, mechanic, editor, butcher, baker, and candlestick-maker, the present old-fashioned marriage laws do well enough. These representatives of the plain people seldom look broad-mindedly beyond the stale old words, "until death do us part." Generally speaking, they seldom aspire to more than one living wife at a time. In their unimaginative way, they make the best even of a matrimonial bad bargain, and contentedly pursue the plodding task of domestic compromise and adjustment. Evidently, the most liberal laws could do little for people of this bread-and-butter disposition. Moreover, even were their philosophy the most enlightened, few of these submerged husbands could afford more than one wife. Many find it difficult to maintain a single helpmate in reasonable comfort and dignity. The wives, too, rarely have the habit of the great world. They live too near the pots and pans, vesper services, and the lecture-room to pick up new "affinities" with any ease or grace. In short, they are in no sense "in the movement." Many incorrigibly prefer their own prosaic John to the most sympathetic Algernon that ever was unhappily married to another woman. What could the most liberal law do for those whose means do not permit an alimony account, and whose instincts are fanatically monogamous?

Consider only that divorce remains the sole commodity that great wealth cannot buy quickly and surely. When two persons sincerely desire to part, and are amply able to pay for the damaged sensibilities concerned, why should either be forced to commit constructive desertion, to make unpleasant admissions *in camera*, to establish fictitious residences in remote and dismal parts of the country? Why, in short, should the Constitutional right to the "pursuit of happiness" be clouded and qualified by the scruples of backwoods legislators, not a handful of whom have had any practical experience in the matter? Let Congress provide a quick, quiet, and easy method of changing life partners, applicable, naturally, only to those of approved financial responsibility. The figure we decline to fix, but it fails evidently about where Mr. Roosevelt's "bloated fortunes" begin.

The details of the reform we leave to the associations that exist for that purpose. To many, the Roman law of divorce by mutual consent may seem an admirable model, but it might easily be improved upon, affording as it does no recourse against the rare but possible contingency of a disobligingly attached husband or wife. The essence of the matter is, however, due provision for divorce at the time of marriage. By an amazingly slipshod procedure, unpardonable in any similarly important transaction, the divorcing classes are still guilty of using words which regard the marital vow as perpetual. Here the approved principle of forfeiture should apply. Let the service read, "until death or the courts do us part." Well begun is half done, and a wedding solemnized in this spirit may be said to be already in sight of an easy, equitable, and painless divorce. Good taste would forbid the mention of the hypothetical alimony in the ritual, but a miniature bond of indemnity could be conveyed unobtrusively by the first usher to the bride's counsel at the moment the best man proffers the ring.

We have already admitted the drawback that the reform, though nominally available for all, must practically be in the nature of class legislation. We can, however, conceive of a campaign of education by which divorce might be gradually made available even for the bourgeoisie—whose general incapacity we have been forced to concede. It is obvious that your mere counter-jumper cannot enter into a personal obligation for alimony on his wedding-day that deserves serious consideration. But here is an open field for divorce underwriting. The risk could be ascertained by actuarial calculation. The business might be a profitable side venture for building and loan associations, and bond or indemnity companies. One could imagine a combination life, endowment, accident, sickness, homestead, burial, and divorce policy that might at once rehabilitate a flagging business, and gradually extend the blessings of experimental marriage to the very proletariat.

THE RELIGIOUS QUESTION AND ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 5, 1906.

Why is it that every attempt to establish a satisfactory system of elementary education for the people of England is hampered by the so-called "religious question"? This inquiry must often puzzle the readers of the *Nation;* it is the more perplexing because a problem which is really nothing else than the difficulty of determining what (if any) form of religion shall be taught in elementary schools supported by the State, has been met more or less satisfactorily not only in many English-speaking colonies, but in Scotland and even in Ireland. My aim, then, in this letter is neither to criticise the educational policy of the Ministry nor to discuss the provisions of the Education Bill now before Parliament, but simply to answer the question which opens this letter.

The existence of the "religious question" has little connection either with the undoubted advance of democracy or with the very doubtful prevalence of skepticism. Democratic government is compatible with either a religious or a secular view of life. Tocqueville was deeply impressed with the influence of religion in the United States; the democrats of modern France can see in the most ordinary emblems of Christianity nothing but the signs of reaction and superstition. There is, again, little reason to suppose that any large body of Englishmen are out-and-out secularists. Convinced Churchmen and orthodox Dissenters possess far greater Parliamentary authority than can be attributed to skeptics or agnostics. The religious difficulty is due not to one but to various complex causes which are so peculiar to England that they do not to any great degree impede the development of popular education in Scotland.

The confusion into which the English educational system has fallen is, as most persons will now admit, due to a blunder committed more than seventy years ago. In 1833 the House of Commons made a grant of not quite £20,000 to promote the education of the people of England. The money was spent on a sort of subscription to two societies supported by voluntary contributions, of which the one represented the Church of England and the other Nonconformists. From this thoughtless, hap-

hazard way of doing something to lessen the gross ignorance of the English people sprang that State-supported, yet to a great extent denominational, scheme of national education which thoughtful men of all parties feel imperatively needs reform. Happy would it have been for the country had the crude but comprehensive scheme proposed by Brougham some fourteen years earlier been adopted. That its adoption was, as things then stood, impossible, every one must admit, but it would have provided a general plan of national education which would easily have admitted of amendment. The blunder, however, of 1833 was natural, not to say inevitable. Its commission was the outward and visible sign of the conditions which have made and still make the education of the English people the field of futile and noxious controversy. These may be summed up under a few heads—the position of the Established Church; the effect produced by the ecclesiastical movement of 1834; the peculiar condition of public opinion with regard to the proper sphere of the State's activity.

The position of the Church of England is a practical paradox: the Established Church both is and is not the Church of the English people. From a Churchman's point of view its national character is obvious. The mere fact that the Church remains established, *i. e.*, that, with the full assent of the majority of the electors, it retains as the national church large revenues and exceptional privileges, is, as things now stand, strong evidence that the Church commands the respect of the English people. The opposition by Nonconformists to a religious census amounts to proof that a majority of the people of England consider themselves to be Churchmen. The legal doctrine that every Englishman is *prima-facie* a member of the Church as by law established, may be a fiction, but it is a fiction based on a considerable foundation of fact. The persons who, were a census taken, would describe themselves as members of the Church of England, have at lowest no wish to join any other religious society. While quiet transitions from Chapel to Church are common, the conversion of Churchmen to any form of Protestant nonconformity is rare, and this is a circumstance of untold significance. Whatever, moreover, be the creed of an English layman, every rector or curate who values a national church acknowledges the right of all parishioners to his services—of every parishioner who wishes to receive them. A Nonconformist minister, however great his zeal or his eloquence, is the minister of a sect whose members are bound together by holding some special form of religious doctrine. A rector is the minister not of Churchmen, but of the parish. No man more completely commanded the reverence of his disciples and the respect of his opponents than James Martineau, but a study of Martineau's life brings home to one the conviction that he never escaped from a sense of the fatal limits placed to the beneficial action of a religious teacher whose congregation consisted of persons having for their bond of union nothing but common belief in some given dogma.

But though, looked at from one point of view, the Church of England can make a claim to a truly national character, no Nonconformist can fail to look at the matter from a different side, and to perceive that the Established Church is nothing like the church of the whole of the English people. English Dissenters form a large and powerful body, and a man whose convictions induce him to stand apart from the religious community which includes most of his countrymen, is likely to be a more zealous believer in his particular form of faith than is the average Churchman. Legislation, moreover, has not only established complete legality for Nonconformity, but has relieved Dissenters from almost every form of political inequality. But this salutary establishment of religious freedom has in some respects increased the division between Church and Chapel. To the grave injury both of the Established Church and of religion itself, theological have become associated with social differences, and Churchmanship has become a mark of gentility. Snobbishness has penetrated into a sphere which ought to be kept sacred to religion. Can any one wonder that, under this state of things, the clergy who have been zealous in erecting denominational schools should look upon national control of public education as a triumph of Nonconformists over the national Church, or that Dissenting opinion should be morbidly alive to the possibility that religion may be so taught in schools supported by the nation as to be the means of inculcating belief in the doctrines of the Established Church?

The High Church movement of 1834 has produced two effects, each of which complicates the educational problem. It has in the first place thrown into the background the Protestant character of the Established Church, which in the earlier part of the nineteenth century was in reality closely allied with orthodox Dissenters by their common Protestantism. Robert Hall,* the eminent Baptist minister, was the most famous preacher of his day. His chapel was attended by Evangelical Churchmen. Alexander Knox, who in some respects anticipated the Oxford Movement of 1834, believed, as early as 1806, that a thorough change was taking place in the sentiment of the great body of Dissenters which would bring them round to a truer Church of England spirit than ever their conformist ancestors were possessed of, and based this belief in part on the character of Robert Hall's writings; while Robert Hall himself taught that the differences which divided Dissenters from their brethren in the Establishment did not touch the essentials of Christianity, and preached on behalf of those national schools which were founded to promote the education of the poor in the principles of the Established Church. This harmony of sentiment, based on common Protestantism, has been destroyed by a movement of which the object was to proclaim the Catholic character of the Anglican Church.

This movement, in the second place, has introduced division among Churchmen. The laymen to whose support the Establishment owes its continued existence, are for the most part Protestants, both in belief and in sentiment. The clergy are Anglicans or Catholics, and their teaching is often regarded with profound distrust by laymen belonging to the Church of England. Hence, a curious misconception as to the real state of religious (or rather theological) belief in England. The country is in appearance divided into Churchmen and Nonconformists, and on all sides one hears expressions used which imply that at the present moment, and at any rate as regards the teaching of religion in State-supported schools, Churchmen are united against Dissenters. But this view of the case does not correspond with patent facts. The true line of division is not between Churchmen and Dissenters, but between a powerful minority consisting of High Churchmen and of Roman Catholics who may fairly and without offence be described as "Catholics," and the vast majority of English laymen, who, whether they worship in Church or in Chapel, or perhaps do not worship in either Church or Chapel with great regularity, may fairly be termed Protestants. The real problem (and it is difficult enough) with which statesmen are called upon to deal, is how to provide elementary education for the people combined with the kind of religious teaching demanded by a Protestant majority with due and careful respect for the rights of what I may venture to call a Catholic minority, whose members demand (and from their own point of view fairly enough) the maintenance of a religious atmosphere—as the expression goes—of a character which cannot be found in any school where no religion is taught except the essential elements of Christianity, common at any rate to Churchmen and orthodox Dissenters.

Difficulties due either to the paradoxical position of the Established Church or to the results of the High Church movement, are complicated by a singular condition of public opinion in regard to the proper action and the moral authority of the State. The old Liberalism which rested upon faith in *laissez-faire* had the closest connection with the belief that the Government should, as a general rule, neither control nor direct public opinion, at any rate in matters of religion. A policy grounded on this belief certainly minimized the risk of conflicts between the commands of the State—or, in other words, the law of the land—and the conscientious scruples of minorities. It also fostered the idea that, in such contests, minorities or individuals were probably in the right, and could hardly with fairness be punished for conscientious disobedience to the law. But this idea or sentiment has survived the creed of which it was the natural or necessary outcome. We all of us, in different ways, demand the extension of the State's authority, which, after all, is nothing else than the diminution of the area of individual freedom or caprice. Hence, of necessity, conflicts between law and the conscience or crotchets of individuals. A Christian scientist who is also a doctor, insists upon his right or his duty to let his patient perish because the physician disbelieves in the use of medicine. An anti-vaccinator demands the privilege of leaving his children unvaccinated. A woman stands a siege rather than pay taxes imposed by a Parliament in which she is unrepresented. A passive-resister refuses to support as a rate-payer a form of religious teaching which he has uncomplainingly supported as a tax-payer; and the

*See Canon Henson's 'Religion in the Schools.'

public, combining the aspirations of Socialism with the sentiment of individualism, wishes that the State should regulate all things, and yet that the conscientious resistance of individuals should be allowed to hamper the action of the State. The very politicians who more or less sympathized with the passive resistance to the existing Education Act of conscientious Nonconformists, must occasionally dread the possibility that the Education Act, 1906, may be more or less nullified by the conscientious (though, to my mind, unjustifiable and ill-advised) passive resistance of conscientious Churchmen.

AN OBSERVER.

JAPAN'S POST-BELLUM POLICY FORESHADOWED.

TOKYO, May 17, 1906.

The working life of Japan's first post-bellum Diet was little more than two months, yet rarely has a national legislature in one session enacted so many laws. Most vital and far-reaching among them, besides the budgetary schemes, are (I.) a law to nationalize most private railways, and (II.) a revised customs-tariff law. The fate of these two laws, like that of the budgetary measures, was decided in committee and in party councils.

(I.) In 1872, the Government began to operate the first railway in Japan. Strangers to the order in which railways are a factor, the people left the enterprise wholly to Government. The Government, with similar tasks of initiative in most branches of industry, lacked capital and trained men. By 1883 the Government was working 150 miles of railway when the first private company took hold. Thereafter Government and private companies built lines in a national system planned by the Government. In March, 1906, there were open to traffic 4,783 miles, of which the Government had 1,532 miles, and 37 private companies had 3,251 miles. The beginning of private railways brought an unsuccessful movement for the State to sell its lines. Later, several attempts were made to nationalize the private lines —the last and strongest in 1900.

Having parried questions in committee concerning rumored plans to nationalize private railways, the ministry brought forward its proposal March 6. The resignation of the Foreign Minister four days earlier had prepared Diet and nation for it. The plan was to buy, within five years, 32 railways (3,160 miles) at a price equal to twenty times average profits for three years, payment to be made with 5 per cent. thirty-year bonds at par, and deliverable within two years after purchase. The bill came from committee March 16, and, after four hours' debate, passed the Lower House by a vote of 243 to 109. The Upper House committee made amendments which eliminated 15 railways (353.5 miles), prolonged the purchase period to ten years, made purchase-bonds in exchange for shares deliverable within five years after purchase, and in certain cases gave right of appeal against prices fixed by the valuation committee. The amended bill passed the Upper House March 26: vote, 205 to 62. On March 31, a few hours before the legal limit to the session, the Lower House committee reported it for passage as amended. Refusal to allow discussion caused a scene of violence, after which—the Opposition declining to vote—the amended bill received 214 affirmative votes.

The law empowers the Government to buy seventeen railways. Their total mileage is 2,806.6 miles, of which 2,538 miles belong to six companies. The estimated cost now is about 425 millions, but further sums spent for improvements and extensions before purchase must be added. Lines may be bought at the discretion of the Government within ten years. The price is in each case to be a sum equal to twenty times average net profits for three years (1902-05). New lines and lines which have not paid dividends will be valued, within cost of construction limits, by a special commission. Against the price so fixed, appeal may be made to the Minister of Communications. Payment is to be made in the form of 5 per cent. thirty-year bonds at face value; such bonds to be delivered to shareholders at the option of the Government within five years from the date of purchase. Between date of purchase and delivery of bonds, shareholders receive, in semi-annual payments, the 5 per cent. interest on bonds due them. Payment for supplies on hand must be made with bonds at their market value. Pending purchase, companies must under penalty make repairs and improvements required by existing law, must carry on their business under Government supervision, and get Government sanction for purchase of supplies or for increasing or diminishing construction costs. They may not amalgamate or buy other lines. A separate and similar law empowers the Government to buy the railways in Korea, the estimated cost being about 34 million yen.

Sums spent on construction and equipment of the seventeen home lines average about 55 per cent. of the face value of bonds receivable in payment, but the extreme range for the several lines is from 34 per cent. to 347 per cent. For the six largest companies, the ratio of cost to face value of bonds receivable is respectively 41.7 per cent., 52.6 per cent., 49.6 per cent., 87.7 per cent., 40.1 per cent., 100 per cent. Eight companies will get bonds whose face value is less than cost of construction and equipment, but only two of them have more than fifty miles of line.

Reasons given by the Government for purchase were: To use a favorable opportunity to realize the "traditional policy" of State ownership of railways; to make railway service uniform, more efficient, cheaper; to promote industries and trade; to get the profits for the State; necessity for military efficiency. Opponents urged that Government railways now charge higher rates, have more costly and less efficient management than private railways, that the Government would raise rates to get profits, and so hinder the growth of industries and trade; that, in the recent war, the Government had practical control of private railways and got efficient services, while it also has by law full power to enforce on private companies needful changes or improvements; that the cost of nationalization would, under existing conditions, have grave effects on national credit, especially abroad; that, having chartered companies for fixed terms, the Government has not the right to buy lines before the end of charter-terms except at a price acceptable to the companies. The last argument—viz., unconstitutionality to force sale at a fixed price—was based on Article XXVII. of the Constitution, which says:

"The right of property of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

"Measures necessary to be taken for the public benefit shall be provided by law."

The Government's answer to this argument was that railway charters were granted by law, and can for the public benefit be changed or ended by law. The inexpediency of enforcing this view, together with solicitude about the costs and the effects on national credit of railway nationalization, had led Mr. Kato, Foreign Minister, to resign.

(II.) The new tariff law—enacted in March, effective October 1—followed no "campaign of education," was marked by no "bitter contests" over schedules. Neither "vested interests" nor burdened consumers were much in evidence. The press and some sections of the people were busy assaulting sinking fund, war-tax continuation, railway nationalization, silk inspection, habutai bleaching, match-monopoly schemes of the Government. The Government's position was strong because its plans were hardly known before they were urged in the Diet. Hence, the Opposition had in a short campaign to distribute its forces over a long line of simultaneous attack. Finally, the heart of opposition was weakened by the feeling that absence of expected indemnity, a huge new debt, and plans to reap large fruits from victory made inevitable unusual fiscal and other measures. So the Government got its tariff law easily, quietly, by merely assenting to some minor changes of rate—mostly protective increases—in the Diet.

The main features of the law are these: (1) The Government may by decree convert ad-valorem into specific duties, using as a basis the average value for a period of six months or more. Tare may be included in fixing specific duties. (2) Valuation for assessment of duties includes original cost, together with costs of packing, transportation, insurance, and other charges to the port of entry. (3) Duties may be wholly or partly refunded when paid on materials which are further manufactured and reëxported, or when paid on materials which are used to make land fertilizer (even for use at home). (4) In the case of countries which have not conventional tariff rights, the Government may by decree impose on their products duties not lower than those fixed in the conventional tariffs. (5) Products of countries which discriminate against Japanese products or ships may be subjected to additional duties up to 100 per cent. of the usual rates on dutiable, 50 per cent. on duty-free goods. (6) Countervailing duties may be used to offset export bounties for imported goods. (7) The law designates 800 kinds of goods, of which 45 are duty-free. Duty-free goods are mostly plants, bristles, shells, bones, potash, ammonia, cotton, mineral ores, manures, various waste products—the rawest exotic materials and fertilizers. Many goods are for the first time dutiable. Most duties on agricultural and manufactured products are increased, even beyond the rates fixed by the war. Typical duties are (approximately equivalent ad-valorem rates): horses 5 per cent., cattle

10 per cent., other animals 25 per cent., cereal grains about 15 per cent., flour, meals, meats, 30-40 per cent; most tinned provisions and those preserved with sugar 40-50 per cent.; coffee, cocoa, chocolate, 45 per cent.; railway and tramway carriages, carts, drays, balances, sewing machines, 20 per cent.; bicycles, clocks, brushes, matches, boots, shoes, harness, hats, firearms, musical instruments, 40 per cent.; carriages, photographic apparatus, toilet articles, games, and accessories, furs, feathers, gold or silver trimmed articles, 50 per cent.; pearls, gold pens, jewelry, perfumery, 60 per cent.; wines and liquors 60-150 per cent.; manufactures of tobacco 250 per cent. In general, crude agricultural products producible at home 15-25 per cent.; coarse manufactures of metals and wood about 20-30 per cent.; those more refined, also ordinary textile, leather, and paper manufactures, 30-40 per cent.; the best grades of these, also of foods and luxuries, 40-50 per cent.; special luxuries and revenue-yielding articles, above 50 per cent. Long-distance transportation costs and low earnings of Japanese make these rates relatively heavier than they would be for Americans or Europeans.

By this law, Japan stocks her commercial armory with the latest tariff weapons, systematizes her duties largely on the basis of the specific principle lately in favor, and takes a long stride in her quick progress towards high protective-tariff duties since in 1898 she left the 5 per cent. treaty-maximum The motives for all this are not solely in the war; neither are they elaborately set forth by the Government, which, as usual, prefers results rather than talk. The Government explained that the existing law was defective in some points, hinted that some protection might be good for home industries, and emphasized the necessity of proposed amendments because of change in the "economic situation." Analysis of this rather typical argument, if deemed necessary, would have shown mixed motives. Some increase of ante-bellum tariff rates is needed to offset high internal taxes and avoid handicapping home producers. But, besides the wish for more revenue and still more effective, all-round protection for home producers, it would not be amiss to scale down payments for imports or else make them contribute handsomely towards the large interest balances due abroad—for it must cause concern that, with exports of some 320 million yen, Japan must pay foreigners 90 to 100 million yen yearly interest. In negotiating commercial treaties to replace four years hence those now existing, the new scale of duties—of which further revision then is promised—may be a strong argument in Japan's favor. Finally, to the Japanese mind, there is satisfaction in the thought that the tariff system is scientific, consistent, and in every feature "up to date." The effectiveness of the law for both revenue and protective purposes is limited by existing commercial treaties. Rates fixed by those treaties must continue till 1910-11. They apply to most textile goods, metals other than brass and copper, wines, and some other products. The purpose is not to impose higher duties on products of non-treaty countries.

(III.) Meanwhile, by exhortation, experiment, subsidies, regulation, and every practicable means, the Government tries to raise productive industries to the highest efficiency for supplying home demand and swelling the volume of exports. Thus, questions in committee concerning iron and steel schedules elicited the frank statement that rates on some of them were made specially high because, while capable of production at home, they were still imported; rates on others were made high in the hope that, after the treaties' end, 35 per cent. duties would make it possible to produce them at home. The Government iron and steel factories have been built up by direct appropriations of the Diet, which continue yearly, and on plans which contemplate production of the whole supply of iron and steel products at home. Similarly, it is said that, with a view to improve the quality of silks for export, the Government proposes to buy the best silk-weaving machinery and lend it to silk manufacturers; that, with a view to develop the sugar industry in the Loochoo Islands, the Government has established an office to conduct experiments and model enterprises in cultivating and manufacturing sugar and to teach the best methods. A new law reorganizing with foreign coöperation the Industrial Bank (crédit-mobilier) is intended to open a channel through which cheap foreign capital may flow into needy enterprises, and the Government is advising companies and municipalities how best to profit thereby. Back of almost every promising industry and branch of trade are the guiding, supporting, bounty-giving hand and the directing intelligence of an omnipresent Government. Somewhat along this line were Government proposals to limit all bleaching of habutai to factories designated by Government and to establish Government agencies for the compulsory inspection of all silk intended for export. The latter proposal was rejected, the former emasculated by the Diet. These actions and much sharp criticism seemingly dissuaded the Government from bringing forward plans already matured to grant to a combination organized by Government suggestion the exclusive right to manufacture matches. Fees or profits for the Treasury are a usual feature of such projects, which seem to be parts of a single policy that aims to get revenues and to foster and guide the growth of almost every branch of industry and trade, to realize a *Solidarschutzsystem*. Here is where railway nationalization seems to fit in—an enterprise which Ministers have frequently declared to be the basis of all post-bellum policy.

What will be the outcome? Predilections for or against the efficacy of Government in economic rôles and for or against the wisdom in constitutional government of large sources of income beyond immediate control of Parliament all aside, there are factors here which a Westerner cannot easily judge. Japan does not produce enough food for her people. In 1903 and 1904, both years of big crops, the excess value of rice imports over exports was 47 and 54 million yen respectively. Barley, wheat, and flour together, with almost no exports, show import values for those years of 15 and 11 million yen. The 15 per cent. duty on these staples of food for the masses must be wholly added to the cost of living—for the price of the home product must rise proportionally in the face of regular imports. Again, as compared with Americans and Europeans, Japanese laborers earn less and pay proportionally much heavier taxes. Skilled artisans earn 20 to 40 cents a day. On the basis of a recent Government estimate of national wealth, yearly taxes amount to 2 1-3 per cent. of the whole sum of wealth. Hence the cost of living must rise, and with it wages. But that means higher cost of producing goods for export. Thus a new handicap on the export trade is added to want of sufficiently skilled and experienced workmen in machine industries and want of capital to provide efficient plant and equipment. But ages have accustomed Japanese to heavy taxes and to obedience. They have always looked to Government for initiative. In the new order, the Government built the first railways and factories, supplied capital or guidance for every variety of new enterprise, paid for the education of experts abroad, and had them patiently teach the people how in every field of activity to grow the seeds of the new civilization. It still is doing so. The Meiji Government has thus led the people to unwonted liberty, prosperity, enlightenment, happiness, even glory. Its hold on the people enables it to do what no Western Government would dare try. Perhaps, also, the people have not the bent or training to govern as Western people do.

The feeling grows that Japan must work out her own salvation in her own way. She sees the West struggling with its problems: labor against capital, capital to control government, the United States against Trusts and the railways. Pressed for need of capital, she would yet keep control over it. Hence the seeming paradox that while the West struggles against Trusts, Japan tries to create them. But, in adopting and using the economic forces discovered in the West, Japan would like to force from the West an avowal of her superior use of them, just as she won praise for her use of Western weapons of war! Meanwhile, the war has infused new confidence, new ambitions in the people, a new spirit of daring in the Government. The Government, alert and energetic, would utilize the expansive mood of the people to get far on the chosen way before burdens seem heavy. Daring is an element of statesmanship as of business. Failure alone is called folly, and comes from misjudgment of capacities or conjunctures. If Japan's policy succeeds, her present leaders will go down through history as great empire-builders.

E. H. Vickers.

Correspondence.

THE BLESSED WORD "NATIONAL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The opening short editorial and the longer article headed "Ways of 'Regenerating Business,'" in your issue of June 7, raise the old question of the difference between the execution of laws and inspection of conditions by local and by national authorities.

Do not the reports, in Sunday's daily papers, of the intention of Chicago to investigate the conditions [with a whitewash

brush], and so to put a stop to injuries to Chicago's business, show what may be expected of local inspection? Is not the difference between local enforcement of local-option high-license liquor laws in most parts of this country and national enforcement of national license laws a fair indication of the difference to be expected between a "rigid" inspection by Chicago municipal authorities under the shadow of the mighty Trust's wings, and inspection by officials of the National Government?

Does not your argument itself convict your plan of insufficiency? You begin by truly asserting that there is no shortcut substitute for "the old, painful road of repentance and restitution and a sober and godly life." You admit the short-sighted greed of the guilty; and yet you expect their whole attitude to change in a moment, so that they will be far-sighted and wise enough to adopt the highest standards of business conduct.

The people cannot inspect and know for themselves the quality of what they eat, and, so long as the packers can maintain their monopoly in this country, by whatever means, the people are at their mercy. The New York municipal milk inspection has done much to protect New York milk users. Would you transfer this inspection to the officials of the counties where the milk is produced?

If the United States Government has power to require that all food products be submitted to efficient inspection before being admitted to interstate commerce, why then turn over the protection of the consumers of this whole nation to Chicago's notoriously corrupt officials, dominated by the short-sighted greed of the "Beef Trust"? If it were merely a question of punishment of greed, we might leave it to the working of natural laws; but the old adage applies here, "God helps those who help themselves." Chicago will look out for itself, but not for the rest of us. Let our President, whom we elected, by all Constitutional means protect us from filth and poison. CONSUMER.

STAMFORD, CONN., June 12, 1906.

[We are quite willing that our readers should pass upon these interrogatories in their or in our own behalf.—ED. NATION.]

ANOTHER MILWAUKEE PUBLICATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A concern which calls itself the "University Research Extension," E. Milton Jones, secretary, with offices in the Auditorium Building, Chicago, has for some time been exploiting a set of volumes published by the Roberts-Manchester Co., of Milwaukee, entitled "The Ideas That Have Made Civilization." "The University Research Extension," which has very aptly taken as its motto "Your only real property is the capacity to make mental efforts," seems to consist of some enterprising persons who possess this capacity in a remarkable degree, to judge by their methods of exploitation and the pompous phraseology of their letters and circulars, in which they announce this as "the culmination of a world-wide movement in University Circles," and offer the books, along with "membership," "only to people recognized or recommended as careful students and thoughtful readers." Every occasion is taken to proclaim the fact that the editor-in-chief has been "assisted by more than one hundred and twenty-five men, specialists in their own fields, such as the following: A. H. Sayce, Crawford H. Toy, Edward Capps, Walter Miller, H. D. Foster, Henry Rushton Fairclough, Frank Frost Abbott, John Carew Rolfe, Dana C. Monro, Edward G. Bourne, Ferdinand Schwill, Harry Burns Hutchins, William H. Welch, Theodore William Richards, Paul Reinsch, George Goodspeed." Still others are mentioned in the "Editorial Acknowledgment" prefixed to each volume, with the same implication.

We are informed by the editor-in-chief that he did not write the editorial acknowledgment, did not authorize the use of these names, had never been aware that these persons were members of his "staff of associates and coworkers" in connection with this editorial work, and that he has protested vigorously but in vain against the unauthorized and misleading statements made by the promoters of the scheme in this connection.

The undersigned, having made ineffectual efforts to put a stop to the use of their names in connection with this work, take this means of informing the public that they have had no connection whatever, editorially, financially, or advisory, with this publication or its promoters—that they were not upon the "staff" of advisers of the editor nor sustained any editorial or advisory relation to him, and protest emphatically against the dishonest representation made in exploiting it, so far as they are concerned. They are informed, further, that others in the above list, no telling how many, have had as little responsibility for the publication as they.

H. R. FAIRCLOUGH,
ROBERT FRANCIS HARPER,
J. C. ROLFE,
EDWARD CAPPS.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, June 11, 1906.

THE ASSOCIATED PRESS AND GERMANY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Melville E. Stone of the Associated Press misunderstood me. As far as my very limited understanding goes, the Associated Press collects news through its agents and distributes this daily budget to its various customers. Whether the news be true or untrue is not its business. The only case in which fault could be found with the Associated Press would be if it were guilty of *culpa in eligendo*—for instance, if the association had entrusted a man with the collection of information in a certain district who notoriously and manifestly was unfit to be trusted, and, instead of being a matter-of-fact man, proves to be what Charles Lamb facetiously called a matter-of-lie man. Such mistakes may occur in the best-regulated families.

As to my statement, that of all the news spread broadcast over the world by the Associated Press for many years about German political affairs more than 90 per cent. was absolute falsehoods made up for no other purpose than to stir up distrust and hatred against Germany, I propose a test easy to be made by any man of good will; for the proof of the pudding is in the eating. My humble suggestion therefore is, that Mr. Melville E. Stone or *quivis ex populo* may take up any newspaper published at New York or elsewhere in this country during our last unpleasantness with Spain, and read over the news communicated to that paper by the Associated Press regarding the attitude of the German Government towards our country. After this performance, the kind reader is requested to look over what Mr. Andrew D. White has to say about the same question. I presume that Mr. Melville E. Stone will not deny that Mr. White, who at that time was our ambassador at Berlin, knows what he is talking about, and that he is a competent witness whose testimony would be received as unimpeachable evidence by any court in this or any other country.

The result of this investigation, I trust, will be that the kind reader cannot help coming to the conclusion that either Mr. White or the originator of those Associated Press dispatches, not the Associated Press, has committed an intentional violation of truth. Q. E. D.

Respectfully yours,
E. SCHRADER.

SPOKANE, WASH., June 10, 1906.

Notes.

A work of much prospective interest, 'The Criminal Prosecution and Capital Punishment of Criminals,' by our countryman, Prof. E. P. Evans, long resident in Bavaria, will be shortly issued by William Heinemann, London.

Dr. B. P. Grenfell and Dr. A. S. Hunt are hard at work on their new book (Hiteh Papyri, Part I.), which is to be put out in July by the Egypt Exploration Fund (37 Great Russell Street, London, W. C.). It will represent the publications of two years, since, owing doubtless to lack of funds, no volume was issued last summer by the Græco-Roman branch. It is hoped that early this fall the learned excavators will bring out the fragment of the lost Gospel, the most conspicuous of the finds of their last season. This document, which relates to a visit of Jesus and his disciples to the Temple at Jerusalem, and their meeting with a Pharisee, is declared to be genuine by no less an authority than Prof. D. S. Margoliouth.

One who takes up the 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1906 (Macmillan) will be struck first by the increased bulk, and next by the numerous interesting maps grouped at the beginning. Surprise (for an American) will set in on finding the United States in the forefront of the nations statistically and politically considered: the British Empire following. He may then turn back to the editorial introduction to learn that, in a spirit of Pan-Anglo-Saxon brotherhood, the two English-speaking empires are hereafter to be in immediate juxtaposition in this Year-Book—the order being properly reversed, however, in the case of the British edition. Furthermore—and this is a very significant and valuable innovation—the United States begins to be treated by States and Territories (like Germany, for example), and no longer simply in the

gross. Each State has prefixed a brief sketch of its history and of its constitutional machinery; then come sections on area and population, justice and charity, finance, production, etc., each closing with a list of books of reference. By this happy thought, the editor of the Year-Book has confirmed its necessity to every American publicist, politician, and journalist, and to every private as well as public library.

There is nothing of the glamour of the prestige of the Clarendon Press about the sturdy, compact, inexpensive little 6x4 series of "The World's Classics," pushed now nearly to the eighty mark (New York: Henry Frowde). Still, it is a boon to have, say, Borrow's 'Bible in Spain' in one volume, and along with it to get Chaucer's Poems (in several), Anne Brontë's 'Tenant of Wildfell Hall,' Thoreau's 'Walden,' and 'Twenty-three Tales by Tolstoy,' competently translated by L. and A. Maude—viz., Tales for Children (1872), Popular Stories, A Fairy Tale, Stories Written to Pictures, Folk-tales Retold (mostly in the eighties), Adaptations from the French (1893, 1897), Stories given to aid the persecuted Jews (1903). This is plain, useful popularization, and we are glad the Press is not above it.

The 'Personal Narrative' of Elias Pym Fordham makes a worthy addition to the series of volumes on 'Early Western Travel' published by the Arthur H. Clark Co. of Cleveland. During the years 1817 and 1818, Mr. Fordham passed through Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky, and resided for a time in the Territory of Illinois. Late in 1818, while Fordham was still in Illinois, a member of his family in England made a series of selections from his letters to home friends, with a view to immediate publication, but this intention was never carried out. One regrets the wholesale suppression of proper names by this early editor, though the value of Mr. Fordham's letters does not often depend upon the identity of the friends to whom they were addressed. The manuscript fell into the hands of Dr. Hubert de Laserre Spence of Cleveland, a grandson of Mr. Fordham's sister, who accompanied him on his voyage and became the wife of Charles de la Serre, a Frenchman whom she met in the Wabash country. Through Dr. Spence, the present editor, Prof. Frederic Austin Ogg, has been able to establish the authorship of the letters and to add interesting matter concerning Mr. Fordham and his family.

For the same series, Frank H. Hodder of the University of Kansas has edited John W. Audubon's journal of his trip from New York to Texas, and thence through Mexico and Arizona to the California goldfields, in 1849-1850. A biographical memoir of this son of the great naturalist is furnished by his daughter Maria. In its accumulation of misfortunes and its record of ultimate failure, the narrative is an excellent illustration of the average experience of the multitudes who flocked to California in the delirium of the gold fever of 1849. Aside from the failure of the company to realize their expectations in the search for gold, Mr. Audubon's personal hope for valuable material on birds and mammals was frustrated, since his sketches were ultimately lost in the wreck of the steamer *Central America*.

The new volume of Vernon Lee's 'Hauntings' in John Lane's uniform edition of this author's works contains no addition to the four fantastic tales which first appeared in magazine form and were afterwards published together under their present appropriate title. They are subtly devised ghost stories, in which sub-conscious influences or impressions of events and crimes which have happened ages ago, affect and direct the lives of people of other epochs through the chances of heredity or of affinities of taste or choice. They are pure invention, and contain delightful descriptions of imaginary people who become real to the reader through their definite characterization; their surroundings also leave the impression of places we have been in, so that the supernatural tells all the more grewsomely through its realistic setting. Vernon Lee has never given us more accurate and delightful descriptive pages of Italian people and country than in the tale of "Dionea of Montemirto Ligure," or of the simple conditions and bareness of modern Italian life in a provincial town, interwoven with the ancient splendor of antique and mediæval remains, than in "Amour Dure," the most interesting of the four tales. In "Oke of Okehurst" the scene is laid in an old English manor house with essentially English people and traditions; here suggestion leads to a tragic dénoûment. We recommend these tales of mystery and romance to those who are a little weary of the analytical and impressionist method, and who crave for a beginning and an end and some happenings in a story.

The third volume of Mr. Charles Evans's 'American Bibliography,' covering the years 1751 to 1764, has just been issued, though bearing the imprint 1905. It contains titles 6624 to 9890, the first book recorded being: 'An Account of the Robberies Committed by John Morrison and his Accomplices, in and near Philadelphia, 1750,' and the last: 'Zwey wahrhafte neue Zeitungen von gantz besondern Himmels-Zeichen, welches erstere sich bey der Haupt- und Seestadt Riga in Lifland zugetragen,' etc. Both of these books were, by a curious coincidence, printed by Anthony Armbruster, or Armbruester, who at one time was associated in the printing business with Benjamin Franklin—Mr. Evans says from 1754 to 1756, though both Thomas and Hildeburn say that their connection lasted till 1758.

The peculiarities of the Bankside Shakespere editing are too well known to call for comment at this date. The latest issue, volume xxi., "Love's Labour's Lost," gives the quarto of 1598 and the folio of 1623 verbatim. We detect a slip of the types: Quarto 370 and folio 393 both read: "It was fo sir," when the facsimiles read: "It was so sir" (long *s*). We can all admit cheerfully, however, that long *s* was an invention of the Evil One, a mild corrective of surquidry. The Introduction, by Dr. Isaac Hall Platt, touching upon the relation of the play to Shakspere, is readable and scholarly, and in the main sound. Nothing in it militates against the estimate expressed in our review of Furness's variorum edition of the play. At any rate, Dr. Platt wastes no time over the "Euphuism" of "Love's Labour's Lost," but tries to connect the play with personages and events of the late sixteenth century. His conjectures are worth pondering. The conclusion has a Baconian squint; that, however, was only to be expected, and need not trouble the orthodox.

From G. P. Putnam's Sons comes a book which, except for the imprint, would seem to be privately printed. It is entitled the 'Talbot J. Taylor Collection,' and is what a cataloguer would call a small folio, standing twelve inches high; thin, and numbering only 139 printed pages. It is devoted to giving illustrations of the collection named, with only 9 full-page pictures for the exterior of the house containing it and its grounds. The house shows as a country mansion of fair size, with that strongly English appearance which is got by the semblance of half-timbered construction, and by low walls, broad roofs, and a general overgrowth of vines. It is said to exist at Cedarhurst, L. I. The very brief text deals partly with the arrangement of articles in the house and partly with the objects themselves, namely, furniture, specimens of carved wood, and a few purely decorative objects, statuettes, and the like. The illustrations are entirely in half-tone, and include many valuable specimens worthy of the attention of any student.

Few of our readers, we trust, grumble at their school rates; but a good many suspect shrewdly that the returns are out of all proportion to the money paid in. For explanation of the discrepancy we would refer to a pamphlet: 'Warum kann die amerikanische Volksschule nicht leisten, was die deutsche leistet? Von einem alten Deutsch-Amerikaner.' The pamphlet is Heft 2, Band XV. of the "Sammlung pädagogischer Vorträge," published by Marowsky in Minden, and is to be had for the modest sum of 61 pfennigs. Truly *multum in parvo*. We cannot attempt to condense what is already a model of condensation, but will give one or two general points. The causes are arranged under two main heads: (I) those for which the school authorities are not responsible; (II) those which the school authorities might remove, if they would. Under the first heading are such factors as the mixed nature of the population by reason of immigration; the migratory habits of the American people in general; the composite nature of the English language. Among the more or less remediable evils are: waste of time upon fads; antediluvian methods; sentimentality due to excess of the *Ewig-weiblich;* inadequate training of the teacher. The writer lays down his points with precision and with arithmetical directness. He is no mere fault-finder, but a genuine American, by adoption if not by birth, and his controlling motive is rational patriotism.

'Wer Ist's?' for 1906 (Leipzig: Degener; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) contains the biographies of nearly 16,000 persons, chiefly Germans, but it also embraces prominent representatives of other nations. It has all the usefulness of dictionaries of its class. In addition to the biographies, there are valuable tables of statistics, showing the increase of population, the growth of cities, the development of industrialism and trade; the relative strength of armies and navies, including warships and merchantmen in different countries; the monetary systems of all nations compared with the present standard of coinage in the Ger-

man Empire; libraries, art galleries, museums, universities, and other institutions of learning and nurseries of culture in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland; and, finally, biographies of the rulers and chief executives in all lands, beginning with the Duchy of Anhalt and ending with the United States. There is also a list of about 3,000 pseudonyms of different authors, whose real names are given. We need say no more of this annual.

The thirteenth volume of Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut: New York: Lemcke & Buechner) extends from Lyrik to Mitterwurzer. Prominent articles are those on Meteorology, Mineralogy, Milk, Military (in divers attributions), Man, accompanied by proportionately measured-off types of the human figure from many races, Mimicry, with a colored plate illustrative of that in the insect world, Medals, with beautiful examples; Morocco especially; Mexico, with a map, and Painting. Among the maps of Madrid, Magdeburg, Milan, Mainz, Mannheim, Marseilles, etc., Metz excites attention with three (one for the battles round-about in 1870). So does the folding chart of the Mediterranean Sea and adjacent communicating seas; and further, the map of international fleet stations and defences in 1905. What might escape observation is, under *Masse*, a list of terms used in various countries for metric quantities (more differentiated than might have been expected, in adjusting them to the genius of each language), and of non-metric names in vogue before the new system prevailed. Significant is the article on the higher education for girls in Germany, which, in spite of a mediæval reference or two, really began in 1872. Equally commendable is the table, under Maritime Scientific Expeditions, by *ships* (but the greatest of all, the *Beagle*, is wanting). There is a poor, colorless notice of McKinley, with no reference to his part in forcing the Spanish war while pretending to stave it off and in retaining the Philippines, or to his bad faith in suffering the Dingley tariff to be raised after his reëlection on the money issue with the aid of tariff-reform Democrats. His part in engineering his own bill is much exaggerated.

An academic "Studienfahrt" to the classic sites of Italy and Greece, by students of the University of Berlin, will take place during the month of August. The excursion will cover a period of twenty-five days, during which visits will be made under competent direction to Genoa, Rome, Naples, Delphi, Athens, Corinth, Corfù, and Venice. While visiting the leading sites where archæological researches are being made in Greece, Professor Dörpfeld will act as guide and instructor. The number of participants will be large.

It has finally been decided to cease publishing the lecture announcements of the University of Berlin in Latin. All the faculties acted in the matter, and, after securing the consent of the Cultus Minister of Prussia, the Academic Senate resolved, that, beginning with the winter semester of 1906-7, the lecture list should appear only in German, and in three parts: one giving the subjects, the second the names of the docents, the third the hour. The programme will be edited by Prof. Dr. Palzkowski, manager of the Academic Bureau of Information (*Auskunftsstelle*). This puts an end to another specimen of the "Zopf" which the universities of the Fatherland have inherited from past generations.

—The fourth volume of Smyth's admirable edition of Franklin's Writings (Macmillan) covers six years, of which four were passed by Franklin in London. The reader cannot fail to be impressed by the absence of reports and memoranda to his official superiors during his first visit to England, when he was charged with matters of great importance to the Province, and given the use of no little money to effect the purpose of his mission. He expended the money and drew a liberal allowance for his own charges, and his bills were cheerfully paid by the Assembly in spite of some hints of extravagance and even of peculation. Yet nothing can be learned from Franklin's papers of the nature of these negotiations, and the records of the Province are quite as barren. His pamphlet on the 'Interest of Great Britain Considered,' his letters to his wife and Mary Stevenson, and an intention to compose an 'Art of Virtue' were the chief incidents of this stay in England. Strahan almost persuaded him to come into partnership with him, which would have made Franklin the King's Printer! Even his scientific experiments languished, and he rested upon what he had already accomplished. His second visit to England found him a fully developed politician, the agent of the revolt in Pennsylvania against the Proprietary Government, and an active participant in the discussions created by that "Mother of Mischief," the Stamp Act. With his pen he contributed to the newspapers, and his examination in the House of Commons has remained one of the best examples of his wisdom and shrewd foresight. He represented America, not merely Pennsylvania, while the greeting by Hume as the "first philosopher" coming from America marked the position he had attained outside of politics. While Mr. Smyth has not found much that was new in this period, his careful observance of textual accuracy much increases the value of what is printed. An occasional use of the long *s* is confusing, and the word *tous* for *tons* on p. 269 is clearly an error.

—Mr. William B. Weeden's 'War Government, Federal and State, in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Indiana, 1861-1865' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a laborious study of the "interplay of the National Union and the State Commonwealths which were principalities in the Civil War, especially in its early stages." A "salient point" in this study, according to the author, lies "in the contention that, if the powers of the people voluntarily thrust upon the Administration in the year following the autumn of 1861 had been energized and fully employed, the tremendous changes in the Constitution and Government of the United States would not have occurred." Incidentally, we have a narrative of the war, and discussions of the parts played in it by Lincoln, Stanton, "war governors" and "Copperheads," with sketches of Andrew, Morton, Horatio Seymour, and other leading men. It seems to us perfectly clear that Mr. Weeden has sustained his side of the "contention," if it be necessary to contend at all; because, if half the period of the war had not been taken up in "energizing and fully employing" the powers of the people, the war would have come to an end two years before it did, and hence possibly without either a draft or the abolition of slavery. But speculation of this kind leads to little or nothing. The body of the book is devoted to a narrative account of the "interplay" of Federal and State authority during the war, ending substantially in the temporary atrophy of the old State system. The narrative, well fortified by references, is marred by a good deal of feeble and confused rhetoric.

—Miss Jane Harrison's 'Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens' (1890) has been a useful companion of many students and travellers in Greece, as well as a teacher to many scholars in their libraries. But since the publication of that book much has been learned about early Athens, and, instead of making a vamped edition of the former work, Miss Harrison writes a new and briefer one, 'Primitive Athens' (Macmillan), in which she takes as her text the account given by Thucydides of the ancient city. The earlier book was valued particularly as embodying the latest views of Dr. Dörpfeld, who for a score of years has been the highest authority on Athenian topography, Greek architecture, and the art of archæological excavation. The new book also has had the advantage of his revision. To him it is dedicated, and Miss Harrison is most explicit in her expressions of acknowledgment to him. The favored scholars who not only have read the publications of the German Archæological Institute, but also have heard Dr. Dörpfeld lecture in the presence of the monuments, will recognize his influence on almost every page, and will be glad of this clear presentation of his views, while scholars who have not heard those lectures will welcome the book still more heartily. The main argument is for the location of the early agora, and in particular of the fountain Enneacrunus, in the valley between the Acropolis, the Pnyx, the Areopagus, and the hill of the Muses. That a narrow path led down from the Acropolis directly to the Enneacrunus, is one of the neatest of slight indications. The book discusses also the sanctuaries on the Acropolis in the seventh and sixth centuries B. C. The weight of evidence has been growing in favor of Dörpfeld's views, although these assume the careless formation of a Thucydidean sentence; and many readers, as they lay down the book, will echo the author's hope that the Enneacrunus episode "may be laid to sleep in peace," though we fear that she depreciates the firmness of the opponents of Dr. Dörpfeld's theories.

—In her mythological excursions, Miss Harrison is less likely to secure the ready adherence of her readers, though it was her interest in mythology which first drew her to the study of topography. The principles of the science of mythology are not firmly founded as yet, and many of its theories are tentative. A conservative philologist, for example, would think that Miss Harrison goes beyond her evidence when she argues that Heracles was a foreigner to Greece, an Oriental, from the fact that he presided over the gymnasium of Cynosarges, outside the gates of Athens, which was frequented by youths like Themistocles

who had foreign blood in their veins; that "Aphrodite came to the Greeks from the East, and, like most Semitic divinities, she was not only a duality, but a trinity"; that "Deucalion is a figure manifestly Oriental, a feeble copy of the archetypal Noah"; and that "the worship of Poseidon and Athena came from Libya to Attica from a people geographically remote, but with racial affinities." More convincing and interesting are the arguments to prove the later arrival at Athens of Zeus and Apollo from the fact that neither has any sanctuary on the Acropolis, although both seem to have had shrines assigned to them just outside the old Pelasgic wall. A good bibliography adds to the value of the book.

—'History in Scott's Novels,' by the Hon. A. S. G. Canning (Wessels), is a book which bears an attractive title and is not without some merit. At the same time we have been impressed by a sense that a different type of essay upon the same subject might be made more successful. Mr. Canning takes up fifteen novels in chronological sequence, from 'The Talisman' to 'Redgauntlet,' and runs through such portions of the plot as bring authentic personages into view. His main object apparently is to substantiate the dictum of Macaulay which he selects as the motto of the volume: "Sir Walter Scott has used those fragments of truth which historians have scornfully thrown behind them in a manner which may well excite their envy. He has constructed out of their gleanings works which, even considered as histories, are scarcely less valuable than theirs." Keeping this statement ever in mind, Mr. Canning loses no opportunity to show that Scott is *verbatim et literatim* an exponent of historical truth. When, in 'Ivanhoe,' John proposes that Rebecca be made Queen of Beauty, the comment runs: "This invented scene likely indicates historic truth to some extent, alike showing the unscrupulous nature of John, the helpless state of the English Jews, and the absurd prejudices of Saxons and Normans against them at this excited period of English history." The quality of Scott's genius as an interpreter of former ages and striking types of civilization is less emphasized by far than is his technical accuracy. Mr. Canning himself is not very accurate, and when he tells us that Richard, on his return from the Crusade, was imprisoned by "the Austrian Emperor," he indicates pretty clearly that in some ingenious fashion he has managed to dodge the Hohenstaufen. Some fault may also be found with the style, as illustrated by such a sentence as this: "The singular introduction of the White Lady of Avenel, a fairy adherent or relative of the heroine, Mary Avenel's family, though a pleasing idea, of course adds little if anything to the historic truths or value of this story, which leaves Scotland partly yielding to the Reformed doctrines, Mary Queen of Scots being powerless and, owing to her religion, unpopular, while Murray and Morton, the two Scottish rulers at this time, are allied with England, their country's former historic rival if not foe." A wasted opportunity will be found in what Mr. Canning does *not* say about Charles the Bold in his chapter on 'Anne of Geierstein.' The concluding sentence of the same chapter will likewise help to explain why we cannot speak of this book with any great enthusiasm: "Charles of Burgundy, perhaps the chief historical personage in 'Anne of Geierstein,' may not have been described in a play, or if he has, was not so popular a subject of dramatic attention as his astute rival and nominal Sovereign, Louis the Eleventh, who certainly never seems to have had much authority over so imperious a vassal as Charles the Bold."

—Two articles by M. Eugène d'Eichthal, which appeared originally in Paris periodicals, have just been issued in pamphlet form. The first is a friendly estimate of the late Émile Boutmy, and the second is entitled 'Quelques Notes d'un Voyage aux États-Unis,' based on the author's observations as a delegate to the international railway congress held at Washington in May of last year. M. d'Eichthal, who is a member of the Institute and the son of M. Gustave d'Eichthal, one of the most distinguished of the early Saint-Simonians, is a warm admirer of M. Boutmy, so well known for his studies of the constitution or rather political history of the United States and England. M. d'Eichthal continues: "I have heard the historians of those two countries praise the intelligent grasp which M. Boutmy showed of the fundamental causes, whence, by following different currents, springs the political and social evolution of Great Britain and America. He was neither abstract like Tocqueville, nor did he go into almost excessive detail like Bryce, nor was he oversystematic like so many commentators of English institutions. Perceiving and understanding with precision the real facts, he would pass on them a broad and exact judgment." M. d'Eichthal's account of what he saw, heard, and thinks of the United States is less sympathetic than this study of the scholarly founder of the excellent school in the Rue St. Guillaume, but, on the whole, he is as fair as could be expected under the circumstances. What he says of New York and Chicago seems to be the prevailing note of this *carnet de voyage:* "The two cities give an impression which I have never felt so deeply elsewhere—that of the disproportion of the scale of the physical man to that of the works which spring from him." Of all our public buildings which he visited, only one appears to win his entire praise, and even of this nothing is said of the exterior: "The Library of Congress is, inside, one of the finest and best arranged edifices I ever saw." M. d'Eichthal is a director in one of the great French railway companies, and his pamphlet contains several valuable reflections concerning some of our trunk lines. Touching on a subject which has recently been examined in the *Nation*, he expresses astonishment at the light way in which the American public treats railway accidents, some of which, if they happened in France, "would cause the fall of the Cabinet." The machinery of the Chicago stockyards impressed him, but the unpleasantness of the operations seemed only that inseparable from such bloody business.

—Lillian Dalbiac's 'Dictionary of Quotations (German)'—London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan—raises the old question how far we have to deal in such a work with a simple anthology directed by the personal equation, or a real body of "familiar quotations" gleaned from what is taught in the schools, heard daily from the lips in conversation, or found in a reasonable range of standard literary expression. To take a concrete example, are these sentimental lines from Chamisso "familiar" (p. 126):

> "Du schauest mich an und lächelst dazu,
> Du lieber, lieber Engel du"—

or did the compiler, in making up her Chamisso posey, fail to pluck such nervous and ringing lines as these from his poem entitled "Schiller"?

> "Denn Gottes Rathschluss wird dennoch bestehen.
> Die Frucht der Zeit zu ihrer Zeit geboren,
> Und das, was an der Zeit ist, doch geschehen."

This premised, we pronounce the present collection a useful one. It would have gained by not splitting up poems, like Luther's "Ein feste Burg," for the parts most in favor. Mr. Bartlett's practice is in this respect more commendable. We are not sure, too, that anything would have been lost by omitting the metrical translations sedulously gathered or procured; and certainly where they were not already found in reputable English poetic sources, it would have been better to stick to prose versions. Examples of sad failure are numerous, but we will not cite them. Goethe naturally leads, with "Faust" at the fore, followed by his "Tasso" and "Iphigenie." Schiller is nearly as fully drawn upon (our comparison is indexical)—"Don Carlos" first, "Wallenstein's Tod," "Wilhelm Tell." Heine and Bodenstedt, Lessing, Rückert, Körner, Platen (who forced Carducci into the ranks of the translators), Richter, Geibel—so the line tapers off. In the prose extracts Bismarck is preëminent; even Luther's supply is scanty. There are subject and author indexes, showing occasionally faulty references.

—In 1904 Prof. Georg Jacob of Erlangen began to publish translations of popular Turkish texts, such as *Märchen*, current in Constantinople. Five parts of from 60 to 130 pages have so far appeared, and the collection, under the title of "Türkische Bibliothek," promises to be one of the first interest and value for modern Turkish city life and its ideas, manners, and ways. Part I., besides a valuable introduction on the art of the public story-teller in the East, gives a number of such tales, showing folk-lore origin, but very strongly flavored, too, with broad modern humor. The three parts which follow next contain translations by Dr. Theodor Menzel of Odessa from Mehmed Tevfiq's unfortunately uncompleted 'Year in Constantinople.' The author of that work, an Old Turk of Bohemian life but astounding knowledge of old-fashioned Constantinople and its ways, who died about 1897-8, intended to make it a picture of the modes of entertainment current round the year among the Turks of Constantinople who had remained unaffected by the West. He saw the coming of a new time, and sought to fix the old life as he had known and lived it in his younger years. In this way, though an uncontaminated Oriental, he was really a folklorist, and recognized how quickly popular games, usages, and amusements vanish from the memories of the later generations. Unfortunately, only five *months* appeared, three of which are translated here. Either the author's endurance failed, or the Government, for some mys-

terious reason, interfered. The present translations are not exactly easy reading; they are intended for those already interested in Turkish literature and having some knowledge of Turkish. But if they cannot be read on the run by any one, they will still be quite intelligible to the folklorist, who should greet this genuine comrade and faithful worker, though he probably never heard the word folklore. The fifth part is a translation by Professor Jacob himself of the Turkish *Märchen* and story-book 'Xoros Kardash,' 'Brother Cock,' with a storyological introduction prefixed. He has also just published a third, revised edition of his bibliography of shadow-figures, 'Erwähnungen des Schatten-Theaters in der Welt-Litteratur.' All these with Mayer & Müller, Berlin.

MODERN GERMANY.

Modern Germany: Her Political and Economic Problems. By O. Eltzbacher. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905. Pp. 346.

If any one of King Edward's subjects thinks everything is going wrong in Britain, he will find society in his disgruntled mood in this handsomely printed volume, parts of the contents of which have already appeared in various periodical reviews. The author, apparently an Englishman of German extraction, essays to bring to the consciousness of his insular countrymen some homely truths regarding the way in which their Teutonic neighbors threaten to forge ahead of them, unseat them in their fancied eternal preëminence in the world's commerce, and finally crush them if they remain deaf and blind to the warnings of the times. These lessons he drives home in a sledge-hammer fashion calculated to make the poor Briton tremble for his safety. In his introduction, Mr. Eltzbacher in ringing terms contrasts the splendid results achieved by paternalism and fostering governmental activity in Germany—the subordination of the individual to the State—with what he considers the meagre output of the *laissez-faire* policy and the assertion of individualism as against administrativism in Great Britain:

"If Germany had followed the policy of *laissez-faire*," says the author, "if the German Government had been subordinated to the 'will of the people,' and if it had always waited for the lead of 'The Man in the Street,' the German nation would still be a medley of peasants, university professors, philosophers, and soldiers."

And a little further on he remarks:

"Class government has proved a failure in England, and party government, as at present carried on, is proving a failure, because the enormous forces of opposition and of obstruction act as an effective check to rapid and even to adequate political and economic progress."

Having delivered himself of his overture, Mr. Eltzbacher launches forth upon a detailed exposition, braced by copious statistics, of the "expansion of Germany." The German Empire contains 60,000,000 inhabitants. Its population has increased by one-half since the war of 1870; the rate of increase is an accelerated one; and, according to the prediction of Hübbe-Schleiden, the babes of 1906 will live to be part of a nation of 150,000,000 souls crowded within the borders of the old Fatherland. While the German people at home is thus growing at a tremendous pace, Germany abroad, Mr. Eltzbacher tries to prove, tends to disappear. According to him, the German cut loose from his moorings is unable to resist absorption by his neighbors. The Germans of Cisleithan Austria, he thinks, are bound to be absorbed very soon by the rising tide of Slavdom about them, and those of Hungary to disappear by Magyarization. In the United States and other parts of the American continent the process of denationalization will ever proceed rapidly. "This spectacle fills many thoughtful Germans with regret and sadness," and with a feeling akin to uneasiness, as our author observes in another place. "Germany is loath to strengthen foreign nations, her present and future competitors, with her emigration, which earlier of later must set in in a powerful stream." Therefore Germany must see to it that she has possessions somewhere beyond the seas into which this great stream may be made to run. "The existing German colonies do not offer an outlet for the emigration of white men. Consequently the resolution has arisen to acquire colonies in a temperate zone whenever and wherever possible." England and the United States stand in the way of Germany's ambition to become a "world Power," and Mr. Eltzbacher sees her preparing for the inevitable conflict, which is to be a death-struggle, with the Anglo-Saxon race. He warns Englishmen that it is high time to rouse themselves to this fact. "Present-day Germany owes her greatness to the sword," and it is with the sword, or rather with an invincible fleet of battle-ships, that she intends to conquer colonies. An interesting array of quotations is presented from the newspaper press and the utterances of distinguished professors to show how intent the Germans are on becoming a world Power at the expense of the Anglo-Saxons, and how dominant is the conviction of the necessity of a great navy.

The author considers it "sufficiently clear that Germany's new fleet has been created for the purpose of fighting Great Britain and the United States, or both nations, in the pursuit of colonies and of commerce." Mr. Eltzbacher has full faith in the ability of Germany to carry out her programme, and he believes further that an alliance between the Empire and France is decidedly in the air. That Germany possesses the means to create as powerful a navy as she chooses, no one will question. So many millions, so many battleships; and world commerce, not to speak of world empire, is worth the investment. But why suppose for a moment that England will stand by and not manage to keep well ahead in the race? Can she not quicken her pace as well as Germany? And, granting that the ultimate potential resources of the one Power are as great as those of the other, will not that one whose very existence depends upon her undisputed maritime predominance forever stretch the limits of exertion and sacrifice far beyond anything that the thirst for expansion can impel the other to strain up to? Germany may as well settle down to the fact that the position of Britain is well nigh impregnable from the sheer force of circumstances. As for an alliance between France and Germany against Great Britain, it is hard to imagine what inducements could tempt the French to take the chances of a defeat at the hands of the British. At first sight, indeed, England would appear to be in a position to outbid Germany altogether in the offer for such an alliance. She has only to say the word, and France can become a great colonial Power, and that without prejudice to British interests. There is Morocco, together with Tripoli, and there are the German possessions in Africa and much besides on that continent, and England could safely allow the extension of French dominion over the whole of Siam, an enlarged French Indo-China being no disadvantage to England in the event of aggressions from a resurrected China. Still, all such visions of territorial expansion are offset by the necessity for France to remain on friendly terms with Germany. The truth is, although she may be loath to admit it, the future of France lies in keeping hands off either Power. It is becoming more and more likely, as years go by, that far-seeing French statesmen, having awakened to the fact that before long, at the present rate of increase, the population of Germany will be twice that of nearly stationary France, and perhaps in the not distant future three times as great, will become convinced that the salvation of France lies in making peace once for all with her neighbor beyond the Vosges, whose military power threatens soon to become invincible. It will yet take time, however, for French patriots who are still dreaming of *revanche* to accommodate themselves to this view. In the meanwhile the one way for Germany to win over France is to offer to restore Alsace-Lorraine, but to this we cannot expect Germans ever to make up their minds.

Mr. Eltzbacher devotes a chapter to the "Expansion of Germany, and the Russian Problem." He is persuaded that the struggle between Slav and Teuton will soon have to be fought out. It will be with Constantinople as her base that Russia will get at her foe, first bursting the Austro-Hungarian realm asunder through her hold upon the Slavic peoples. The author advises Great Britain to watch the coming conflict "with the equanimity of a disinterested spectator. It would be the height of folly if she should unnecessarily join the fray."

The first half of the book before us contains, in addition to the matters which we have been discussing, interesting chapters on the German Emperor, the Armed Forces of Germany, and the Social Democratic Party. The second half is devoted to a consideration of rural industries, means of transportation, the wonderfully developed chemical industries, and the fiscal policy of Germany. There is much here for the Englishman, with his insular horizon, to ponder. In a series of chapters bristling with statistics, Mr. Eltzbacher endeavors to set forth the benefits that have flowed in Germany from the governmental policy of looking out for the economic interests of the people, as embodied in protection, state ownership of railways, the extension of water communications, and the provision of technical education; at the same time he holds up to the English, as a result of their *laissez-faire* policy, the spectacle of their decadent agriculture, the abuses to which they are subjected through the private ownership of railways, the hopeless condition of their artificial waterways, and the evils resulting from the lack of

industrial training. Unless England chooses to profit by the experience of her neighbor, he predicts that she will soon drop behind Germany in the industrial race.

Mr. Eltzbacher, throughout his book, speaks with an air of authority, and with a reiteration that becomes wearisome. His speculations and asseverations would, however, bear more weight if he were less prone to trace results to their causes along the lines that suit his thesis, and if he had less of a slap-dash way of drawing inferences from statistics. It is preposterous, for example, to conclude from the figures of the Austrian census that "the German element in Austria seems likely to disappear almost completely within a few decades." The figures given at page 16 show a barely perceptible decrease in the percentage of Germans in Cisleithania between the years 1890 and 1900 (36.04 and 35.78). But Mr. Eltzbacher would see in this "only the beginning of an enormous shrinkage which has commenced to set in." In making up his inventory of the population of Greater Germany, he estimates the German element in the United States at 11,000,000 souls! When he affirms (p. 43) that between 1857 and 1876 no less than 4,606,000 Germans emigrated to Russia, while only 4,048,000 returned to Germany, he is basing his reckoning on quicksands. What is the use of reminding Englishmen that their birthrate is rapidly falling, and is almost the lowest in Europe, when the population of England and Wales has increased in the last quarter of a century from 26,000,000 to more than 34,000,000? As a matter of fact, owing to improved sanitary conditions, the excess of births over deaths in England has continued to increase steadily in the last decade. If agriculture is sadly declining in England, while it is advancing in Germany, are we bound to agree with Mr. Eltzbacher that it is because everything is wrong in England and the other way in Germany? Granting that extortionate railway tariffs and discriminations prevail in the one, and a well-ordered railway service and cheap water transportation (not to speak of protective duties) in the other, is there nothing else that might tend to make a fundamental difference between the two countries? May not the backward-tending course of agriculture in England, as compared with Germany, be largely the expression of the fact that manufactures and commerce offer a relatively more remunerative field for labor and capital in the one country than in the other? England has not been transformed from an agricultural to an industrial country because agriculture ceased to pay, but because manufacturing paid better, and because the great sources of food supply beyond the seas were brought within easy reach. It may be true, indeed, that agricultural prosperity in Germany has gone hand in hand with an extraordinary development of manufacturing industries, but we must bear in mind that there was room for such an industrial development to take place without any very great disturbance of the rural population. The author himself admits that there has been much more room for agricultural progress in Germany than in England. His own tables, it appears to us, do not altogether bear out his roseate view of this improvement. The statistics of live stock in Germany between 1873 and 1900 (p. 183) indicate on the whole a great diminution per capita of the population. The absolute increase, in itself not large, is not at all to the point. Mr. Eltzbacher contrasts the vast activity expended in Germany on the improvement of waterways, and the resulting low cost of transportation, with the apathy exhibited in Great Britain with regard to rivers and canals. His figures are certainly striking, but he attributes too much importance to the facts brought out in his comparison, overlooking the great difference in underlying conditions in the two countries. Germany is a country of large rivers and great distances. England is relatively a small country, and there is hardly a place in it that is more than sixty miles from the sea. It is natural that railways there should monopolize so much of the traffic. The comparatively short hauls by water, given the artificial channels, would hardly result in such a gain as our author would have us believe.

ATLAY'S VICTORIAN CHANCELLORS.

The Victorian Chancellors. By J. B. Atlay. In two volumes. Vol. I.: Lord Lyndhurst, Lord Brougham, Lord Cottenham, Lord Truro. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1906.

Mr. Atlay's 'Victorian Chancellors' commences a set of judicial biographies which are full of interest. He cannot, it is true, paint effectively an historical portrait; he does not possess the marvellous insight and the equally marvellous power of expression which enables Bagehot, in a few epigrammatic words, to discover to us the very essence of the character of men so remarkable as Brougham and Lyndhurst. Still, Mr. Atlay, though neither a subtle thinker nor a masterly writer, does provide his readers with a clear, sensible, and, above all, an honest narrative of the career of the men whose lives he undertakes to write. A natural reaction, it is true, against the slanderous malignity of a notorious biographer who could never forgive the contempt for "plain John Campbell" felt and expressed by two men of genius immeasurably his superiors, has led Mr. Atlay to assume in the case of Lyndhurst and Brougham, and especially of Lyndhurst, too much the attitude of an apologist, and to attempt the dreary and thankless task of defending the indefensible. His work, however, is well done. It corrects misrepresentations to which the dignity of a chancellor who pretended to be an historian has given undue weight. Nor can any one regret that the noblest characteristics of public men such as Brougham (who, by the way, has technically no right to be included among "Victorian" Chancellors) and of Lyndhurst, who, whatever his faults, will always remain one of the glories of the English judicial system, should be forced upon the attention of readers who have nearly forgotten the last among English chancellors who could claim to be not only lawyers but statesmen.

The short biographies of Cottenham and Truro are not unworthy either of praise or of notice. Each of these men rose to deserved eminence by pure legal ability. In Lord Cottenham we have a chancellor who, by his unrivalled insight into legal principle, was the creator of law; in Lord Truro we have the rare instance of a man who retained throughout life the spirit of an industrious and acute attorney, yet with universal approval became the occupant of the woolsack. It is amusing to think that one who filled the highest position attainable by any British subject should have been so fond of and immersed in the technicalities of the law that, to use the happy words of Mr. Atlay, "We can almost hear him ejaculating with Uriah Heep, 'Oh, what a writer Mr. Tidd is, Master Copperfield!'" But every intelligent reader of the 'Victorian Chancellors' will assuredly turn away from the merely legal eminence of Cottenham and Truro, and occupy himself with Lyndhurst and Brougham, who are the two heroes of Mr. Atlay's first volume.

Though no two chancellors were more unlike one another, they displayed throughout their careers several common characteristics. They both were statesmen; they both were party leaders; they both, at a revolutionary crisis, commanded the admiration of thousands among their countrymen; they both were endowed with talents so extraordinary as to rise to genius; they both forced themselves to eminence without the aid of patronage, by simple force of character and intellectual capacity; they both belonged in spirit to an age of a lower moral tone than that of the generation of which they were the leaders. The career of each suggests the same problem: Why do the lives of men distinguished beyond all their fellows leave on the mind of every candid critic a sense of failure? Why did the intellectual triumphs of Lyndhurst miss their mark? why did the brilliancy of Brougham's victory over adverse circumstances which made him for a moment the most powerful and the most popular statesman in England, suffer sudden and final eclipse? The question is a curious one, but may easily be answered by any student who weighs the facts collected together by Mr. Atlay, and also recognizes what Mr. Atlay, with a singular want of acumen, fails to do, the decisiveness and the finality of the judgments pronounced by Walter Bagehot. Lyndhurst's career was in one sense, indeed, a perpetual success. His commanding intellect and his social charm secured for him an admiration and an affection which ceased only with his life. To his mental power a tribute has been paid by his severest censor, which makes any other appreciation feeble and useless. It should be read as a whole, though space allows us here to quote but a few words from Bagehot's discriminating eulogy:

> "There was no laxity in his intellect; everything there was braced and knit. . . . Few will recur to Lord Lyndhurst's speeches, but those who do so will find some of the best, if not the very best, specimens in English of the best manner in which a man of great intellect can address and influence the intellects of others. . . . The words seem the simplest, clearest, and most natural that a man could use. It is only the instructed man who knows that he could not himself have used them, and that few men could."

His eminence among lawyers was uncontested. There have been chancellors who have possessed a more profound and complete knowledge of the law of England, but

no man has ever brought to the discharge of judicial functions a more powerful mind, or more absolute intellectual impartiality than did Lyndhurst. Every one who came before him knew that he was in the presence of a great judge. The charm, further, and the urbanity of one of Nature's noblemen told upon every man who enjoyed his society. Lyndhurst was not exactly made for a popular hero; but when he reached old age and denounced the tyranny of Russia, or, after his eyesight had failed him, displayed from memory a mass of legal erudition that was, after all, simply the illustration of the powerful argument which (much to the detriment of the nation) prevented the creation of peers for life, not only the legal profession, but all the educated part of the English people, felt proud of the old man who, when well past eighty years of age, still proved himself a consummate legist, advocate, and orator. Yet, for all this, in Lyndhurst's career there was something lacking. He had the gifts of statesmanship, but he never was in reality the leader of the nation. In spite of his intellectual detachment he played the part without sharing the prejudices of a partisan; and even as a party man he excited distrust. He was generally believed to have been a political renegade.

Mr. Atlay tries to prove that the belief was unfounded. The full evidence for it is not now forthcoming, but Lyndhurst's apologist seems not to perceive how the case really stands. An accuser may not be able to prove that Lyndhurst ever formally deserted deliberately entertained political principles; so be it. The true accusation is, that Lyndhurst never in strictness entertained any political principles whatever. That in early life he entertained democratic sympathies, is in the highest degree probable. What is certain is, that Lyndhurst looked upon politics as a game, and took office under the Tory Government of Lord Liverpool when to join the Tories seemed the only mode of achieving political success. He was not, probably, more unprincipled than many politicians of his youth; he shared the low political morality which belonged to an age that was passing away. In the days of Peel, of Lord John Russell, and of Althorpe he was influenced by the ideas which belonged to the days of Bute and of Wedderburn. High intellectual power, moreover, justly exposes its possessor to be judged by a high moral standard. A man who ought to have been the foremost statesman of his day could not without disgrace adopt the moral tone which might not be unbecoming in Rigby or in Creevy.

How little, after all, Lyndhurst could be trusted, may be inferred from the fact that Mr. Atlay himself does not appear fully to believe the word of his hero, even on an occasion when Lyndhurst must be taken to pledge his word as a man of honor. "He played the game of life," writes Bagehot, "for low and selfish objects; and yet, by the intellectual power with which he played it, he redeemed that game from its intrinsic degradation." And this terrible sentence is too lenient. The playing of the political game for low and selfish objects—the treatment, indeed, of politics as a game at all—has been, and always will be, the bane of public life in England; and the wretched game is none the less degrading because the public learn to admire the skill of a player endowed with consummate ability.

Brougham had none of the fineness of Lyndhurst's intellect. He was deficient, one would have supposed, in everything which could be called charm, though, according to Sir James Mackintosh, his "address and insinuation" were so great that nothing but the bad temper which he could not conceal, could hinder him from mastering everybody with whom he came in contact. He conquered the House of Commons, though the members hated while they feared him. The old judge, in truth, who used to style Brougham, when summing up against him, "the Harangue," in an odd way hit the mark. Brougham seemed at times rather a force than a human being. Neither individuals nor the crowd could be insensible to what Bagehot describes as "such an aggressive intellect—so much *knocking* mind." From 1818 to 1832 he became, in the eyes of the English people, the incarnation of power. He was, as Mr. Atlay well points out, at his very best during the Queen's trial; he fought for his client tooth and nail; he crushed hostile witnesses; he bore down opposition; he bullied the House of Lords; he made George shake with fear. The terrible advocate was prepared, if every other resource failed, to show the whole nation the baseness of a royal voluptuary. Brougham was the man to risk revolution rather than lose his cause. Happily for himself, he was retained on the right side. The Queen, whatever her faults, was the victim of gross injustice. The English public sympathized with a woman whom they knew to be wronged. Yet her triumph, such as it was, could hardly have been secured by any man who had not possessed the superhuman energy of Brougham. This success established his power. In 1830 he was for a moment master of the situation.

Of his blunder in accepting the chancellorship, of the still grosser blunder which prevented his ever again being chancellor, the circumstances are known, and they are amply stated, though too favorably for Brougham, in Mr. Atlay's pages. The question before us is not why Brougham blundered, but why were Brougham's errors fatal to his career? Whoever considers this problem must remember that Brougham, whatever his faults, was, by the admission of his opponents, endowed with a genuine public spirit, shown, for example, in his life-long zeal for the promotion of education. He was, moreover, at the height of his power, what Lyndhurst never became, a genuine popular hero; he wielded an influence—for a short time only, it is true—which may well be compared to that of Gladstone in 1880. Yet, for all this, he fell suddenly, and fell to rise no more. Nor are the causes of this calamity in reality hard to find. Brougham's genius itself was closely connected with a certain want of sanity which, combined with the habits of his life, made hostile contemporaries suspect that, on one or two celebrated occasions, he spoke or acted under the influence of drink. He certainly exhibited at several crises of his career a kind of untrustworthiness and even cunning absolutely inconsistent with the possession of a sound judgment. With Brougham no colleague could feel safe. It is pretty clear that he sacrificed the interests of the Queen to the opportunity of display as her advocate, or to the chance of gaining a party triumph for the Whigs. No one trusted him. Those who knew him best trusted him least. Mr. Atlay, with more boldness than discretion, blames Melbourne for excluding Brougham from office. Melbourne was no purist; he was a clever man of the world who knew his own business much better than does Melbourne's critic. He felt, as a man of sense, that Brougham was less dangerous as an open enemy than as a faithless colleague.

Still, the completeness of Brougham's fall, arising as it did, in the main, from the defects of his character, was due also to external circumstances. He had the genius of a revolutionist. From 1815 to 1834, England was passing through a revolutionary crisis. For this stormy end Brougham was better suited than any other Englishman. It suited his vehement, stormy nature. But observers who thought that the passing of the Reform bill was only the first act of a sanguinary drama like that which, not fifty years before, had led to the destruction of the French monarchy, misunderstood the social condition of England and misread the signs of the time. By 1834 the political tempest had abated. What England required was an administration of genius, and the country found what it needed, not in Brougham, but in Peel. It was neither the wisdom nor the caprice of Lord Melbourne, but far rather the natural course of events, which closed Brougham's career. Fortune, too, which was kind to Brougham in his youth, was cruel to him in the later part of his life. He lived too long, and he had not the qualities which gave dignity and grace to the old age of Lyndhurst. There is something, indeed, pathetic in the affection of the two old men for one another; one likes to know that the death of Lyndhurst was a blow from which his former opponent never quite recovered. But Lyndhurst in his last years was far more fortunate than his friend. Brougham was in 1868, in the eyes of J. D. Coleridge, nothing more than "poor old Brougham"; he had survived his powers, he had almost survived his fame. Lyndhurst, on the other hand, retained his intellect and his literary and scientific tastes to the last. Men had forgotten his faults, and still admired his gifts and his grace. He died in the ninety-second year of his age. His last words, uttered in answer to some tender inquiry, were, "Happy? Yes, supremely happy."

ROSE'S DEVELOPMENT OF THE EUROPEAN NATIONS.

The Development of the European Nations, 1870-1900. By J. Holland Rose. 2 vols. Putnams.

This is a useful work, that aims to describe the steps by which the world to-day has arisen out of the conditions which prevailed fifty years ago. By the rapid summary which it supplies, we measure the completeness of the change which a single generation has witnessed. Although Mr. Rose is concerned chiefly with political and diplomatic transactions, the social states from which they spring are easily inferred, and when a war comes, he gives in great detail, with the zest of a military critic, the

progress of the campaign and the story of important battles. We miss, at times, a clear statement of the aims or ideals by which the actors in the drama were moved. Perhaps it is too soon to define the principles which have guided European evolution since 1870; and yet an attempt at such a definition ought to be made. Occasionally, through brief hints, Mr. Rose lets us infer that he has grasped the new synthesis; and then he tantalizes us by plunging again into a mass of details which seem as purposeless as a choppy sea. Nevertheless, some elements of this new synthesis are plain.

Liberty and nationality, the twin ideals which inspired the generation from 1830 to 1870, seem for the moment as obsolete as the rights of man. In 1860, Cavour and Garibaldi incarnated those principles; in 1900 England was struggling to stamp them out in South Africa, the United States in the Philippines, Russia in Finland. In 1860, the world looked with immense hope to the remedial effect of political reforms; it believed that constitutional government, the extension of the franchise, popular education, could be counted on to lift mankind rapidly towards perfection. But after 1870 reaction set in. Those panaceas began to be distrusted, for they failed to produce the desired results as quickly as had been promised; and, after all, they seemed to stop at the political and commercial, which are of the surface, whereas men were already in the toils of the industrial and the social, which are as deep as life itself.

The past thirty years have witnessed the radical changes due to the application of inventions to industry and agriculture. The telegraph, railways, and steamships make all men neighbors. Population has increased at a portentous rate—a fact which lies behind the land hunger and colonial enterprises which have determined most of the recent political action in Europe. Indeed, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that Imperialism, if we use the word in its widest sense, has been the vital characteristic of the period which Mr. Rose reviews. Liberty and nationality led directly to a united Germany and a united Italy, and to the establishment of a certain political equilibrium. Imperialism has transferred to other continents the jealousies and competitions which would earlier have been concentrated in the home nations. Hence it would appear that, while the tendency in Europe itself has been to create combinations which render war improbable, the imperial movement into which England, Russia, Germany, France, and even Italy have been swept, has set up conditions which greatly increase the probability of war. The world has at last become *solidaire*: so that a clash between outposts in the remotest part of Africa or Asia may threaten the peace of Europe.

Mr. Rose begins his work with the unification of Italy and of Germany, giving incidentally a rather minute account of the Franco-Prussian war. He then proceeds to describe the organization of the German Empire and the terrible straits out of which the French Republic emerged with a fighting chance for life. His picture of Thiers is one of the best in the book. The rest of his first volume is taken up with the Balkans, the Eastern Question, and the Russo-Turkish war. Southeastern Europe is, of course, the unfinished part of Europe, and will be as long as the Sultan remains at Constantinople; but since 1870 the process of organizing it has gone on almost without interruption, till to-day Bulgaria and Rumania have an independent existence; so virtually has Herzegovina; Servia looks to Austria and not to the Porte for instructions; Macedonia, though still under the Turk, has grown so restless that its release cannot be long delayed. In a word, the Balkan Peninsula has advanced far towards emancipating itself from the Turk, without becoming a mere Russian dependency, as political prophets until recently predicted it would become.

Mr. Rose devotes much space to these affairs, and he is justified, because it is hard to get a good account of them in English: we regret that at times his own account lacks clearness. It would have helped the general reader to lay more stress on the epochal fact that the Congress of Berlin, in turning Russia away from Constantinople, not only gave a great momentum to the Russianizing of northern and central Asia, but also permitted the reorganization of the Balkan States along non-Russian lines. His chapter on Nihilism and Absolutism in Russia contains much admirable information, but—as if to warn historians against prophesying—the events of the past year have contradicted some of his conclusions. The great strike used as a political weapon last autumn revealed unsuspected qualities in the Russian lower classes.

The only strictly European subject discussed in the second volume is the forming of the Triple and Dual Alliances, and here Mr. Rose is at his best. Then he goes on to narrate the complicated Central Asian and Afghan matters, which drew Russia and England into perilous neighborhood, and have left them in a position where the English, at least, believe war must come, sooner or later. England's control of Egypt, Gordon's quixotic heroism at Khartum, and the reconquest of the Sudan, are three parts of a continued story—a story which for mere strangeness has had few equals in modern days. The partition of Africa and the horrible record of the Congo Free State conclude the account of that continent; for Mr. Rose does not take up the Boer war, which disclosed the amazing incapacity of the English either to fight with white enemies on anything like equal terms, or to make use of modern military tactics and methods. A final chapter, on Russia in the Far East, brings the Russian and the Japanese face to face on the Pacific; but Mr. Rose refrains from entering upon the war itself.

Among many considerations which his survey suggests, we may mention these. First, since 1870, Germany has set up the standard which Europe has, willingly or not, followed, and that standard has been reactionary. Secondly, England, in spite of astonishing incapacity in foreign affairs—there never was a crazier commission, for instance, than that given to Gordon—has got the lion's share in continent carving. Next, the hope cherished in the last generation that democracies would not tolerate war has not been fulfilled, although it may justly be urged that the European governments are not yet true democracies. Fourthly, from 1870 to 1890 Bismarck's influence was paramount. Fifthly, since Bismarck, there has been no statesman of even second rank in Europe: Salisbury's ursine qualities had nothing of greatness about them, and the calamity of the Boer war already hangs like a millstone round his reputation; the German Kaiser plays for limelight effects, but it would be easy to show that the vital progress of Germany during the past fifteen years is due to the momentum which Bismarck created and directed. Finally, this period has lacked ideals. Egotism and Machiavellianism have had a free rein. The white man has assumed his right to kill or exploit black men, brown men, and yellow men, without pretending that in doing so he is obeying Christian precepts. The disintegration of what once passed for Christianity explains much of the white man's action during the past generation. Having learned from science the shibboleth, "survival of the fittest," he brands as "unfit" people inferior to himself in brute force, and proceeds to exterminate them. His favorite philospher is Nietzsche: his pet poet, Kipling of the bloody ballads; his hero, Cecil Rhodes, the glorified land and mine jobber.

Mr. Rose is somewhat uneven in style, perhaps because a large part of the sources of his work comes from newspapers and magazines. He has not put his material together with as much skill as Fyffe displayed in his 'Modern Europe,' and yet the period he deals with is so important and so interesting, and reliable works upon it are so few, that his volumes deserve a warm welcome.

Joseph Jefferson: Reminiscences of a Fellow-Player. By Francis Wilson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1906.

Mr. Wilson's desire to bear public testimony to his admiration of Mr. Joseph Jefferson as an actor and a man may be accepted as a creditable motive for writing these Reminiscences, but not a sufficient justification for the printing of such a mass of slipshod, trivial, irrelevant, and egotistical detail. In one sense, indeed, this bulky volume may be pronounced entirely superfluous, for it sheds no ray of new light upon its subject, contains no fact of the slightest importance that was not long ago a matter of record, and substitutes for those more weighty qualities which alone can give value to anecdotal biography—such as discreet selection, explanatory comment, or illuminative comparison—a flow of continuous eulogy, always indiscriminate, and often silly. There are, doubtless, plenty of persons of the kind whose appetite for theatrical gossip is insatiable, who will read with avidity Mr. Wilson's rhapsodies over the most trifling action or utterance of the famous comedian, but many a stanch friend of Mr. Jefferson, as he closes the book, will be tempted to exclaim, with feelings akin to indignation, "An enemy hath done this." The old saying, "No man is a hero to his valet," will assume hereafter in their minds a new significance. Yet it would be the grossest injustice to suspect Mr. Wilson for a moment of the least malicious intent. The fervor of his adulation is manifestly sincere. An indifferent actor himself, the exquisite technical proficiency, delicate humor, and natural pathos of Jef-

ferson must have seemed to him almost miraculous. His appreciation of these artistic beauties has been shared by many millions of his grateful fellow-creatures. It is his misfortune, rather than his fault, that he is almost wholly deficient in the qualifications necessary for his purpose. Wise choice of material is as essential to the erection of a permanent monument as constructive skill.

The book is written with a certain amount of verbal fluency, but is chaotic in arrangement, and is stuffed at all points with the foolish chatter of the theatrical press agent. Mr. Wilson is among the most industrious of recent chroniclers of small beer. His intimacy with Mr. Jefferson was comparatively brief, and his recollections limited—good reason why these should not have been padded so egregiously, or repeated so often. If three-fourths of them had been omitted, the remainder would have been three times as valuable, as illustrations of the true Jefferson, who seems, indeed, to have had occasional misgivings as to the discretion of his enthusiastic Boswell. To give examples of the latter's many childish infelicities would occupy more space than can be spared for them. Moreover, further publicity is undesirable. It is better to refer briefly to such passages as are more worthy of Mr. Wilson's subject, and more pertinent to it. These discourse agreeably enough, but with no especial freshness of perception or expert knowledge, of Mr. Jefferson's art and personality; of his untiring industry and sure instinct in perfecting his ideals of Rip Van Winkle and the two or three other characters upon which his fame as an actor depends; of his devotion to painting and fishing; of his shrewdness as a connoisseur of pictures; of his genial and optimistic temperament and his universal popularity. But Mr. Wilson's persistent mood of ecstatic hero-worship adds no weight to his tribute, while wofully exposing his own frailty of judgment. He appears to think that "Rip Van Winkle" was a model of dramatic composition, instead of one of the feeblest, trickiest, and most immoral plays ever written, and is enthusiastic over the wholesale mutilation and unlimited "gagging" which marked the so-called all-star production of "The Rivals." As a full justification of Mr. Jefferson's career, he writes: "He was neither a reformer nor an educationalist. He did not, need not, concern himself with questions of æsthetic public import." This is one of the most pregnant sentences in the book. But did ever eulogy contain a sharper sting? Well might the sufferer exclaim, with old fat Jack, "A plague upon such friendship, say I."

As might be expected, some of Mr. Jefferson's quoted conversations are of more interest than Mr. Wilson's sentiments and opinions. He held that Macbeth was in the beginning a good man; differing on this point from Henry Irving. His argument was that Macbeth uttered some fine philosophical speeches, such as "Life's but a walking shadow," etc. Irving maintained that these were satirical, to which Jefferson replied that Macbeth spoke them when alone, and that a man was not likely to speak satirically to himself. Shakspere, he added, always made his characters reveal their true selves in their soliloquies. Irving said nothing then, but later on remarked that he could not understand how some American students of Macbeth could so misconceive his nature. At another time Jefferson, discussing oratory and acting, said: "The orator must be impressive, the actor impressionable. The orator must speak only; the actor must not only talk, but listen—and an actor who does not know how to listen has half his art to learn—and he must also show what he is feeling as he listens. The orator never has to listen. His art is therefore so much the easier." He forgot, apparently, that an orator must feel the temper of his audience, or risk failure, but there is a truth in his saying which is most imperfectly comprehended by many modern players.

Another acute remark of his was that acting was more a gift than an art. "The great value of art, when applied to the stage, is that it enables the performer to reproduce the gift, and so move his audience night after night, even though he has acted the same character a thousand times." He evidently understood the danger of acting on the impulse of the moment and thus unconsciously modifying the gesture, intonation, or expression, originally determined on as most appropriate to the fictitious character and situation. What most actors call inspiration is simply a surrender to their own private and personal impulses, which are often entirely foreign to the projected impersonation.

We conclude with a characteristic anecdote illustrative of the cheery spirit which lightened the old comedian's life to its close. Not long before his death, he was pointing out the lath supports which he had made for the tomato vines in his beloved garden. "The saddest thing in old age," he said, "is the absence of expectation. You no longer look forward to things. Now a garden is all expectation—and you often get a lot you don't expect. Therefore I have become a gardener. When you are past seventy, don't forget to cultivate a garden. It is all expectation." Herein is a reflection of the humanity and the humor which made the personality of Jefferson so fascinating both on and off the stage. There are few such nuggets in the book, and they can be found only by sifting a vast amount of rubbish.

Rise of the New West, 1819-1829. By Frederick J. Turner. [The American Nation, Vol. XIV.]. Harpers. 1906. Pp. xviii., 366.

Although Professor Turner's volume necessarily deals with a number of topics not directly connected with the rise of the West, its most distinctive contribution is in the field indicated by its title. The editor's choice of a collaborator is as happy as it was inevitable, for no one has studied the early history of the West, in certain aspects of it, more thoroughly, or written about it more instructively, than the accomplished professor of American history in the University of Wisconsin. To those who have been wont to attribute all of our important political happenings to either New England, Washington, or the South, it cannot but be both instructive and refreshing to find the significance of the central West, with its ideas and ideals, judicially and sympathetically appraised. To be sure, only the beginning of the newer Western development in the constitutional period falls to Professor Turner's share, and the exigencies of space have enforced obvious brevity; but what is presented is a welcome addition to the equipment of ordered knowledge in its field.

While the relation of the West to all the main events of the decade 1819-1829 is kept in view throughout the volume, the distinctive characteristics of the section as a whole are particularly dwelt upon in the four chapters entitled respectively "Colonization of the West," "Social and Economic Development of the West," "Western Commerce and Ideals," and "The Far West." The rapid growth of population in the region beyond the Alleghenies, the expanding agriculture and trade, and the steady conquest of new territory, became, after the War of 1812, factors of prime importance in national politics. On two of the main issues during the period, tariff and internal improvements, the demand of the West for recognition exercised a determining influence. The spirit and temper which lay back of and prompted this demand—a spirit little mindful of tradition and form, impatient of authority, ready to ride rough-shod over precedents and proprieties, and, withal, extremely self-conscious and self-contained—was little understood by the generation which saw the awakening of it; yet within scarcely more than a dozen years the West had developed a new democracy, and thenceforward pressed its claims upon the country until, with the election of Jackson, the people came into their own. It is this new Western spirit, little appreciated hitherto by historians, that Professor Turner analyzes with praiseworthy judgment and sympathy.

If any criticism is to be passed on the author's treatment of Western history, it is that strictly political matters are presented in scanty detail. On such topics as population and the settled area, roads and canals, trade and commerce, and the like, the outlines of the picture are tolerably complete. The political history of the States, on the other hand, whether separately or as a whole, is not much dwelt upon. We should like to know more about such matters as the development of State constitutions and governmental forms, especially local government; the legal modifications introduced in the process of borrowing from the older East and South; elections and office-holding, and State taxation and revenue. Doubtless, Professor Turner is right in making the development of Western democracy appear to depend chiefly on economic and national forces; but the outcome of this development in the field of State and local politics merits, we think, more attention than is here given to it.

For the rest, the volume discusses, as accompaniments of this democratic change, though not always an integral part of it, the principal events of the period: the financial crisis of 1819, the Missouri Compromise, the Monroe Doctrine, internal improvements, the tariffs of 1824 and 1828, and the tortuous course of party politics. Three early chapters on New England, the Middle States, and the South, are excellent examples of summary characterization; and the portrait of Adams is sympathetically drawn. For the first time in the volumes of this series relating to the Constitutional period, the subject of slavery holds a prominent place, the cross-play of economic and political influences being especially accent-

ed. The maps are numerous and good; those showing western Indian trading-posts and routes of travel, 1820-1835, and highways and waterways in the United States, 1826-1830, both in colors, being particularly notable. The bibliography lists much unfamiliar literature in addition to the better-known authorities.

Morocco of To-Day. By Eugène Aubin. E. P. Dutton. 1906.

What has become of our ancient friend Raisuli? Can any picture of the topsyturvydom of Morocco be complete without this Offenbachian brigand, who uses the telephone and fleeces his victims with bucket-shop adroitness—but *vi et armis*? In this age of associations for the preservation of ancient monuments, surely a society might be formed for maintaining Morocco in all its delightful incongruity. What could be more queer, more stimulating to the philosophic imagination, than the contrast of His Highness Muley Abdelaziz, Lord of the Believers, dabbling in motor launches, dirigible balloons, and polo, while all around him a political and social system tries to flourish very much as the Old Testament informs us that of the ancient Jews did in Palestine? The hodge-podge is complete. Not only do we have the confusion of races—Moors, Berbers, Jews, negroes, and Arabs—but these last may show us two adjacent tribes, one light-skinned, the other black. The four Arab tribes from the Sahara that dominate Morocco—the Makhzen—have only succeeded in erecting the flimsiest of political fabrics, in which traditions time-honored in Abraham's day still find a conspicuous place. Among them warfare has become as farcical as it was in Italy in the good old days of the Condottieri; and if trophies of victory are required to deck the Bab el-Marucq, at Fez, the heads not of the enemy but of the most handy persons are commandeered to serve the turn. The Sultan himself is the Ishmael among sovereigns. He has four capitals, and constantly wanders from one to the other, to say nothing of occasional excursions to cities of less importance.

But how picturesque, how remote, it all is! There, opposite our Carolinas, stretches a kingdom whose poets still sing their laments for the loss of Granada: "How deeply I mourn for the past that has fled. God! The days of joy and pleasure, the evenings calm and sweet! Homes of Andalusia that we have left behind us, how cruel the parting! Never shall I forget you."

M. Eugène Aubin is a French observer of Morocco, with the gift of precise, delicate, sympathetic appreciation. This he is able to convert into words, and the result is a very good book. It suffers from a certain unevenness, proceeding from the fact that the chapters were each originally contributions to reviews and journals; a little judicious compression and assimilation would have improved it. There are, however, some exceptionally good chapters, notably that on Bu Hamara, in which Moroccan warfare is described with a pleasing lightness of touch, and yet with a precision of detail that convinces the reader that here is the truth of the matter. The author describes many places, institutions, and customs, together with some of the internal incidents of the years 1902-3, but he does not deal with international questions save for a few trade statistics. The translation is fair, and contains few slips.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armstrong, Sir Walter. Thomas Gainsborough. Dutton. 75 cents net.
Baedeker's Rhine, $2.10 net.—Great Britain, $3 net. Imported by Scribners.
Baker, Thomas O. The Action Primer. American Book Co.
Breasted, James Henry. Ancient Records of Egypt. Vols. II. and III. University of Chicago Press.
Campbell, Frances. The Measure of Life. Dutton. $1.50.
Carmichael, Montgomery. In Tuscany. Dutton. $2 net.
Chambers, Robert W. The Tracer of Lost Persons. Appleton. $1.50.
Danby, Frank. The Sphinx's Lawyer. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Day, Lewis F. Alphabets, Old and New. New ed. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Deeping, Warwick. Bess of the Woods. Harpers. $1.50.
DeMille, James. Cord and Creese. Harpers. $1.
Dole, Nathan Haskell. The Building of the Organ. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.25 net.
Fischer, Louis. The Health-Care of the Baby. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 75 cents net.
Foster, Ardeen. Short Stories. McElroy Publishing Co.
Fox, Florence C. The Indian Primer. American Book Co.
Franklin, Frank George. The Legislative History of Naturalization in the United States. University of Chicago Press. $1.50 net.
Glimpses of the San Francisco Disaster. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 25 cents.
Goode, John. Recollections of a Lifetime. Neale Publishing Co. $2.
Hare, Christopher. A Queen of Queens and the Making of Spain. Scribners.
Herrmann, Wilhelm. The Communion of the Christian with God. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Hesseltine, Norman F. A Digest of the Law of Trade-Marks and Unfair Trade. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Hewlett, Maurice, The Works of. Vol. IX: Pan and the Young Shepherd.—Vol. X.: Earthwork out of Tuscany. Macmillan Co.
Higgins, Hubert. Humaniculture. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.20 net.
Hight, George Ainslie. The Unity of Will. Dutton. $3 net.
Hill, Mabel. Lessons for Junior Citizens. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Hindlip, Lord. Sport and Travel: Abyssinia and British East Africa. A. Wessels Co. $6 net.
Hobson, R. L. Porcelain of all Countries. Dutton. $3.50 net.
House of Quiet, The. Dutton. $2 net.
Howard, John Hamilton. In the Shadow of the Pines. Eaton & Mains. $1.25.
Hubner, John Bessner. Consumption. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Hutton, William Holden. The Church and the Barbarians. Macmillan Co. $1.
Hyatt, Thaddeus P. The Teeth and their Care. Brooklyn: King Press. 50 cents.
Johnson, Emory R. Ocean and Inland Water Transportation. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Jones, Harry C. The Electrical Nature of Matter and Radioactivity. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Josephus, Flavius. The Works of. Translated by William Whiston. Edited by D. S. Margoliouth. Dutton.
Laurel Music-Reader. Edited by W. L. Tomlins. Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co.
Leacock, Stephen. Elements of Political Science. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75 net.
Letters from a Surgeon in the Civil War. Compiled by Martha D. Perry. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Lincoln, Abraham, Complete Works of. Edited by J. G. Nicolay and John Hay. Vols. V. and VI. Francis D. Tandy Co.
Lord, Walter Frewen. The Mirror of the Century. John Lane Co.
Macfall, Haldane. Sir Henry Irving. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
Macphail, Andrew. The Vine of Sibmah. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Mahaffy, John Pentland. The Silver Age of the Greek World. University of Chicago Press. $3 net.
Major, David R. First Steps in Mental Growth. Macmillan Co. $1.25.
Marchant, E. C. Greek Reader. Vol. II. Henry Frowde.
Maxey, Edwin. International Law. St. Louis: The F. H. Thomas Law Book Co.
McKay, William D. The Scottish School of Painting. Imported by Scribners. $2 net.
Mifflin, Lloyd. My Lady of Dream. Henry Frowde.
Park, Mungo. Travels in the Interior of Africa. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Pierce the Ploughmans Crede. Transcribed and edited by Walter W. Skeat. Henry Frowde.
Pope, G. U. A Handbook of the Ordinary Dialect of the Tamil Language. Henry Frowde.
Power, John O'Connor. The Making of an Orator. Putnams. $1.35 net.
Preissig, Edward. Notes on the History and Political Institutions of the Old World. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Propertius. Translated by J. S. Phillimore. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d. net.
Reed, William. The Phantom of the Poles. Walter S. Rockey Co.
Robinson, E. Kay. The Religion of Nature. McClure, Phillips & Co. 90 cents net.
Sabatier, Paul. Séparation des Eglises et de l'Etat. Paris: Fischbacher.
Sichel, Edith. The Life and Letters of Alfred Ainger. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Sonnenschein, William Swan. Five Thousand Words Frequently Misspelt. Dutton. 50 cents.
Thompson, Holland. From the Cotton Field to the Cotton Mill. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
Todd, Charles Burr. In Olde Connecticut. The Grafton Press. $1.25 net.
Van Vorst, Marie. The Sin of George Warrener. Macmillan Co.
Warner, Anne. Susan Clegg and her Neighbors' Affairs. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 28, 1906.

The Week.

The Rate bill is, as we go to press, not yet out of Congress, and the Interstate Commerce Commission has not yet had its powers enlarged, but the effects of the campaign for railroad legislation in Washington are already to be observed in the unusual activity of the various State railroad commissions. June 20 the Kentucky Commission ordered what one railroad man characterized as an "astounding and revolutionary" series of reductions in rates to local points. Some reductions amount to as much as 25 per cent., while the "saving to shippers," which most of the rate commissions take such pride in pointing to, is estimated at $1,800,000. The newly created commission in the State of Washington gave hearings last week on five subjects: the joint rate on wheat, the freight rate on empty grain bags, the terminal rate for Bellingham, the minimum charge on small shipments, and a new station for Pasco. The Wisconsin Commission, having finished an elaborate series of hearings on the 2-cent-a-mile passenger rate, is expected shortly to deliver its decision, the general expectation being that the various roads will be classified according to earning capacity, only those in least prosperous condition being allowed to retain the present 3-cent rate.

The Indiana Commission, also newly created, on June 12 first asserted its right to prescribe freight rates, reducing the rate upon coal in a test proceeding by 40 per cent. The Illinois Commission, one of the oldest in the country, has given but little attention to rate matters since a general revision in 1900; but on June 5 it embodied the result of a long series of hearings in a sweeping horizontal reduction of rates, 10 per cent. on some classes, and 8 on others. The Minnesota Commission, which finished a comprehensive series of hearings in March, has not yet acted on the questions considered. So the news runs throughout the country, these instances being merely typical. President Roosevelt's campaign at Washington has galvanized local authorities into action. Since the Granger movement, it would probably be impossible to find a period of such general State activity in the control of the railroads. The value of it all is anything but uniform.

Senator Lodge spoke words of truth and soberness when he said in the Senate on June 20 that your most successful breeder of Socialists and Anarchists is the cynically law-defying rich man. The latter talks plaintively about the guarantees of property and the foundations of good order, but he himself is the one who does most to break them up by his assumption that the ordinary criminal laws were not intended for millionaires. This is a thesis not unfamiliar to our readers. Another one is that any unfair advantage given one man by the law, at the expense of another, is a direct provocative of social discontent. Men know that they cannot be equal except before the law; and when a law like the Dingley bill creates favored classes, and gives them the power to tax their fellows, it becomes a fruitful mother of Socialism. How does Senator Lodge know that he, by his refusal to lift a finger to remove the unjust burdens of the tariff, is not doing as much to increase the Socialist vote in Haverhill and Lynn as Nelson Morris is in Chicago? When the Massachusetts Senator got round to giving England a *tu-quoque*, he did it in the finest style of the chauvinistic art. The only difference between the English and ourselves, affirmed Senator Lodge, is that we wash our dirty linen on the housetops, and shout to everybody to observe the process, while the English drop theirs quietly into some convenient coal-hole. But that is a slight oratorical exaggeration. No one need assert that human nature is better in England than in this country; sensible Englishmen would be the last to say so. But they do think they have better laws than we against such conscienceless promoters as Whitaker Wright, and that they enforce them better. In Government scandals, too, they are as relentless as we in coming down hard on the guilty, but less sensational. Yet there is no telling how long this superiority in method may continue. The English press is rapidly developing a forty-hysteric power, comparable to our own, and the rest may come any day.

President Roosevelt has resolved to bring sweeping criminal prosecutions against the Standard Oil Company. There has been a vast amount of unofficial evidence against it; the Commissioner of Corporations has officially charged it with violating the statutes of the United States; the Interstate Commerce Commission has drawn out testimony appearing to inculpate it. Now let us have the case tried out. Even the friends of the Standard, like Dr. MacArthur and Chancellor Day, who deplore reckless charges without legal process, must rejoice to see the machinery of the law set in motion. Mr. Moody indicates the legal weapons which the Government will employ. The Standard will be prosecuted under the Anti-Trust act, under the Elkins law against rebates, and under the general conspiracy laws of the United States. It was in the net of these last that Thomas and Taggart were caught in the rebate prosecutions at Kansas City, and sentenced to the penitentiary. The Elkins act against rebates abolished the penalty of imprisonment, but forgot to repeal that statute which makes it a prison offence to conspire to violate any law of the United States. So if it can be shown that Standard Oil officers not only took rebates, but conspired in order to force the railroads to give them, the penitentiary will yawn before them.

President Roosevelt is quite right in pointing out to the appealing Hebrews the difficulty of making any official representations to Russia in the matter of the massacre of Jews. It is a process scarcely known to diplomacy. We should certainly resent it if Russia asked us to put a stop to lynchings; and, distracted though she now is, it is probable that Mr. Roosevelt is right in thinking that she would take any official remonstrances from us very ill, and that he could not "accomplish anything but harm by interference." Unfortunately for his argument, however, he did interfere under similar circumstances in 1903. It is his own fault if Hebrews are now recalling that a Presidential election was then pending.

In his annual message to Congress, President Roosevelt renewed his recommendation that the "regulation" of insurance be undertaken by the Federal Government. It was an interest "clearly national in character"; it had "outgrown the possibility of adequate State supervision"; and it was high time that the United States should "follow the policy of other nations" and undertake "adequate national supervision" of the insurance business. True, there were some who had doubts about the Constitutional power of Congress to legislate in the premises, and hence the President hoped that Congress would "carefully consider" that aspect of the matter. Congress has done so. Some months ago, the Judiciary Committee of the House reported unanimously that there was no warrant in the Constitution for what the President proposed. On Monday the Senate Committee on the Judiciary reported through Senator Spooner their unanimous opinion "that the Congress is without authority under the Constitution to supervise and regulate the business of marine, fire, and life insurance except in the District of Columbia, the

Territories, and the insular possessions of the United States." This seems to leave Senator Dryden of the Prudential as the only one to agree with Mr. Roosevelt's law.

In contrast to the general fusion spirit in Pennsylvania this year, backers of a new labor party in that State announce that they will never combine with the Republicans, Democrats, or Socialists. At the same time that State Treasurer Berry announces his definite withdrawal from the race for the Democratic nomination for Governor, leaving the way clear, barring accidents, for that party's endorsement of Emery, the choice of the "Lincoln Republicans," the laborites are to tread a lonely path. "Nobody looks out for the interests of labor," say the textile workers of the State who are most active in promoting the labor ticket. They cite the defeat of the fifty-five-hours-a-week bill in the last Legislature as proof. So far as they have gone, these new party agitators seem to have avoided the hysteria usually associated with such movements. They disclaim any other intention than to put men of their class, who know their needs, into the State Legislature. According to their plan, "labor leaders" and union officials will be kept out of the convention, and will not be nominated for office. How this desirable result is to be obtained is not explained, nor is it clearly shown how the new organization means to keep distinct from the Socialist party.

The committee authorized by the Massachusetts Legislature this year, and appointed by Gov. Guild, to study the insurance laws of the State and recommend modifications, has made its report. It was instructed especially to find out how Massachusetts might be benefited by the adoption or rejection of any of the provisions of the Armstrong report in New York, or of the measures recommended by the Chicago conference of governors, attorney-generals, and insurance commissioners. A number of changes in the State law are suggested, including a general act to govern the formation of new companies; the Wisconsin provision for requiring a yearly gain and loss exhibit; the prohibition of officers and directors from being pecuniarily interested in a company's financial transactions; the appointment by the Governor of two State directors on the board of mutual companies, with a definite prohibition of deferred dividends. In a general way, the committee followed the New York committee's findings. It was consistent in recommending that all salaries above $5,000 a year be authorized by the boards of directors only, and that pensions and political assessments be cut off.

Where the Massachusetts committee failed to agree with the Armstrong report was in these recommendations: that no limitation of the amount of new business be imposed; that no restriction upon investments by the companies be enforced, except that no more than 10 per cent. of the capital of a company shall be invested in the stocks of any one corporation; and that no limitation of expenses be required, nor any restriction of expenses within the "loadings." It is proposed that punishment for rebating shall not be extended to the receiver of the rebate, that bonuses for new business be disallowed, and that the accounting be made uniform and be subjected to periodical examination by publicly licensed accountants. Favorable comment on the committee's report is general; the only regret seems to be that no way was found effectively to reduce the cost of life insurance. Meanwhile, the investigations of Canada's Insurance Commission are proceeding, as the Toronto *Sun* notes, without any special vigor or earnestness. Even at Ottawa, however, enough has been revealed to show the necessity for "a system of inspection that will inspect, and certain provision for the jailing of directors and presidents who falsify returns or use for personal ends funds committed to them in trust."

The lawyers of the Eighth Judicial District have set the rest of the State an example in the way of taking nominations for the bench out of politics. At Buffalo on Friday five hundred representatives of the various bar associations of the district met to choose the four men best fitted for the vacancies in the Supreme Court. The chairman made an admirable statement of the object of the gathering: "We are not here," he said, "to pull wires. We want the full expression of the majority of the bar on the best fitness of men for these offices. Freedom of the bench from all entanglements, political or otherwise, is what we desire." The result of the ballot was the choice of three Republicans and one Democrat. The managers of the two party machines will hardly dare to put up candidates against this ticket of the lawyers, for voters are now independent enough in New York State both to defeat the partisan and to punish the politicians who put him forward. It is too much to expect that before the election in November the lawyers in every judicial district will be able to throw off professional inertia, overcome the opposition of the bosses, and force non-partisan nominations. The thing should, however, be done in New York and Brooklyn, where the bar is strong and well organized.

Minnesota seizes the opportunity to remind California that in one respect, at least, the Pacific Coast State is behind the times. With the destruction of San Francisco's City Hall, were destroyed all records of titles in the city, and now owners are dependent upon the more or less incomplete records of the title-guarantee companies. The municipality itself will be at the mercy of these companies when a reduplication of the burned books is attempted. But it is pointed out in Minnesota that the Torrens registration system would have minimized the damage. As it works in the Northwest, a title becomes unassailable six months after the entry of the decree of title; after that a claimant must proceed against the State, which has guaranteed the title, rather than against the individual holder. Again, in case the official record is destroyed, a certified copy in the owner's possession is taken as conclusive proof of the matter contained in the original. California had a Torrens law, but it had been ignored; what seems to be needed now is what is urged in Minnesota—that registration be made compulsory rather than voluntary. As a first step, it has been suggested that all estates passing through the probate courts shall be registered under the law.

Houston now adds her testimony to that of Galveston to show that the so-called "Texas plan" of municipal government is worth careful study. What the five commissioners, in whose hands the conduct of the city's business was placed after the flood, have done in the Gulf city, a similar body is doing in Houston. The *Post* of that city notes enthusiastically some of the things accomplished since the old spoils system was abandoned: After a year in office, the commission paid off an old and annoying floating debt of $400,000 without issuing bonds; ample school facilities have been provided, for the first time in years; systematic street cleaning has been undertaken; "graft" in the purchase of city supplies has been cut off, and a worker who gets a dollar from the city earns it; it has been voted to purchase the waterworks for the city; a vigorous and systematic paving policy has been adopted; provision has been made for a gradual retirement of outstanding city bonds; and, with all these achievements, the tax rate has been reduced from $2 on a hundred to $1.90 on a hundred. Though the experiment is too new to justify all that optimistic Texans claim for it, it is hoped that in efficiency and honesty these governing commissions, already at work or provided for in Galveston, Houston, and Dallas, will not fall below the present high standard.

Even a boss of the old school has his moments of virtuous expansion. When San Francisco faced the problem of adjusting its material affairs after the fire,

it was judged necessary to convene the State Legislature in special session and secure an extension of the statute of limitations and certain other urgent measures. Accompanying the San Francisco delegation to Sacramento was Abe Ruef, the undisputed boss of the California metropolis and the power behind Mayor Schmitz. Here, it would seem, was the "grafter's" opportunity, for the Legislature was in the mood to grant whatever the city's representatives asked for. But, according to the Sacramento *Bee*, Ruef "used his pull with the Legislature in the interest of economy and dispatch." This was merely an extension of the boss's effective work as a member of the Citizens' Relief Committee of San Francisco, where his Mayor proved to be a man of liberal ideas and balanced energy. In speaking of the need for the extra session, Ruef took occasion to dispel some of the illusions that have grown up about him. Of course, he denied being in politics for profit; more credible was his explanation that he took up Schmitz "in the first instance, not for his sake, but because I wanted to beat somebody else. And," he added significantly, "I still have enemies to punish and friends to aid." It was a definite notice to the world that, while a boss can drop his club and labor for the community in a crisis, his life-work is not of such a philanthropic nature.

M. Clemenceau's address of June 19 in the Chamber puts him on record as an opportunist Republican of the late Waldeck-Rousseau's sort. His explicit condemnation of collectivism, made in rejoinder to M. Jaurès's plea for pure Socialism, shows that the Ministry no longer depends upon Socialistic support. It will welcome, but does not need it. No recent Government has been able to maintain so independent an attitude. The practical outcome of the Clemenceau policy, which must be regarded as that of the Cabinet, is not easy to forecast. It is one thing to profess friendliness to all manner of paternalistic legislation, and quite another to pass the requisite laws. Previous governments have been well content to let their most radical measures drag along from Parliament to Parliament, or even die between sessions. In almost every case the budgetary consideration stands in the way of the proposed reform. It seems probable, then, that the ruling Radicalism will pursue a Fabian course, and confine its law-making to the old-age pension bill, already promised, and to such measures as do not draw directly upon the Treasury. M. Doumer's bill for limiting Government contracts to firms that adopt the profit-sharing idea, is a sample of the more inexpensive avenues towards M. Clemenceau's vision of reconciled labor and capital.

It is evident that the Duma has no constitutional right to demand the resignation of the Ministry, but it is also clear that nothing worth while can be done in Russia without an understanding between Parliament and the Czar. By voting want of confidence in the Ministry, the representatives of the people have shown that Premier Goremykin is not the proper man to bring about the necessary *entente*. Meantime, the old power and the new are drifting further apart, and any remaining bond of loyalty is being strained to the breaking-point. At such a moment it is foolish to stand on punctilio. If only in the hope of stooping to conquer, Nicholas II. could well afford to dismiss the present Prime Minister and call one from the Constitutional Democrats, who constitute the Parliamentary majority. Some such striking demonstration of good will would go far towards insuring real co-operation between the Czar and the National Assembly he has called into being.

As bearing on the dearth of great leaders in Russia, Frédéric Loliée writes, in the *Revue Bleue*, of the weakness of the Russian press. In the year 1900 there were in the entire Empire only eighty-nine daily papers. Of these, twenty were published in St. Petersburg and Moscow. In forty-two departments no newspapers were printed. At the time when Alexander III. pursued his extreme policy of suppression, and banished many editors and university professors, Russia was deprived of certain organs of opinion, and of certain public men who might have been powerful in directing the revolution. By the law of October 17, 1905, the Russian press was temporarily emancipated, but the liberty was only momentary. Even after the assassination of Alexander II., when the press was obliged to exercise great prudence, political opinions were more freely expressed, affirms M. Loliée, than is now the case. While admiration of the Czar was required, and while the doubtful virtues of the Grand Dukes had to be celebrated, editors were left comparatively free to discuss matters of general political interest and of foreign diplomacy. The liberty of the press, so long as it is dependent on the will of the Minister of Interior, can scarcely be a reality. The hope of the progressive Russians is in the Duma. But freedom of speech and of action is of little value unless there be efficient leaders. The episode of Father Gapon's brief and tragic career has had a sinister effect. The revolutionary press needs not only freedom, but men.

With the crowning of the new King of Norway on Friday, there existed, for the first time in more than 500 years, three distinct Scandinavian monarchies. It might seem, then, as if the dream of a single strong Power as successor to three petty kingdoms had vanished. But those who know most about the peculiar relationship between the three kindred peoples are inclined to believe that the placing of Norway in complete equality with Sweden and Denmark really marks a step toward the union which has long been hoped for by the most foresighted men in the Scandinavian countries. The ill-feeling between Norwegians and Swedes has sometimes been said to be rooted in irreconcilable temperamental differences, but the men on either side of the Kölen Mountains know how to appreciate and befriend each other. The principal cause of the animosity between them in the past was the false position held by Norway up to the final severance of her ties with Sweden. By the total separation of Norway, a balance of power has been established that may breed trust and understanding where suspicion had held unreasoning sway. From now on, the outside forces tending to compel a federation of the Scandinavian countries should gradually increase their pressure, while the resistance to that idea from within may be expected to decrease steadily. And if, as some optimistic spirits hope, the inclusion of a liberated Finland ever becomes a possibility, then the establishment of a federation may certainly be looked for. The failure of King Oscar to send a representative to the crowning implies no ill-feeling on the part of Sweden, and can have caused no resentment in Norway. It is well understood on both sides of the Kölen that it would be impossible for the aged monarch to go further than he has gone in showing forbearance towards the nation that so brusquely took away one of his crowns. But his good wishes are known to be with the Norwegians and their new King, and friendly relations may be strengthened between the two peoples.

Port Arthur is not the only ice-free harbor which the Russians covet. There is another, Narvik, in Norway, the world's northernmost open harbor of considerable size, at which they have long cast envious glances. There are Swedes who fear that Norway, having become an independent kingdom, would be unable to repel an attempt on the part of Russia to conquer it by way of Narvik, and that Russia, having once gained a foothold on the peninsula, might bag Sweden, too. According, however, to Hugo Ganz, who recently visited this region, such fears are futile. The mountain roads from this harbor are, he declares, impregnable, being cut largely out of the sides of the precipitous rocks and only just wide enough for two wagons to pass; a single regiment, with a few guns, could defend such a pass for months.

VALEDICTION.

June 28, 1906.

The need of a prolonged rest after forty-one years of unrelaxed application in the service of the *Nation* constrains me, from the present date, to relinquish the editorial direction of this journal. With extreme reluctance, and with far profounder feelings, I take a grateful leave of my readers and of all my cherished and indispensable associates.

WENDELL PHILLIPS GARRISON.

LLEWELLYN PARK, ORANGE, N. J.

REMAINING CANAL DIFFICULTIES.

Thursday's unexpected action by the Senate in voting down the sea-level plan of canal at Panama clears away certain difficulties. The President will not now have to face the threatened awkwardness of having the two houses of Congress give him contradictory directions. He may exercise unhampered whatever powers he has under the Spooner act of 1902. His own announced preference being emphatically for a lock canal, it is probable that the sea-level project will now be put aside indefinitely. So far as Congress is concerned, it seems to have been disposed of by the speeches of Representative Burton in the House and Mr. Knox in the Senate. The strongest argument against it is on the score of navigation. Very strangely, in view of the fact that the canal was designed for shipping, almost no expert navigators have ever had anything to do with the various Commissions. The canal has been regarded as exclusively an engineering problem. So it is, in the matter of construction; but when the thing is done, the main question is how it will subserve the passing of vessels; and that consideration, in turn, ought powerfully to mould the plans of the engineers.

Of course, to the man in the street, who is perfectly ready to be the man in the canal and to settle all questions offhand, the idea of an uninterrupted passage through the Isthmus makes strong appeal. He pictures the stately ships gliding easily from ocean to ocean. Why hamper them by locks? In a burst of enthusiasm, our engaging friend Bunau-Varilla has put forth the notion of the "Straits of Panama," a sort of smaller English Channel where the big steamers might come and go with no lock to make them afraid. Such a strait might perhaps be made for a billion or two of dollars, but no one has seriously urged that. The favored sea-level canal has been a narrow cut from 150 to 300 feet wide, and with at least one tidal lock on the Pacific side. But one of the merits of Mr. Burton's effective speech was his conclusive argument against this plan. Leaving out entirely the questions of cost and time, which surely make for the lock canal, the case against the sea-level type might be rested wholly on reasoning drawn from the navigation of ships. It can be demonstrated that large steamers can be taken across the Isthmus with more speed, as well as more safety, through a lock canal, with its incidental lakes, than through a narrow cut at sea level. The cause lies in the danger of navigating a ship of great displacement in a constricted channel. Experience at Suez is ample and instructive on this point. And Mr. Burton drew also a strong argument from the records of shipping disasters in the St. Mary's River below the locks. He said:

> "Where have the accidents happened? In channels 300 feet wide or more, below the locks in St. Mary's River, where the current is not 2.64 miles, but 1 1-3 miles per hour, and at the St. Clair Flats Canal, where the current is 1¼ miles. In these channels, more than twice as wide as the prevailing width in the proposed sea-level canal, with maximum currents half the maximum there, there have been during the fifty years mentioned a long list of disasters arising from collisions, from grounding, and, perhaps worst of all, as the result of boats being driven athwart the channel. By these accidents shipping has been delayed many days, with the result that the damage to boats upon the Great Lakes has assumed very large proportions. If these boats, which until recently averaged less than 400 feet in length, may meet with such accidents in channels of greater width and in currents not so swift, what would be the probabilities in a canal where the specifications require provision for boats 800 feet long and of very much larger size? Thus, when we take into account the danger that has arisen from locks, they are far outweighed by the danger arising from the narrowness of the proposed sea-level channel, and the current that might be created in it."

President Roosevelt seems to believe that the practical determination of the type of canal removes the last obstacle. He gives the order "Cut loose" to Chairman Shonts. This is a substitute for the "Make the dirt fly" of 1904, which the charitable are expected to forget. The President will find, however, that difficulties remain. It is pretty clear, for example, that further legislation will be necessary. Mr. Roosevelt himself has expressed doubt whether the Act of 1902 yields him all the discretion required. It certainly does not in the matter of money. Section 5 authorized him to make contracts for constructing the canal, but the aggregate was "not to exceed $135,000,000." The lowest estimate is now $139,000,000, not including sanitation and terminals. Plainly, much more money will have to be voted, especially with the direction given the President to buy no supplies abroad. Furthermore, the Spooner Act prescribed that the locks should be large enough "for vessels of the largest tonnage and greatest draft now in use, and such as may be reasonably anticipated." That direction would not be carried out if the present plans for three locks in flight at Gatun is adhered to. Ships 800 feet long are already projected; the 900 or 1,000 foot steamer is expected in due time; and those locks would be too small for them.

Another aspect of the projected Gatun locks will be apt to make trouble. The feasibility of that structure is sharply challenged by many eminent engineers. Some of them maintain that the locks cannot be built at all, as planned; others contend that, even if possible, they would be exceedingly dangerous and very costly. These authorities may be wrong; but what contractors would be willing to risk millions in the face of such adverse expert opinion? Yet doing the work by contract is an essential part of the Administration's plan. We imagine it will find bids slow to appear, and that it will be compelled to sit down with the engineers, again and again (as did the French, of whose course we are giving a fine imitation), and revise the plans. Even the magic words "Cut loose" will not split the Isthmus as by a cataclysm.

THE YEAR OF FOOD LAWS.

That the packing-house disclosures and the new meat-inspection law should have come just when Congress had got to the point of passing the Pure-Food bill after a delay of seventeen years, was a mere accident, yet these two measures combine to give the year 1906 a distinction which may be even more lasting than that which it gains from railway regulation. The great result accomplished is that, from this time forward, some eighty millions of people will sit down to the table with considerably less disquietude. Methods in food production being what they are, there could be few changes more revolutionary than the requirement that things to be eaten by human beings—cattle foods have been safeguarded for a long time past—shall be sold for what they actually are.

"If we read instead of 'lying tongue,'" says Ruskin (referring to the phrase in Proverbs about "getting of treasures by a lying tongue"), "'lying label, title, pretence, or advertisement,' we shall more clearly perceive the bearing of the words on modern business. . . . Poisoning people of large estates was one [way of growing rich] employed largely in the Middle Ages; adulteration of food of people of small estates is one employed largely now." One of the incidents mentioned on Thursday last by Congressman Mann in his interesting speech on the pure-food problem illustrated admirably the ingenuity and resource, as well as the entire unscrupulousness, of the manufacturers of sophisticated food. A brand of flavored glucose was put on the market as pure honey, and in each bottle was placed a dead bee to give verisimilitude. To the mind of many a purchaser, no doubt, this industrious insect had toiled to fill the bottle, and, returning with the last load of sweetness, had succumbed on the rim of the bottle and been embalmed within its contents. This, by its ludicrousness and simplicity, makes more of an impression than the

equally dishonest work of the skilled chemists who have worked out all the manifold devices for making the counterfeit of something expensive out of something cheap. But the talk of outright "poisoning" finds small confirmation. Most adulterations are merely frauds, and the greater part of them are concerned with the odds and ends of the larder. In fact, in the vegetable portion of our national dietary much the same situation exists that has been revealed regarding the animal. It is not the meat sold over the butcher's block that is under just suspicion at present, but the sausage and canned "delicacies"; just so it is not our flour or sugar or other staples that are seriously tampered with, but canned goods, jam, catsup, and the like.

Both Congress and the food manufacturers have undergone more than one change of heart since this agitation began. Open opposition was never much of a factor. The "right" to use deceptive labels is not one for which impassioned oratory can be readily invoked. But the underground obstructive tactics of the makers of doctored whiskey, the promoters of the inhuman substitutions in the drug trade, the compounders of nostrums, as well as the food adulterators themselves, have been succeeded by a little greater degree of frankness. Faced as they now are with the necessity of selling goods at least approximately on their merits, they have made the beginning of a campaign of education. A maple-syrup manufacturer, testifying before the House committee, declared that actual sap "would not, in my judgment, supply more than 5 per cent. of the demand for syrup in the United States." It will soon be for the manufacturers to create a market for the other 95 per cent., which is wholesome enough and appetizingly flavored; but it will not be done at genuine maple-syrup prices. Some of the States, it may be added, have done excellent work under their own food laws, though they have been greatly hindered by the freedom with which goods from lax States could be shipped over their borders. Any one who has glanced over an ordinary grocer's stock knows that a considerable portion of it already bears labels which state the fact that glucose or preservatives have been used.

The feelings of Congress have unquestionably been hurt while this matter was pending. The Pure-Food bill was rarely regarded anywhere as a measure of the first importance until within the past year or so. Its repeated failures brought out but little general comment. But when its history began to be printed as a capital illustration of the Senate's treasons, stratagems, and spoils, that body began to take notice. It passed the Pure-Food bill this year with promptness and in a stringent form that nobody expected. Then the House dawdled over the bill until militant constituents began to send telegrams and name names. The Chicago scandals gave another stimulus. Thus, not only should the bill pass in an effective form as regards foods, drugs, and beverages, but the House has even been nerved to defiance of the proprietary medicine interests. It delivers a "deathblow" in the shape of a clause compelling the nostrum-makers to tell what harmful ingredients are in their wares, and shows its determination by preferring the more rather than the less stringent phraseology for this clause.

OFFSETTING CANADA'S LURES.

From Minnesota to Washington, the States on Canada's frontier have begun to discuss plans for nullifying the effects of the siren voices of Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan. The Republicans of Minnesota have nominated for Governor a man who has pledged himself to head a campaign of State developing and advertising. Newspaper advertising of the sort that California has used and Colorado is now essaying, is being recommended all along the border. Irrigation projects in the Northwest are graphically pictured and written about as if they were exactly what is required to forestall another famine in Egypt. Agricultural experiment stations are urged to explain that Minnesota wheat is the most profitable in the world, and that North Dakota live stock pays better than ranching near Calgary. "Seed-gospel" trains are made up by the railroads and the State universities, to show the farmers how to increase their yields. Everything that can be suggested to keep a man satisfied in his own country is being attempted. Still, Canada goes on calling Americans over the border, and the case is regarded as desperate.

Albert L. Cole, who is expected to lead the Republicans of Minnesota to victory this year on a "State-development" issue, points out what he conceives to be proof of the need of doing something at once. He says:

> "Unfortunately, we have fewer farmers in the State to-day than we had twelve months ago. The last census shows that there are fewer people, outside of the villages and cities, than there were ten years ago. In one of the northern counties of the State, fifty carloads of emigrant movables left the State this spring from a single station. From another small station fifteen families have gone, and from every county in the State save one, where I have made inquiries (and I have made the inquiry quite general), there is more rural population gone by far than has come. . . . Farmers worth $100,000, who have earned a life of ease, are now compelled to toil from morn till night, in order that their property shall operate as an asset instead of a liability. It is next to impossible to get desirable tenants or employ farm help at other than ruinous prices."

Mr. Cole regards it as lack of enterprise to permit a Canadian immigration bureau to exist in St. Paul while the State makes no effort to stop and hold the stream of people bound from Nebraska, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois, as well as from Minnesota itself. He declares that if the State authorities took the matter up, and if the Legislature made liberal appropriations for the work, many of the settlers in the Canadian West could be tolled back.

"Where," asks a writer in *Collier's Weekly*, after showing what an immense population the Yakima Valley in Washington can support, "are our Departments of the Interior and Agriculture, and the voice of our boasted American press, that a hundred thousand of our countrymen have accepted less desirable lands under a foreign flag?" The inference apparently is that we should supplement our irrigation service with a Government press bureau to offset the public appropriations made by the Dominion Government for attracting settlers to Alberta and Saskatchewan. When a single letter of inquiry will bring a paid agent of the Canadian Government to a farmer's door, with tales of fortunes to be quickly won across the border, what chance has the humble land agent in the United States to secure buyers and add to the glory of the republic and his own bank account?

This is a somewhat new ground of complaint. Not long ago we were plainly told that the good lands in the American West were rapidly passing into private ownership. "There are only a few choice farms left," ran the announcements, "and one who fails to take advantage of this splendid opportunity to obtain a Dakota (or Minnesota, or Montana, or Idaho, or Washington, or Oregon) farm will regret it all his life." This was all a mistake, it seems. In reality, "there is more good land lying open in the United States than can be made fruitful to the highest point in half a dozen centuries. The eonian silence of the desert has only been broken by a whisper." One explanation of the change of tune is that the American railroads have succeeded in disposing of practically all of their grants of land, while the Canadian roads are just getting theirs on the market. The smaller owners in this country cannot afford the advertising that was formerly done by the railroads.

"Twenty-five years ago," Mr. Cole of Minnesota recalls, "the Canadian Northwest had the same land laws it has to-day. Much of the land was as near the railroad stations as it is to-day, and prices were a great deal lower. But no settlers were going there." Of course now that the tide is flowing steadily into the provinces, it is alleged that "advertising has done it." But advertising does not suffice to hold settlers in an undesirable country. There must be something besides statistics and colored fold-

ers to keep a wide-awake Iowa farmer contented in Manitoba. This something, it may be inferred from reports that come across the border, includes vigorous, business-like provincial government, a low rate of taxation, a good school system, and, on the remoter borders, excellent protection for life and property. It was only a few weeks ago that the first successful train robbery was committed on Canadian soil. The contrast between American frontier conditions and Dominion administration is sharpest, of course, in Alaska. There, the miner who digs in Canadian soil is protected in his rights; the laws are definite, rigid, and are strictly enforced. The chaos that has prevailed on the American side in regard to mining laws has been a matter of scandal for years.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Cole will keep up his agitation for a greater and more populous Minnesota; that the Yakima will draw its four million settlers, and that Canadian enterprise will be imitated on this side. The homeseeker may not stop to consider, as he should, the value of American citizenship, but he will be really gratified to know that the great West can provide for him for centuries. We might suggest that the best advertisement of a State would be an exhibit of what the taxpaying citizen gets in return for his assessment.

THE LAND QUESTION IN RUSSIA.

From the first, the agrarian question has been one of the most formidable to come before the Duma; and the election last week of a grand commission of 99 members to study and report thereon, shows an intention to grapple with it. "Land and Liberty" has been the steady cry of the peasant Deputies. Amnesty was well in its place; the abrogation of class prerogatives, with the emancipation and making politically equal of all citizens and races, had the approval of the peasant members of the Duma; they were naturally, too, for universal suffrage; but what the 200 representatives of the muzhiks have been constantly asking is, how they could go home without carrying back word that something had been done to help settle the land question. About that, granting that the Duma is not dissolved and that the country is not plunged into the red fury of the Seine, the most competent observers agree that the greatest legislative battle will be fought.

Russia is still the most purely agricultural country in the world. Despite the somewhat forced introduction of manufacturing industries, farming remains the chief occupation, and the peasants constitute the enormous majority of the population. Rural depopulation is not yet a Russian problem. There has been no appeal, "Back to the land"; it has been, rather, in the peasants' mouths, "The land back to us." Their extreme demand to-day is that all the land be taken from the great landlords, the nobles, and apportioned among the muzhiks.

On this proposal, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu writes with authority in the *Journal des Débats*. He shows, in the first place, how backward is Russian agriculture, as a whole. The peasants in particular, whether as small proprietors or tillers of lots assigned to them by the Mir, are not awake to modern methods of farming; their system being routine and their production far smaller than the capacity of the land. This was precisely one of the questions studied by M. Witte's commission, before the war with Japan. Its report was published in 1902, and dwelt with especial emphasis upon the agricultural evils growing out of the communal holding of land. The uncertainty of tenure, the separation of fields, the lack of implements, the failure to plan crops for the future—these and other causes inherent in the system of the primitive Mir were offered in explanation of the miserable condition of the peasants. That commission recommended the abolition of the village-community holding of lands. M. Beaulieu adds his endorsement. Otherwise, he argues, there can be no real improvement of Russian agriculture; and he declares: "In placing all the soil, or nearly all of it, under exclusive peasant proprietorship, Russia would be doing the most retrogressive and anti-economic thing imaginable. She would be fixing the feebleness of her agricultural production and of her rural population."

Theorizing about results aside, there are immense practical difficulties in the way of any such repartition of the land. The St. Petersburg correspondent of the *Temps* takes up the question in a statistical way. If one were to admit the asserted "right to land," what would be the basis of division? Some say, vaguely, as much as each peasant needs. Others, as much as he can satisfactorily work. But in either case we have to discover what the ratio is between Russia's available farm-lands and the figures of population. Says the *Temps* correspondent: "Russian land is too prolific in men, and Russian agriculture too far behind the times, to permit the apparent productivity of the soil to equal the demands of the peasants." He goes on to show that if all the land owned by the Government were divided among the muzhiks, each one would have a holding smaller than the minimum described as necessary at the time of the emancipation of the serfs. Of course, the agrarians propose to go much further and take over the lands of the nobles, with or without remuneration.

One element in the Duma does, in fact, contend for forced expropriation. Another party admits that, if the land is taken away from its present owners, compensation should be made by the State. Various sums are mentioned as necessary. The estimate of Dr. Rappoport in the *Fortnightly* is $2,500,000,000. Where could Russia find anybody to lend her any such sum? The security proposed is a land tax; but it would almost seem, *ex hypothesi*, that the land could not endure such a tax. And it would surely diminish other revenues and sources of national wealth. Russian agricultural exports would pretty surely fall off, if the muzhiks became owners of all the soil. They could not hope for years to come to equal the results obtained by the great landlords, educated in modern agricultural methods.

With such apparently insurmountable obstacles in the way of any solution of the agrarian question that would be satisfactory to the peasants, and yet with the latter, as Professor Vinogradoff admits, determined on expropriation of all Russian land now privately owned, it is not strange that pessimism reigns in regard to the outcome. Excellent and sober authorities agree that it would take twenty years to settle the land question in Russia, even if the work were at once undertaken. But will the muzhik have patience?

A MONUMENT TO DUMAS FILS.

On June 13 literary Paris unveiled its statue of Dumas *fils*. It stands in the Place Malesherbes, where Dumas *père* already presides in bronze, and some day Gen. Dumas, of Revolutionary fame, will be installed to perpetuate a most remarkable family reunion. Even for a Parisian inauguration, the supply of oratory was profuse. Victorien Sardou, the president of the committee, and in a sense the inheritor of the younger Dumas's popularity, was followed by Paul Bourget and Paul Hervieu, residuary legatees in the novel and drama of the social criticism of the master. No such occasion would have been complete without Jules Claretie to speak for the "House of Molière." All these orators, and the prefects and ministers, whose names we spare the reader, agreed that the younger Dumas was primarily a militant moralist who had chosen to become a great dramatist.

There is nothing particularly novel in the notion of the author of the 'Lady of the Camelias' as a preacher. It was the iconoclastic nature of his moral pleading that gave his plays a kind of continued forensic success in France, and made them unquestionably the most-discussed and influential plays of an intellectual sort that our century has seen. That Dumas *fils* conceived himself to be a prophet of righteousness appears in certain personal reminiscences which Paul Bourget contributes to *Figaro*, wherein the great dramatist accepts the calling in

all simplicity. The dramatist who hasn't his public with him is wrong, he told Bourget, evidently with a scorn of the homilist who preaches to empty pews. The sturdiness of his thought appears in his judgments upon conscious artists. Of Flaubert he said: "He was a giant, who laid a forest low to make a box; the box is perfect, but surely has cost too dear." To that restless analyst, Bourget, he used to say: "You seem to me like a man who, when I ask the time, draws his watch and smashes it before me, to show me how the mainspring works." Maupassant, he believed, had been hopelessly perverted by Flaubert, and he often said: "Oh, if I had only had charge of that young man; he was worth so much"—*une pareille valeur!* The thought and the phrase were worthy of the creator of "the useful drama."

It is a commonplace of criticism that the rugged morality of our author was a natural reaction against the colossal bohemianism of Dumas *père*. It has possibly not been so clearly seen that the dry, logical, propagandist theatre of the younger Dumas is the true reaction to the vague Romanticism that immediately preceded it; the 'Lady of the Camelias' was written the year that Châteaubriand's 'Mémoires d'outre-tombe' was published. It is seldom that a literary demarcation is so palpable. One must insist that the counterpoise to romantic exuberance was primarily Dumas *fils*, if only to realize that Zola's experimental novel is, properly speaking, the culmination not of a literary movement, but of a personal aberration. The art of the younger Dumas—to use a word he would probably have repudiated—was eminently sane, trenchant, and analytical. A play was an argument against a social evil; a dramatic climax was an appeal to the jury of the universal conscience. There never was a literature less literary than his, more exasperatingly insistent in its attack upon the mind and heart. "One rages against the rascal," Sarcey once said, "but he captures you and masters you, and, whatever you say, you give in."

It is unfortunate that the non-Gallic world knows him chiefly through a single play, and that chiefly in an operatic and grossly sentimentalized version. The fault is probably in part his own, for the lesson of "Camille" seems infallibly to present itself in the guise of a rather sickly social compassion, just as the heroine herself has been the forerunner of the Zazas and the whole tribe of glorified demi-mondaines. Nothing could be farther from the temper of the man than the maunderings of his imitators; and the general failure to perceive his arraignment of a social order is a striking indication of popular incapacity for general ideas of any sort. It was the feeling that he addressed, if not deaf ears, at least misunderstanding heads, that shed profound melancholy about his leonine old age.

By a curious but characteristically Parisian denaturalization of a simple theme, the sculptor Saint-Marceaux has represented Dumas *fils* as a father-confessor to the frailer sort of women. He sits proudly on, not in, his confessional, while the fair figures of the frail ones float up to gain his ear. One is not surprised that the idea emanates from Sardou. To such shifts are driven those who would poetize the downright and insistent moralist for whom women's hearts were chiefly so many documents in the great indictment against an unjust social order.

It is precisely this denunciatory quality of the man that makes the non-French reader rebel a little at the work and doubt its permanent value. Scornful of the minor perfections of French style, the younger Dumas stands aside also from its great tradition. A generation from now there will be, we judge, few to read him for his manner; few, in fact, have ever done so. And it is probable that his matter will seem a little old-fashioned. Indeed, already the problems of the plays are those of a class of men about town, discredited if not obsolete. It is to be more than suspected that, with all its technical ability, his theatre belongs, at bottom, to the class of literature of which 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' is the consummate type. We do well to erect monuments to such writers, if only that posterity may not forget the great services of those whose literary works hardly live after them. But a hundred years from now one can hardly doubt that the three statues in the Place Malesherbes will seem to stand there by grace of that "prodigal father" who cared little enough about improving mankind, but a great deal about amusing them and himself.

CATALAN SOLIDARITY.

BARCELONA, SPAIN, May 26, 1906.

There has just taken place here a civic demonstration called the Homage of Catalan Solidarity, which the outside world may have lost sight of in the whirl of the wedding festivities at Madrid, but which none the less is of great significance for Spain's future development, possibly quite as great as the English marriage. It represents the culmination of a stage in the century-old conflict between the centralizing forces at Madrid and the individual instincts of the various nationalities bound together in the sheaf of races called the Spanish nation. It is the struggle of the Magyars in Austria-Hungary, of the Poles in Russia, and so its general import is easily understood; but to know the reason of this particular display of national spirit we must go back to its immediate causes in recent history.

Last November, the Catalanist and Republican parties, which, though a minority in the Cortes, divide between them nearly all the votes of the province of Barcelona, were fighting like cats and dogs. The Catalanists had gained a few seats in the city council of Barcelona, and, on the night of November 18, held a banquet to celebrate their victory. The diners left the table after midnight, and went through the streets singing "Els Segadors"; a few hotheads came to blows with some Republicans, and heads were broken on both sides. The matter might have ended there if a question of treason had not entered into it. It was reported, perhaps with truth, that shouts of "Hurrah for free Catalonia!" and "Down with Spain!" were uttered by some of the banqueters in the mêlée. That sufficed to bring the affair before the Cortes, and a hot debate resulted, in which the Castilian politicians exaggerated the facts and accused Catalonia of wishing to secede from Spain. On November 25, a body of army officers, very likely under secret pressure from the Government, entered and sacked the offices of two prominent Catalanist newspapers in Barcelona. The public safety was declared endangered by the prevailing unrest, and the Liberal ministry of Montero Rios had barely time to vote the "suspension of constitutional guarantees" in the province of Barcelona (Nov. 30) before it fell. The suspension of guarantees introduces a sort of half-military law; the police are permitted to enter houses without a search-warrant, public meetings cannot be held without the consent of the civil governor, etc.

In short, the episode was one of the kind which appear in American dailies as a two-line item: "Anarchy in Barcelona; Military Rule Proclaimed," and which we have come to regard as regularly recurrent in the history of Catalonia. But its consequences were far-reaching. Moret, the next premier, also of the Liberal party, turned his attention first of all to the "Catalan problem," and refused to revoke the suspension until he procured a law called the "law of jurisdictions," which provided that "crimes against the country and against the army" should be tried before military, not civil tribunals. This project, a step backward in the march of civilization, was made applicable to all Spain, but really it was special legislation aimed at Catalonia. It passed by a party vote after most strenuous opposition from all the Radical minorities, and after the Republican and Catalanist deputies had withdrawn in protest from the Chamber. The guarantees were restored in Barcelona the same day that the law was gazetted.

The contest over this bill had the effect of bringing together the parties previously at war in Catalonia. The Catalanists conceived the idea of paying an imposing tribute of thanks to the Senators and Deputies who had fought the measure in the Cortes. The idea was received with enthusiasm by the people and the other parties, and was carried into effect with entire success. Every one of the twenty-eight men invited expressed sympathy with the movement of regional liberty, though not all were able to attend in person. Geographically, they represented (besides Catalonia) Navarre, Léon, Asturias, the Basque Provinces, and Valencia; politically, almost every possible belief outside the centralists, from Russiñol, the hot young Catalanist, and Salmeron, the veteran leader of

the Republicans and ex-president of the short-lived republic of '73, to Vázquez Mella, the Carlist leader, and Nocedal, the ultramontane. The Government by its repressions has succeeded only in leaguing its opponents, and instead of dampening the national ardor of the Catalans, has raised it to an unknown pitch. The money for the celebration was raised partly by the sale of commemorative medals and stamps, but also by a truly popular subscription. The names and amounts were all published, and the majority of the items were of this nature: "A good Catalan stirred up over the jurisdictions business, 2 cents; a Castilian Catalanist, 2 cents; one who loves his mother, 2 cents; one who weeps for his oppressed mother, 2 cents; I, 1 cent, she, 1 cent, the boy, 1 cent, the girl, 1 cent, the baby, 1 cent; a girl who wants autonomy, 2 cents"—and so on, some serious, some facetious, but all in sympathy.

The festival of the Homage was held on Sunday, May 20, and was an imposing demonstration, gorgeous, yet restrained, "of truly Catalan serenity and dignity," as a daily paper put it. Some called it the most brilliant spectacle ever seen in Barcelona. The balconies all over the city were hung with gay cloths in the orthodox Spanish fashion, the electric cars were decorated with flags, everywhere the four red stripes on a yellow ground of Catalonia were in evidence and nowhere the national emblem of Spain. The magnificent boulevards of this city permitted, with very little interruption of traffic, the formation of a parade over a mile long and containing 150,000 men. Four hundred towns and cities were represented in the line, and two thousand banners, many of them miracles of embroidery, marked the places of as many societies—political, patriotic, choral—and of the trades.

The promoters had issued orders that no shouts of any kind should be given, lest an opportunity be offered mischief-makers to foment conflicts; and in impressive silence the immense throng of meridional men, federal republicans, unionist republicans, monarchists, Carlists, Catholics, and freethinkers, marched together under the Arch of Triumph in the Salón de San Juán, and filed before the statesmen who received their homage. There were no speeches. The day passed without any unfortunate incident, and Catalonia claims with reason that a people which can give proof of such unanimity and self-restraint, is quite capable of governing itself.

Just what does "Catalan Solidarity" mean? Evidently it may mean different things to the different parties concerned; but the common feeling which brought together so many divergent opinions was love for Catalonia the nationality; the feeling that a distinct race, with its own language, traditions, and literature, should not be held in bondage to a highly centralized government. In immediate practice, it means that the Catalanists and Republicans, so recently at swords' points, have agreed to forget party differences for the moment, and aid each other at the polls whenever there is danger that a Government candidate may be elected; but in a larger sense it means that all Catalans, whatever their religious or political beliefs, will unite in an effort to restore to their country her autonomy.

The awakening of the national Catalan consciousness since its forced submergence in the larger entity of Spain has been slow. The idea has never really vanished since Catalonia became united by marriage with Castile; but since the disaster of 1714, when the *fueros* were abolished and Castilian officialdom invaded the land, the fact that Catalonia was once a separate nation, with its own traditions, its own rulers, and its own laws, had dropped slowly into the background. In 1859 the revival of the Floral Games gave an impulse to the cultivation of the native language, but the movement was confined entirely to literary folk. In the seventies a few students discussed the advantages of "provincialism"; in 1885 the term "regionalism" or "Catalanism" began to be used, and within the last ten years "nationalism" has been adopted as the most adequate word. The present attitude of mind toward Spain (or, better, toward Castile) is shown in this phrase from a 'History of Catalonia' ('Historia de Catalunya'), by N. Font y Sagué, intended as a text-book of national spirit: ". . . the shameful decadence into which we fell when Quixotism invaded us, and, usurping our government, imposed itself upon the common sense and practical spirit of the Catalans." And the last words of the book, in small capitals, incite its readers "to strive that all Catalans may know and love their only country, the Catalan Nationality."* The land inhabited by the Catalans is to return as nearly as possible to the political freedom which it had previous to its union with Castile in the palmy days of Jaume the Conqueror, of Pere the Great, and Pere of the Dagger, when the united kingdom of Aragon and Catalonia claimed sovereignty over Sardinia, Sicily, Calabria, and Athens.

Does this people aim, then, at actual secession from Spain? Madrid, to suit its purposes, has often affirmed it, but unjustly. One must admit that some of the Catalanists' acts and words have lent themselves to an unfavorable interpretation. Undoubtedly some over-excited persons have shouted "Muyra Espanya!" in public, and the famous national song "Els Segadors" (The Reapers) is not exactly conciliatory toward the central Government. No account of Catalanism would be complete without mention of that song, a real stirring folk-tune, with its minor cadences, abrupt changes of time, and telling refrains. It dates from 1640, when the Catalans rose against the impositions of Philip IV. In June of that year a great crowd of reapers were in Barcelona and began the rebellion; hence the name. The original words related the events of the ensuing war, which lasted twelve years, and ended in the conservation of the jealously guarded privileges; the modern words are adapted to present exigencies. Thus, the second verse runs:

> "Reapers, now the hour is come,
> Now's the hour to stand alert;
> So, against another June,
> Let us whet full well our blades.
>
> (Refrain):
> A good sickle-stroke, defenders of the soil,
> A good sickle-stroke."

This "bon cop de fals," to which the music imparts a vicious swing, certainly does not speak of love for Spain. There have been, and possibly still are, some real separatists, but they are a hopeless minority. Practically, all Catalanists realize that, although they have as good an ethnological right to separate existence as Portugal, the ties with the rest of Spain have now existed too long to permit of rupture. As Vázquez Mella puts it, "The greatest, perhaps the only, real separatist in Spain is the central Government." When the repressive measures cease, when Catalonia obtains the right to work out her own destiny within her regional limits, the Catalan will shout "Visca Espanya!" with the best.

For that matter, no one has a right to be ignorant of the professed aims of Catalanism. In 1892 an Assembly of the Unió Catalanista formulated the famous *Bases de Manresa*, to embody the ideal which was to be the goal of their efforts. Their desires were not a bit modest. Under the proposed autonomy, the central Government would have control only of international relations, of the army and navy, of the customs, of interregional affairs, including railroads, mails, telegraphs, and ports of general interest; the national budget would be raised, aside from customs revenue, on the fixed contribution system, each region to raise its quota by the method it deemed best. The region would have its own internal laws, its own Cortes, its own tribunals beyond which there could be no appeal—in short, complete control of its own affairs, including post-office and railways. All (even Government) employees should be Catalans; the *quinta*, or forced military service, would be replaced by volunteering, the region would coin its own money, and Catalan would be the official language even in communications to and from the central Government. In short, Catalonia desires independence of action greater than that possessed by any State of our Union.

Subsequent Assemblies of the Unió Catalanista have repeatedly affirmed that it would not abate a jot from the pretensions exposed in the *Bases de Manresa*. Nevertheless, from what I hear, I am inclined to think that many would be satisfied to recognize Castilian as the official language of Spain and to drop the coinage clause. The last Assembly (1904) seems to recognize the necessity of modifications when it declares that "the temporary Bases of these Assemblies are only the necessary transition from the present régime to the new one, while autonomous Catalonia is organizing itself; the concretion of the national thought, which the present movement cannot pretend to define, must be left to Catalonia when her own mistress." The language of these Assemblies, I may add, has always breathed a wholly admirable spirit of dignity, serenity, and consciousness of right.

Madrid has answered the frank statement of Catalonia's aspirations with a short-sighted policy of calumny, suspensions of guarantees and proclamations of military law. Probably the repugnance of the ministers to reform does not depend so much on real disbelief in its desirability as on purely political reasons, namely, the need of keeping in the good graces of the dynasty, and the prospective loss of 70,000

* The word *nacionalist* is used by the Catalan writers in the strict sense of a race of people bound together by common language, customs, and ideals, in contradistinction to a *nacio*, which is a political state. *Nacionalism* means the cult of *nacionalitat*.

Government offices which it now fills with appointees. An amusing incident in the Cortes last November exposed them neatly. A Catalan Deputy read from a newspaper paragraphs praising the municipal freedom of London, and declaring that peoples which arrive at full consciousness of their ability to govern themselves will not admit external tutelage. "Separatism!" shouted the Government benches, and protested vociferously. The orator turned on them: "Do you protest? Then protest against your own leader and premier, for what I have just read is an extract from a speech of Montero Rios, delivered a year ago." So wide is the gap between theory and practice.

In 1893, the Catalanists decided to enter party politics with their own candidates, whose success has gradually increased with the prosecution of a vigorous campaign of education. The loss of Spain's colonies helped the cause, because it seriously affected Catalonia's commerce and furnished final proof of the ineptitude of the Government. At present they have eight Deputies in the Cortes, barely enough to form an official minority. The movement of Catalan Solidarity has, however, so fired the spirits of the people that, with the aid of the Republicans and Carlists, the Catalanist leaders promise themselves at the next general election to make a big gap in the ranks of the old party Deputies from Catalonia. But it will be an uphill task; caciquism is deeply entrenched in the country districts, and, besides, there are serious dissensions, especially with the unionist Republicans, which threaten the new harmony consecrated on May 20. Yet all admit that a new Cortes in June, which now seems likely, would mean a loss of Government seats from this region.

An American cannot but sympathize with Catalonia. She is, with the Basque Provinces, the most energetic and enlightened part of the peninsula, and it irks her to be held back by the dead weight of illiterate Spain, as it would a skilled workman to be placed under an ignorant and malevolent boss. Her burdens are so intolerable that the wonder is she has not lost all spirit under them. Her judges, enforcing an alien code, do not know the language of the people; testimony must be given in Castilian, an immense handicap to the peasant; the civil governors of the provinces, even the mayor of Barcelona, are Castilians, always more or less hostile; half the city police of Barcelona are sent from Madrid, and many amusing stories are told of their attempts to find a criminal without knowing Catalan. And all this in a country whose native laws and instincts are absolutely opposed to centralization and uniformity, giving, on the contrary, the utmost latitude to towns and municipalities, and basing suffrage on a classification by heads of families and guilds.

The Catalan has been called an egotist, and in a way he is. So he obtains his autonomy, he cares very little whether the central government is a republic or a monarchy, Catholic or agnostic. Neither does he bother his head much about the other regions of Spain, whose condition is similar to his own. If he is glad to join hands with the Basque and Aragonese in a fight for the old *fueros*, it is to strengthen his own cause, not out of sympathy for theirs; if their racial conditions are such as to justify autonomy, let them struggle for it and he will help them, but they must first show as good reason for it as he has. This is the weak point in his scheme. Although the Basque Provinces are the only section of the peninsula whose case is really parallel to that of Catalonia (and they already possess fiscal autonomy), such a radical change as he desires to bring about leads logically to general regionalism or decentralization of Spain, and autonomy after the desire of the Catalanist could hardly be granted in one region without a movement all over Spain in that direction. It would undoubtedly be wiser for him to make his campaign more general, since success in it can come only from widespread education of the country, such as the Republican party is undertaking.

The Homage of Catalan Solidarity marked the highest point yet reached in the regional spirit, as it marked also a triumph of reason and moral right. There is no cause to doubt that Catalanism is destined to grow with every year, and that is why this Festival may well be more important than Alfonso's marriage. It remains to be seen whether the latter will liberalize the national policy. If it does not, the wedding represents merely a brief truce in the futile political warfare which will break out anew more fiercely than ever, before the tapestries are fairly removed from the balconies of Madrid; while the Homage at Barcelona represents an idea which will not down, and which may easily cause, not soon, but some time, a complete reconstruction of Spain's constitution.

S. Griswold Morley.

A VISIT TO ASSISI WITH PROFESSOR VENTURI.

Rome, May 24, 1906.

The Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Rome made a new departure at the beginning of the present academic year by admitting Italian Art of the Middle Ages and Renaissance to full standing as an independent discipline henceforth to be taught in the School. Their first act in this direction was the appointment of a Fellow in Mediæval and Renaissance Art, and later in the year it was announced that, beginning about the middle of February, Commendatore Adolfo Venturi, Professor of the History of Art in the University of Rome, would deliver a course of lectures, three times a week, on Italian painting in the fourteenth century. The experiment has proved a great success. It was found that about ten members of the School knew enough Italian to enable them to follow the course with profit, and their opinion may be sufficiently summed up in the assertion made to me by a well-known American classical scholar, that he had never listened to finer academic discourses. Venturi has not only an artistic insight at once critical and sympathetic, and a wide and accurate knowledge of the monuments of mediæval and modern art, but also, being thoroughly versed in hagiology and folk-lore, literature and history, has an intimate appreciation of the spiritual content of those ages in which the greatness of Italian art was consummated. As many readers of the *Nation* are aware, he is now engaged in writing his monumental 'Storia dell' Arte Italiana' (published by Ulrico Hoepli, Milan), of which the fourth large volume brings him only through the sculpture of the fourteenth century. His instruction, therefore, has all the force and freshness that belong to a teacher who is himself always learning.

For example, Commendatore Venturi has always maintained the theory (first advanced, I believe, by Crowe and Cavalcaselle) that Niccola Pisano was not a Pisan at all, but an Apulian. The contract for the pulpit of Siena, dated May 11, 1266, and still preserved in the *Archivio* of that city, gives his name in Latin as "Nicolaus Petri de Apulia." Milanesi, Symonds, and others, who still argued that he was a Tuscan, were obliged to explain the phrase *de Apulia* as referring not to him, but to his father, Pietro. However, the evidence from his works in favor of his Apulian origin was at least as strong as that from the document, since they show a remarkable affinity to relics of classical sculpture abounding in Apulia and the South, but of which there was practically nothing in Tuscany. Finally, when our studies were interrupted by Carnival Week, Venturi went to Siena, and, searching the archives, found a document of the same year as the above-mentioned contract, in which the sculptor is merely called "Nicolaus de Apulia."

Although most of Professor Venturi's lectures in the American School were on Giotto and his immediate followers, the other artists of that period, such as Cimabue, Arnolfo di Cambio, Pietro Cavallini, the Cosmati, and Duccio di Buoninsegna, did not fail to receive the notice due to their respective magnitudes. Without attempting anything like a detailed summary, I pause long enough to mention a few of our teacher's original departures. He is convinced that Giotto spent some of the years of his apprenticeship at Rome, because, in the decorative architectural details to be seen in his undoubtedly authentic works, the Cosmatesque style is frequently employed, being rendered with exceeding accuracy and skill. This intimate acquaintance with Cosmatesque he could have obtained at that time only in Rome; and since we have documentary evidence that Cimabue was called thither in the year 1272, it would be probable enough in itself that he took his promising pupil with him.

Venturi also had many things new and interesting to tell us about Arnolfo di Cambio. He assigns to this master the famous and much venerated image of St. Peter in the Vatican Basilica, which he considers a free copy in bronze of the marble statue of the same saint, formerly placed in the vestibule of the old Basilica, and now preserved in the Vatican crypt. In addition to the evidence from style, he points out that there is no mention of the bronze statue earlier than the fourteenth century, and also that the cross engraved on the key held in his uplifted hand is a detail never found until the end of the thirteenth century. He likewise gives to Arnolfo two figures of prophets in the spandrels of the arch at the entrance to the *Confessio* of the Sistine Chapel in Santa Maria Maggiore, and also the fragments of a *Presepio*, figures of St. Joseph and three Magi, now pre-

served in the ambulatory of the aforesaid *Confessio*. And whoever shall confront these pieces with the sculptures on Arnolfo's two *cibori* in San Paolo fuori le Mura and in Santa Cecilia at Rome will, I believe, be convinced that this attribution is correct. The two prophets in the spandrels of the arch of the Sistine Chapel are identical in conception, pose, and treatment with the figures similarly placed in the *ciborio* of Santa Cecilia; while the small statues of the ambulatory reveal the same power and dignity, together with an imperfect mastery of the upright human figure, as do the statues on the *ciborio* of San Paolo fuori le Mura.*

These lectures, in themselves so instructive and inspiring, had a consummation as delightful as could be imagined when Professor Venturi invited his American pupils to go with him and his class at the University on a visit to Assisi, there to study the frescoes of Giotto from life, as it were, since life is the element he had taught us to look for in the works of the mighty Florentine, *il sommo maestro*, as he is fond of calling him. Five of us were able to accept, making in all a party of about twenty-five, of which a goodly proportion were ladies. I take this opportunity of publicly acknowledging, on behalf of the American contingent, the courtesy of our Italian fellow-students, who with thoughtful kindness, though without appearance of effort, made us strangers feel that we were a part of themselves.

Professor Venturi's fifth volume, containing his chapters on Giotto, will soon be given to the public. But in the meantime, with his kind permission and assistance, I am enabled to give the readers of the *Nation* a foretaste of the rich feast therein to be provided. In the Lower Church, Venturi attributes the frescoes and decorations of the nave to a poor local master, whose work is the earliest of all. In regard to the paintings by Giotto and his school, both in the Upper and Lower Churches, he has conclusions to offer which, although they will not, of course, find universal acceptance, will certainly be received as the most authoritative utterances on this difficult and much-mooted subject, because they are based on scientific historical research, and on the most careful and penetrating investigation that has yet been given to the monuments of early Italian art. As he himself has remarked, the same thing has befallen the study of Giotto that we experience in a first visit to a strange country; at first all its inhabitants look alike, as if cast in the same mould. It is only by residence in the country and familiarity with the people that we begin to distinguish differences in physiognomy. Thus, many of the works of his pupils have been confused with those of the master himself. It is Professor Venturi's life-long knowledge of this beautiful land of Italian art that has enabled him to identify its personages with such convincing accuracy.

I first take up the allegorical pictures in the crossing over the high altar in the Lower Church, representing the marriage of St. Francis with Poverty, Chastity, Obedience, and St. Francis in Glory, and also the frescoes of the right transept, representing scenes from the life of Christ and three miracles of St. Francis. In all of these, which have been variously attributed to Giotto himself, to Giovanni di Milano, Taddeo Gaddi, Maso di Stefano, and to an unknown pupil of Giotto, Venturi sees the workmanship of two of Giotto's best and closest followers, but never the hand of the master himself, and there are certain outward and visible signs by which each of these pupils may be recognized.* The one is remarkable for his long figures, long and narrow heads, and for the clear tints in which he paints his faces. The nose he makes thin and somewhat aquiline, the eyes almond-shaped, with bright pupils, lips slightly closed and chins pointed. His hands have not the mobility and expressiveness that mark the authentic works of Giotto. As regards his inner quality, he is, as distinguished from his master, labored, hieratic and conventional. Although similar in style to Bernardo Daddi, he is not to be confused with him, and since he cannot be given a name, he may be denominated the *maestro oblungo*. The other pupil, who collaborated with the *maestro oblungo* in the Lower Church, painted the whole of the Chapel of St. Nicholas, and also worked with Giotto at Padua, was nearer his master by virtue of his direct expression and dramatic power. His outward distinguishing marks are his sombre tints, which he employs in a peculiar manner. That is, he generally uses a dark line to separate hair from forehead and beard from chin. His eyes shine out from dark sockets, and his lights and shadows are somewhat crudely rendered, with too little graduation and shading. This artist being likewise nameless, Venturi calls him the *maestro nerastro*.

Taking up first the frescoes of the right transept and applying these tests, we find that the first miracle of St. Francis, the resurrection of the child who had fallen from a window, is entirely the work of the *maestro oblungo*. The other two miracles, also dealing with the death and resurrection of a child, are by the two in collaboration. The fine crucifixion, on the other hand, is chiefly the work of the powerful and dramatic *nerastro;* only the figures of the Jews and soldiers, and also that of the last kneeling friar, bear the marks of the *maestro oblungo*. The scenes from the life of Christ in the barrel vaulting of the transept show unmistakably the same signs of the combined labor of these two worthy followers of Giotto—for there is good proof that they are not by Giotto himself. As compared and contrasted with the life of Christ as depicted by him in the Arena Chapel at Padua, they are imitations, and, in a sense, developments of the same theme. In the Nativity of Assisi the angels that descend in the act of devotion are measurably increased in number, as are also the followers of the kings in the Adoration of the Magi. Backgrounds are enlarged, houses, temples, and towers become more numerous and more magnificent. But with all this there is a distinct weakening in dramatic power. The veracious and direct genius of the master had rejected the superfluous and stale conventionalities of Byzantine art, going straight to nature for his forms. His pupils at Assisi, while borrowing his ideas and imitating his composition, both feared his simplicity and naturalism, and failed to apprehend his higher intellectual and ideal quality. In addition, therefore, to obscuring their themes with superfluous architectural details, they reintroduced Byzantine formalism of attitude, vesture, and expression, including such absurdities as the two infants in the Nativity, one held by the Virgin and the other by the midwives, and the palm tree that bows before Mary in the Flight into Egypt.

When we reach the four allegorical scenes over the high altar, the note of the cruder but more forceful *nerastro* almost entirely disappears. These celebrated paintings unquestionably reveal a fine perception on the part of their author of the mystical phase of the legend of St. Francis. But, as compared with Giotto's authentic works, they are cold, hieratic, and formal. Nevertheless, they are authentically Giottesque in their inspiration. In the four compartments of the vault in the Bardi Chapel in Santa Croce, the master had painted, simply and greatly according to his use, four solitary figures of Poverty, Chastity, Obedience, and St. Francis in Glory. The *maestro oblungo*, as he had done before, borrowed the themes, externally amplified their treatment, and diluted their spiritual content.

The Cappella della Maddalena was traditionally ascribed to Buffalmacco, but modern criticism has always shown a decided tendency to give it to Giotto himself. Following this inclination, but leading it from vagueness into almost certainty, Venturi has reasserted Giotto's claim to this marvellous shrine, and believes, moreover, that it belongs to his greatest period—that is, to the end of the third decade of the fourteenth century. Some parts of it, to be sure, are obviously by a much inferior hand—for example, the whole of the Journey to Marseilles, and a considerable portion of the apparition of Jesus to the Magdalen. But let him who has eyes to see diligently consider the Raising of Lazarus. Agonized supplication in the kneeling women, emanation of divine power from the figure of Jesus, the answer of the startled human spirit to his call, the religious dread of the lookers-on—all will come home to him with the force of direct communication; direct communication from a sublime intelligence which was not unworthy to share with Dante the glory of that wonderful age.

I now take leave of the Lower Church with merely the remark in passing that, according to Venturi, Simone Martini's assistant in the Cappello di San Martino was not his brother-in-law Lippo Memmi, as generally stated, but his own brother Donato. In the Upper Church, Venturi does not depart from the usual opinion of critics that the sadly faded frescoes of both transepts and of the apse are in large part by Cimabue. But in the scenes of the upper nave from Old Testament history he sees no hint of Cimabue's school, but rather the grandiose Roman style of Pietro Cavallini. The four beautiful medallions in the ceiling, representing Christ, the Madonna, St. John the Baptist, and St. Francis, he gives to Jacopo Torriti, with how much justice any one will see who shall compare them with this master's mosaics in the apse of Santa Maria Maggiore. He

*For a full treatment of these and the other works of Arnolfo, see Venturi's 'Storia dell' Arte Italiana,' vol. iv., pp. 72 ff.

*See Venturi's article, "Le 'Vele' d'Assisi," in his journal, *L'Arte*, Fasc. I., 1906, pp. 19-34.

attributes to a pupil of Torriti the scenes from the life of Christ in the upper nave, and to a pupil of Cavallini the four Doctors of the Church in the triangular spaces of the groined ceiling.

The Giottesque frescoes representing the legend of St. Francis have long been the debating ground of critics. Their opinions have varied from that of the Baron von Rumohr, who holds that the only two scenes from Giotto's own hand are the Miracle of the Water and the Sermon to the Birds, to that of Mr. Berenson, who regards as genuine the first nineteen in order from St. Francis Honored by a Simpleton down to and including St. Francis Receiving the Stigmata, but ascribes the remaining nine to a pupil.* The first impression of a competent observer will, I believe, always be that of a general unity in conception and design pervading the entire series; and Venturi, in recognition of this impress of Giotto's manner, thinks that there is no one of the pictures that was not executed under his guidance and supervision. But he sees in only six of them the true form and pressure of the master's supreme and solitary greatness. These are the first of the series, St. Francis Honored by the Simpleton; the nineteenth, St. Francis Receiving the Stigmata, and the next four in succession, The Death of St. Francis, The Apparitions of St. Francis, The Incredulous Knight of Assisi, and The Mourning Nuns of San Damiano. The incommunicable quality possessed by this elect number can be felt only by the beholder who stands in their presence. Words are powerless, as Lessing has long since taught us, to express the qualities that properly belong to the provinces of painting and sculpture. I asked Professor Venturi if he could suggest any expressions by which I might convey to my readers some guiding principle that would enable them, either from recollection of the frescoes or while studying them in the future, to appreciate the justness of his attributions. His reply was a gesture of despair. Then, seizing pen and paper, he wrote: "The master who reaches depth, both in thought and perspective; the master who is dramatic; the master who rejects traditional formalism; the master of whom the final test is that he renders life and character—this master is always Giotto."

H. EDMISTON.

*Mr. Berenson, in his 'Florentine Painters of the Renaissance' (2d ed., p. 119), most strangely asserts that these frescoes are "entirely repainted." Venturi declares flatly that they are not repainted at all; moreover, that there is no repainting in the whole Basilica, with the exception of a very little in the Lower Church.

Notes.

From Mr. John P. Kennedy, State Librarian of Virginia, we have a bulky 'Calendar of Transcripts, including the Annual Report of the Department of Archives and History.' It covers the entire collection of MSS. in the State Library in bound form, and fills 100 pages with a calendar of the Journals of the Council of Virginia (1692-1850), House of Burgesses (1619-1776), Senate (1839-1861), House of Delegates (1776-1813), the Executive (1832-1901), Civil Establishment (1775-1862), Military, Naval, and County Records, etc., etc. Then follows in ample measure a check-list of the transcripts made from the original papers in the British Record Office, London, relating to Virginian colonial affairs—Sainsbury, Winder, De Jarnette, etc. The whole concludes with a check-list of Virginiana in other departments of the State and National Government, and with an index. It would be superfluous to dwell on the great utility of this key to the sources of Virginia's history. The laborious research reflects great credit on Mr. Edward Steptoe Evans, Assistant Librarian and Acting Chief of the Department of Archives and History.

The fires of scientific controversy are still burning hotly about the facts and theories of heredity and evolution; and, as usually happens in such cases, a large part of the material of the controversy has already been wholly consumed by the conflagration. The residue which has survived the ordeal necessarily rests upon so intensely technical a foundation that it would seem almost impossible to formulate a statement of the general principles of this department of biology and the basal facts upon which these principles rest, that would be of value to any but the thoroughly informed specialist. The preparation of a manual of theoretical biology for the general scientific public is really a far more difficult enterprise than in the days of Herbert Spencer's 'Principles of Biology,' when protoplasm could be regarded as a simple, homogeneous fluid. Prof. T. H. Montgomery, in his 'Analysis of Racial Descent in Animals' (Henry Holt & Co.), has attained a large measure of success in presenting the general problems of evolution as they appear to-day, with the necessary technicalities succinctly and, on the whole, clearly presented. The relations of animals to their environment, their differentiation, modes of reproduction and variation, the physical basis of heredity, the transmutation of species, and phylogeny are broadly treated, and in some cases, as in the discussion of the old problem of the inheritance of acquired characters, the essential points of both sides of the controversy are brought into harmonious adjustment.

Prof. W. J. Sollas of Oxford University has brought together, under the title of 'The Age of the Earth' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), ten short articles which, even if they do not all deal directly with the main question, serve to show that the earth is very old to have permitted the transformation of salt-water animals into fresh-water ones, and to have allowed the many geographical changes enumerated by the author. There is an interesting account of the attempt to prove by boring that the Funafuti coral reef was formed in accordance with Darwin's theory. Professor Sollas is content with a minimum estimate of the age of the habitable earth, but admits that the discovery of radioactive energy leaves the problem of the earth's real age practically in the hands of the geologist, to be worked out independently, or at least without undue attention to the maternal chiding of the solar physicist. The chapter on the figure of the earth is perhaps the most interesting in the book. That on the history of geology is naturally a rehearsal of the esteemed labors of British geologists. A key to terrestrial history is the old story of the use of fossils made more interesting in the light of modern studies of the migrations of past faunas. The work closes with an essay on geologies and deluges; in connection with the latter subject, the well-known hypothesis of Suess is retold.

The range of authors included in Frederick Lawton's little 'Anthology of French Poetry,' from Froissart to the twentieth century (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) is the best thing about the collection. The compiler acknowledges the limitation of length in his choice, but does not hint at retrenchment (not always indicated), which has been visited with a heavy and a chaste hand on "Le Roi d'Yvetot." Two is the ordinary allowance for each author; Béranger's other piece is "Les Marionettes." It would have been a service to reprint the little gem "Glycère," first brought to light by the future Mme. Guizot just a hundred years ago, and afterwards embalmed in a footnote by Sainte-Beuve in his first "Portrait" of the poet; not to be found, we think, in the larger collections. The schoolmasterly rap given Sainte-Beuve by De Musset in a short stanza reprobating his having let his prose lapse into a rhythmical couplet, would have usefully replaced either of the two rather monotonous selections from Musset here given. It would have had the historic and the human interest such as appertains to the three funereal poems in honor of Théophile Gautier grouped here at the end as representing Coppée, Prud'homme, and Heredia, Musset's *bite*, by the way, might have been exemplified by his "Sur une Morte." So far as we have observed, the French is very accurately printed.

Chili's former consul at Havre, now consul-general at New York, Sr. Adolfo Ortûzar, has renewed with a second volume his 'Le Chili de Nos Jours: Son Commerce, sa Production et ses Ressources,' which now, under Government subvention, will become an annual, vastly useful for those having trade or industrial relations with that country. It forms a large, generously-printed royal octavo of more than 600 pages, concluding with a map showing Chili's mineral resources. From Sr. Ortûzar's *coup d'œil* we select the items that the nitrate deposits till within a year supposed to exist in only one province, have been found in several others, thus guaranteeing the world's supply of this fertilizer for three centuries. Part of the revenue from nitrate exportation the President of the Republic proposes to use to create a fund for building workingmen's homes on easy payments to patrons of the savings-banks. The great Trans-Andean Railway is being vigorously pushed, and already the journey from Santiago to Buenos Ayres has been reduced to thirty-six hours. Another mountain railway, that to Antuco, will use electric propulsion for the first time in Chili, with the aid of river water-power. Finally, the Republic is committed to making its own iron and steel, again being the pioneer in South America. Great plants have been contracted for.

Thirteen years ago Valdés Vergara gave the nitrate deposits a lease of life for forty years at most, and this instability of the chief source of national revenue is contrasted to Chili's disadvantage by MM. A. B. Martinez and M. Lewandow-

ski in their well-wrought economic picture of 'L'Argentine au XXe Siècle' (Paris: Armand Colin). They have procured a retrospective introduction from ex-President Pellegrini, who prophesies Argentina's rise in 2000 A. D. to the present strength and prosperity of the United States. "Oh, fifty years will be enough, I am sure," was President Roosevelt's amiable concession on having this said to him by the same writer. The authors remark on France's holding aloof from investment in Argentina, being still, as they conjecture, under the spell of romantic ideas about savage conditions, such as the reading of Châteaubriand might engender for the North American continent—and probably does. This modest duodecimo work is a solid performance, perfectly objective, and under no obligations to the Government. Tables are sparsely used, and one may read with enjoyment the orderly chapters on Argentina viewed economically and from the point of agriculture, of commerce and industry, of finance. Maps of the railroad system and of the country as a whole are appended.

In 'Vita Moderna degli Italiani: Saggi di Angelo Mosso' (Milan: Fratelli Treves), the eminent physiologist of Turin discusses modern Italian life chiefly from an economic and industrial point of view. He devotes considerable space to the question of emigration, especially to the United States, and differs from most of his countrymen in his exceedingly optimistic conclusions concerning the effect of these movements upon the progress and prosperity of his native land. The author has studied this problem in both Italy and North America, and should, therefore, be well qualified to judge it. The number of Italians migrating to foreign countries has greatly increased during the last ten years, and now amounts to half a million annually, and this enormous outflow of population would be generally regarded as an immense economic loss. It must be remembered, however, that while the German emigrant severs his connection with his fatherland permanently and identifies himself wholly with his adopted country, thus contributing in no small degree to its industrial and intellectual development, the Italian, as a rule, remains in close relationship with his birthplace, to which he sends the surplus of his earnings either for investment or to aid his kinsmen. In most cases, if successful, he returns, often in middle life, bringing with him whatever wealth he possesses as well as the business capacities acquired in accumulating it. Thus, as our author maintains, the emigration of Italians contributes vastly more to the material welfare of Italy than to that of the countries to which they migrate, and should therefore be encouraged rather than restricted.

'Die Weltwirthschaft' is the title of a new year-book of commerce, edited by Dr. Ernst von Halle, of which the first volume, an international survey, has just been published by Teubner of Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The second volume will be devoted to Germany only, the third to all other countries. The whole work will comprise nearly 1,000 large octavo closely printed pages of encyclopædic information on the most recent happenings in the realm of trade, commerce, manufactures, banking, industrial legislation, and the like. It is made up of monographs by various experts and specialists, who describe briefly the salient events and features of the year 1905 in such matters as commercial law, railroads and telegraphs, insurance, finance, and the money market, agriculture, technical progress, tariffs, poor laws, and other related topics. The variety of subjects touched upon may be inferred from the mention of such items as the dirigible balloon, the submarine boat, our new international copyright law of March 3, 1905, modern art furniture, steam turbines, etc., etc.

Forty years' continuance of a college periodical conducted by undergraduates is a fact out of the common, but this has just been commemorated by the *Harvard Advocate* at a banquet, and the story of this journal is capably reviewed in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June. The editorial boards have turned out a remarkable number of belles-lettres men, especially verse-writers, to say nothing of scholars and critics. In proof of this, by the way, there is published every ten years a collection of 'Verses from the *Harvard Advocate*,' and we have actually before us the third series (Cambridge: The Advocate). For the rest the Medical School is the prominent feature of the present number of the *Magazine*, and its imposing new palaces are photographically shown in connection with the descriptive and retrospective text. The new methods of admission already announced in our columns are the subject of another noteworthy article; and for finis one has the Sanskrit of Professor Lanman's poem on finishing Whitney's translation of the Atharva-Veda Samhita—the English preceding on the recto of the same leaf.

Goode's formula: "An efficient educational museum may be described as a collection of descriptive labels, each illustrated by a well-selected specimen," is the subject of critical comment by two writers in the April number of *Museumskunde*. Mr. Benjamin Ives Gilman of the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston objects to its being used at all in connection with art museums, on the ground that these do not exhibit *specimens*, but *unica*. Mr. E. Ernest Lowe of the Museum and Art Gallery of Plymouth, England, in an article entitled "The Inductive Method of Installation," opposes Dr. Goode's dictum on the broader ground "that, after all, *specimens* are the primary object in a museum, and not labels." Dr. Goode's formula comes, of course, very near being paradoxical; it should be remembered that he meant by this statement to express the thoughts that "the people's museum should be much more than a house full of specimens in glass cases. It should be a house full of ideas, arranged with the strictest attention to system." So understood, with due remembrance, also, of the fact that he speaks of *educational* museums, it would seem to contain a very important truth which might well be borne in mind even in art museums. Mr. Lowe's article has its independent interest, aside from the above-mentioned criticism, in describing his method of installation and labelling, resulting in "the exhibition of carefully selected and carefully labelled specimens, followed by a summary label in which a general conclusion is drawn from the information which has preceded it." The series may not be complete, but to this the author sees no objection, as long as nothing but what is actually shown is mentioned in the labels; if the whole is planned according to a carefully-considered scheme, the gaps will in time be filled out.

The latest issue (No. 57) of the Harvard University Bibliographical Contributions deserves wide advertisement and circulation. It is a catalogue of the Molière Collection in the University Library, chiefly derived from that of the late Prof. Ferdinand Bôcher, and has been prepared with infinite pains by Thomas Franklin Currier and Ernest Lewis Gay. From this appears the wide influence of Molière upon the world's dramatic boards, and a remarkable appendix records the English imitations and translations of his plays. Another deals with Molière's portraits. Another is a most serviceable key to the collective editions, by the aid of which any play may be instantly traced to the volume which contains it. The most striking analytic service is rendered in connection with the ten volumes of *Le Moliériste*, whose contents are alphabetically listed.

The rainfall of the monsoon region of Asia is the subject of the leading article in the *Annales de Géographie* for May, the object being mainly to show the effect, not of the *amount* of precipitation, but of its duration, upon the physical and economic life of a country. The whole region, accordingly, is divided into four zones, the first being that in which the rain falls during more than eight months of the year, the others from five to eight, four, and three and less. The similarity of the vegetable life of these zones is shown by the fact that tea is cultivated in southern China, Japan, Annam, and Ceylon—four countries where the annual precipitation, though differing greatly in amount, is spread over the whole year. Prof. Cvijić of the University of Belgrade shows how the struggle for supremacy in Macedonia between the different Balkan nationalities renders the various ethnographic maps and statistics absolutely unreliable. As an illustration of his point he gives a table of statistics by different writers. The Servian says that there are 2,048,320 Serbs and 57,600 Bulgarians; the Bulgarian claims 1,184,036 Bulgarians and 700 Serbs; while a Greek gives 454,700 as the total number of both peoples.

The rainfall of Africa is the principal subject of Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, number four. To a summary of the observations in different parts of the continent is added a colored map and a list of 368 stations with their average annual precipitation. The largest amount noted, over 10,000 mm., is on the Kamerun coast. The schedule of courses of lectures on geography to be given during the summer semester in thirty-eight German, Austrian, and Swiss universities is suggestive. The geography of the commerce of the world is naturally the leading subject at Leipzig, while at Danzig there is a course upon the German colonies as compared with those of other European countries, some phase of this subject being treated by many of the universities. Among the minor contents of this number are articles on recent volcanic

eruptions in Samoa and the geology of Sumatra.

Misled by similarity of binding as well as of contents, we last week classed among the Arthur H. Clark Co.'s "Early Western Travels" the inedited works, 'Fordham's Personal Narrative' and 'Audubon's Journal.' They are not reprints; but this really was made apparent in our notice.

—With the publication of Part 8, the Second Catalogue of the Library of the Peabody Institute (Baltimore, 1896-1905) stands completed. These volumes not only register the accessions made to the Library since the appearance of the previous parts, but include many references to older books which it was not possible to include in the earlier catalogue. The thirteen volumes constituting the whole work contain some 658,000 entries, and form a complete index or dictionary of the 168,000 books and pamphlets in the Library. This disproportionate ratio of entries per volume is due to a very extensive system of analytical references to parts of volumes, and it is this which constitutes the distinctive feature of the work and raises it from the level of a mere library catalogue to the rank of a valuable bibliographical tool. Distributed under their appropriate author and subject-headings are to be found thousands of entries for articles in periodicals, publications of American and foreign learned societies, Government publications, collections like those of the Abbé Migne and Muratori, the "Monumenta Germaniæ Historica," the various collections of French historical memoirs, and even entries for single chapters of important works of lesser extent.

—The Second Catalogue exhibits the distinctive features of the first, with improvements in typography and arrangement. Much greater attention has been paid to indexing scientific works, these having been to a great extent intentionally passed over in the earlier catalogue. There is, indeed, some question as to the wisdom of continuing the subject analysis of the English and American periodicals, considering that this work has now been done most comprehensively by so firmly established and so well-known a publication as 'Poole's Index,' and its continuations. On the other hand, the author-entries for articles in these same periodicals are useful, and are not contained in 'Poole.' The inclusion of references to articles in various foreign periodicals is especially welcome. A notable feature of the new catalogue consists in the long tables of contents of the works of famous Americans, as Washington (66 columns), Jefferson (65 columns), and Jay (16 columns). The alphabetical arrangement of the separate items of these tables makes them convenient to consult as indexes, and the distribution of the same items throughout the catalogue under the proper subject-headings cannot but be useful. The long arrays of entries under many of the headings will often be of value. Especial mention should be made of the author and title-index of plays under the word *Drama* (83 columns), containing references to the complete works of the dramatists and to well-known collections of plays, as "Bell's British Theatre." Also worthy of notice are the sections devoted to England, English, and Great Britain (in all nearly 300 columns), France and French (153 columns), United States (363 columns), and other countries. We remark further the seventeen columns devoted to Charles I. of England, containing a catalogue of a noteworthy pamphlet collection. One defect in the arrangement of the catalogue is the division into two or more parts of the alphabetical table of contents for such publications as the Reports of the U. S. Bureau of Ethnology. This is due to the practice of splitting up such series of reports into periods and entering each under the director of the Bureau for the period concerned, rather than placing all together under the name of the Bureau as heading. Considered as a library catalogue, the work well fulfils its acknowledged aim of answering the three questions: "What books are in the library? Does it contain a certain book? What books does it contain relating to a particular subject?"

—That students of comparative literature do not necessarily devote themselves to forgotten and insignificant texts is sufficiently shown by the writings of Prof. Arturo Farinelli of Innsbruck, who is perhaps the most eminent living investigator in that field. His two articles on the relations of Voltaire to Dante, published during the present year in the *Studien zur Vergleichenden Literaturgeschichte* at Berlin, may be taken as a model for the scholarly treatment of an important and interesting subject. These articles will ultimately form a part of a comprehensive work on Dante in France—a general subject of which various phases have already been treated by Farinelli himself, and by Oelsner, Dejob, Bouvy, Counson, and other writers. With abundant detail, Farinelli makes plain that the unfavorable opinion which Voltaire is known to have held of Dante was no whim, but a conviction founded on principles of literary criticism which were generally accepted in the eighteenth century. Voltaire explored all branches of human knowledge, but any investigation requiring time and patience was apt to discourage him, so that he rarely studied any subject deeply. Although he prided himself on his knowledge of Italian, and read Ariosto with ease, he found so many difficulties in the 'Divine Comedy' that he confined his attention to the "Inferno," and scarcely penetrated below the surface of that. Even his conscientious efforts to translate or summarize certain passages resulted in little better than a caricature. Moreover, far from revolutionary in his literary criticism, he rarely went against accepted judgments. Not only was Dante unknown in France, except by name, but all tradition was against studying works of the Middle Ages, or indeed any works which failed to conform to the classical rules of good taste. To pass from the eighteenth century to the fourteenth seemed like passing from light to darkness. Even in Italy, Dante was little understood. Thus, Voltaire's attitude is not in the least surprising, and he deserves credit for having devoted any attention at all to Dante. Certain episodes, particularly those of Francesca and Ugolino, he sincerely admired; and if the obscurity of many parts of the poem repelled him, at any rate he drew attention to Dante in France and in England, and thus paved the way for more intelligent study later.

—Even with the rise of Romanticism there came into France no profound appreciation of Dante. To be sure, the very qualities of the 'Divine Comedy' which had repelled the eighteenth century, aroused the enthusiasm of the Romantic writers; but Dante's influence, still exercised through separate episodes in the poem, was chiefly in the matter of poetic style and picturesque description. As a sequel to Farinelli's articles on Voltaire, one may turn with interest and profit to an article by A. Counson, "Dante et les Romantiques Français," which appeared in 1905 in the *Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France*, and to the same author's 'Dante en France,' announced for the present year. Counson treats in detail Dante's influence in France in the first half of the nineteenth century, and concludes that he was read and imitated rather with *grande amore* than with *lungo studio*.

—Two things will prevent Gerhart Hauptmann's latest play, "Und Pippa tanzt!" (Berlin: S. Fischer), from soon becoming very popular: the symbolic character of the story with its atmosphere of deep mysticism; and the dense Silesian dialect, besprinkled with Italian patois. The first, a periodical outburst of Hauptmann's dual nature, recalls his "Versunkene Glocke" and the weird world of elves; the second, from Hauptmann's early environment at Obersalzbrunn and his naturalistic tendencies, reminds us of "De Waber" and "Fuhrmann Henschell." And yet it is possible that in this new play, so carefully worked out in the smallest details, so vivid in its personalities, so free from repulsive content, so chaste, if not lofty, in poetic prose diction, and so stageable—as was shown in its delightful début at the Lessing Theater in Berlin—we have the best of Hauptmann's work since "The Sunken Bell." A glance at the action will show its dramatic strength. The manager of a glass-works in Silesia, a matter-of-fact business man, comes home on a stormy winter's night to find, not the gay revellers of aristocratic society, as in "Michael Kramer," but a company of glass-blowers, woodsmen and others, such as Hauptmann well knows how to describe, drinking and playing cards in the local tavern. Among them is Tagliazoni, an Italian glassmaking expert, who has a beautiful daughter Pippa, a dancing sunbeam from Venice, a ray from the glass-oven and the world of idealism, a fairy-like being, symbolic of all that is fair and enticing. Her father keeps her imprisoned until it suits his pleasure or greed to bring her out. Old Huhn, a former glass-blower and a rough specimen of the raw and brutal mingled with the good, strolls in, and his lusty companions call for a dance by him and Pippa. The suggestion inflames the manager, who offers Tagliazoni ten, twenty, fifty, and finally one hundred lire to produce the girl; and at the bid of "cento!" Tagliazoni calls Pippa downstairs. At midnight another guest arrives — young Michel Hellriegel, a typical, self-confident German *Handwerksbursche*, who, half frozen and starved, awakens the sympathy of the Italian maiden. Huhn, with his gorilla-arm, beckons the girl to dance; she disdains him, but yields to the clamors of the company and the notes of an okarina. Clumsy Huhn tries to follow her fantastic

footsteps. A fierce quarrel breaks out among the glass-blowers and Tagliazoni, whom they accuse of cheating at cards; he draws a knife, is chased out into the snow and killed. All save Huhn and Pippa follow the assassins; Huhn sees his chance and carries off the fainting girl to a storm-invaded hovel, and there he collects for her rags, wine, and crusts, and even brings in a goat to be milked.

—A stranger's voice, half challenge and half appeal, draws Huhn away; Hellriegel appears but fails to see Pippa, unconscious, in a corner. He pulls out the okarina which he bought at the tavern, and begins to play; Pippa rises to dance, thinking her father calls. Hellriegel, astounded, recognizes her but slowly as flesh and blood; she begs him to fly and save her, but he replies with astonishing indifference that he has magic with which to scale mountains and fly over valleys, and that with a toothpick, like a sword, he can slay Huhn or even dragons! Pippa learns from Hellriegel of her father's death, and realizes that in future she has no one to depend upon but Michel; and at the end of the second act they wander forth, arm in arm, to climb the mountain together in the cold night. The third act shows the glass-works manager in the snow-bound hut of Wann, a mountain seer or German savant of mediæval tendencies, to whom he confesses that he is seeking for Pippa. Wann claps three times and Pippa staggers in, crying that Hellriegel is dying of cold in the snow; and Wann and the manager, preceded by Pippa, hurry to the rescue. In the meantime Huhn finds his way to the hut, steps inside and hides behind the stove. Wann conducts his guests to rest, when Huhn struts forward defiantly; Wann peers at him wonderingly under his hand and then gives way to righteous wrath; the giants wrestle and Huhn falls. Pippa and Hellriegel reappear; the writhing glass-blower is held down, but humanely ministered to, and Wann absents himself, warning Pippa not to dance. Old Huhn's mind wanders and he begs the girl to dance; her heart is touched, and Hellriegel, fingering his okarina, advises her to yield; she dances and falls dead in Wann's arms! A moment later Huhn expires. Hellriegel plays on. Wann joins him in wedlock to Pippa, or rather the "shadow of Pippa"; and Hellriegel, blind, sets forth, not knowing that Pippa is dead, but thinking that she marches at his side. Of all who wish to possess and control the dancing sunbeam, the German Michel alone secures her, albeit in death!

THE HISTORIC PERSONALITY OF STUBBS.

Lectures on Early English History. By William Stubbs, D.D., formerly Bishop of Oxford, and Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. Edited by Arthur Hassall, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co. 1906.

We are now much better able to understand Stubbs's attitude towards the study and writing of history than we were at the time of his death, five years ago. For nearly a generation, every one who spoke of him at all lauded him as a paragon of impartiality, and few writers, if judged by their leading works, have better merited such praise. But we can now see also that his mind had a strong native warp which, save for compensating qualities, might have made him an historical pamphleteer. The additional information is contained in three volumes—the 'Letters' (edited last year by Mr. Hutton), the 'Lectures on European History,' and the 'Lectures on Early English History' which Mr. Hassall has just published. On a former occasion we discussed the 'Letters' in so far as they follow the development of Stubbs's career and illustrate the nature of his ecclesiastical predilections. But we found it impossible in a single article to touch upon these subjects and likewise upon the Bishop's character as a historian. To the latter theme we at length return, finding an excuse in the volume before us.

"The 'Lectures' are hardly less important than the 'Letters' for the assistance they give one in estimating the strength of Stubbs's primary impulses. If we judged from the 'Constitutional History' alone, we should conclude that his mind had a strongly judicial and objective cast, that he wrote his paragraphs slowly, and that, possessed though he might be of great learning, his personality would prove somewhat colorless. It cannot be asserted that every reader would derive these impressions from a perusal of Stubbs's masterpiece; but one who did, could furnish a plausible set of reasons for his belief. The facts, however, are utterly at variance with such a diagnosis. Stubbs was an avowed and vigorous Tory, he wrote very fast, and in point of character he was so pronounced as to scandalize weaker brethren among the clergy of his diocese, whether at Chester or Oxford.

The 'Letters' and the 'Lectures,' then, show a much freer sweep of expression than the 'Constitutional History,' and are an indispensable complement to it. Even if we are unwilling to style Stubbs, in the language of Mr. Hutton, "the greatest English historian since Gibbon," common consent places him high enough to justify a detailed study of everything he wrote. Confining attention for the moment to his Lectures, a contrast may be indicated between those which were published during his lifetime and the two volumes which have appeared posthumously. The Oxford lectures published by Stubbs himself are less restrained in style than the 'Constitutional History' and the introductions he wrote for the Rolls Series. They show at times his tone of banter, and, if carefully read, might modify to a considerable extent the impression left by his more formal works. But, having been put forth in a tone of apology, they received less attention than they deserved, and at the best do not reveal the method of teaching which he adopted during his tenure of the History chair. Some of the discourses published by Mr. Hassall would hardly have left Stubbs's own hand for the press in their present unrevised condition, but, as revealing his more spontaneous habits of thought, it is well to have them in their present form.

The 'Lectures on Early English History' were written before the days of Vinogradoff, Maitland, and Round. Occasional inaccuracies also crop up in their allusions to German, French, and Spanish history, as where Lothar of Supplinburg is set down for a mere weakling, and a mistaken view is accepted regarding the relation of the Visigothic conquerors of Spain towards the native population. It would be ridiculous to dwell upon slips which hardly do more than measure the advance of historical knowledge. At most points, even where not an original investigator, Stubbs was well abreast of contemporary information, and seldom made a really important statement without being able to tell where his facts came from. The list of *corrigenda* for these lectures does not concern us here, nor shall we outline the contents. The subjects are all drawn from the constitutional history of England during the Middle Ages; the method followed is broadly comparative. With this preface let us glance at the personal element which enters the volume in the train of pure erudition.

A few passages may first be cited for those who still see in Stubbs the ideal of a scientific, emasculated historian. Take, for instance, the concluding chapter entitled "The Beginnings of the Foreign Policy of England." The whole motive of the tract (we can hardly use any other name) is that England was essentially right in her long contest with France, while France was essentially wrong. As a rider to the foregoing proposition, much is made of the Anglo-German *entente* which existed for long periods together during the Middle Ages. As for France: "It may be true that, up to the time of the French Revolution, there can hardly be said to have been a French people; but such as that people has shown itself since it struggled into actual existence, such was the spirit of its rulers and leaders from time immemorial —aggressive, unscrupulous, false." As for the natural alliance of England and Germany: "We know how cheerfully our fathers endured the taxation by which the English and German races were enabled to destroy the fabric of power raised by the first Napoleon. Still, as of old, England and Germany, whether represented by Prussia or Austria, were found fighting the battles of freedom, and still successful. God send that we never see another such war; but if we do, may we find still the old allies on the same side, with the same good cause, and we need never fear for the same result." As for the main tradition of English foreign policy: "I have not proved that England has always been on the right side in all her foreign wars, but I have put before you facts into which, if you will search for yourselves, you will find, I think, that for the most part it has been so. I am sure you will find that in every European perturbation our country has been on the side of order and freedom." What need to break the moral law by exclaiming, "Our country right or wrong," when "in every European perturbation our country has been on the side of order and freedom"!

Were it necessary to cite further passages from the same lecture, we might place alongside of the foregoing quotations such a dictum as this: "The German and English alike are non-aggressive nations." But the whole discourse illustrates to perfection one side of Stubbs's mind and character. The French he disliked because they were revolutionists in both politics and

thought. France for him was the antipodes of the land he loved, the land

> "Where Freedom broadens slowly down
> From precedent to precedent."

He loathed the principles of Constituent Assembly and National Convention. He tried forcibly to prevent J. R. Green from reading Renan's 'Vie de Jésus.' Apropos of the Magenta campaign, he writes in one of his letters: "I cannot bear the French and their detestable Emperor, or the wretched Italians, either. I like the Austrians as Germans, and go in for Maria Theresa. As for the imperial family, their despotic and bigoted character comes in quite as much from the French house of Lorraine as from the Hapsburgs." But radicalism in forms far less pronounced than the French type excited his extreme antagonism. "I do not believe," he writes to Freeman, "that a Dissenter could write a History of England"; and to the same correspondent he observes: "I was in hope that experience of Swiss imposture would have opened your eyes to the evil of republican institutions." For most of the national movements which abounded in his generation he had no sympathy. "Do you go in for those horrid Poles?" he asked in 1863. "I think not, so I will not abuse them." And at the time of Garibaldi's celebrated visit to England (1864), his comment upon the incident runs: "I am not quite sure whether the sight of the creature has not rather damped the ardor of some of his admirers. His demeanor is described as theatrical and affected to the last degree; this may partly have been owing to his being tired to death. Great crowds of the working (*i. e.*, drunk and disorderly) classes attended him everywhere."

Many of the clergy could not understand Stubbs's love of chaff, and took everything he said *au grand sérieux*. In quoting forcible utterances from his letters, we must not forget that a letter is a privileged communication, or that a good deal of persiflage is mingled with his dogmatism. A lecture, however, is a more studied piece of composition than a letter, and the bits of dogmatism which it contains must be taken to represent the author's sober convictions. We could make up from the present volume and the 'Lectures on European History' a long list of pronouncements upon important and representative subjects which, while moderate in tone of statement, are not the utterances of a "scientific" historian. "Modern civilization is the work of Christianity, and has inherited nothing from ancient civilization except what Christianity has gathered up into itself and preserved." The last part of this statement is so extreme that we find difficulty in guessing why it should have been made. Brunetière spoke picturesquely when he termed the French Revolution the work of Plutarch, but surely the whole contact between the orators of 1792 and the classical past stands outside the range of Christian influence. A host of other examples from all fields of intellectual culture will occur to every reader who takes a comprehensive view of modern life.

It was one great merit of Stubbs as a historian that in his principal works he avoided the expression of what he must have felt to be mere personal opinion; or, rather, if he disclosed the nature of his opinions, he did so without endeavoring to convey the idea that they were irrefragable truth. A large proportion of those who write about the past think they are neglectful of their duty if they do not inveigh against the characters and institutions they dislike—conveying their disapprobation under the most oracular form. The same didactic tendency is even more often encountered under the guise of generalization. Here Stubbs was equally on his guard against temptation. No one believed more implicitly than he in Divine Providence, but God, according to his judgment, works through secondary agencies, the chief of which is the will of men. But, leaving theology aside, he felt that the differences disclosed by historical phenomena are far more profound than the resemblances, or, as he himself has said:

> "It is certain that greater and more minute knowledge reveals endless differences—leads to an impression rather of infinite diversity than of elemental unity; that although the eye of genius can descry the one in nature and the other in history, the admission must be made with two serious drawbacks: first, that it is not every student of history or one in a thousand who possesses the eye of genius; while generalization is a most tempting process to all minds, and thence in nine cases out of ten a generalization is founded rather on ignorance of the points in which the particulars differ than on any strong grasp of the one in which they agree. The more you know of any two persons or events, the less alike they seem; perfect knowledge is independent of, and even inconsistent with, any generalization at all."

This utterance enables us to see why Stubbs used in the 'Constitutional History' those marvellously careful phrases which, save for its learning, are the most striking feature of the work. How far impulse led him in the other direction we have shown by the quotation of downright sentences from his 'Lectures' and 'Letters.' Like other Yorkshiremen, he could be a hard hitter and loved such sport for itself. But any warp of mind which he possessed was corrected by an equally native sanity and breadth of spirit. He used to say that he became a historian because his father set him to decipher and translate charters when he was a boy at Ripon. Step by step throughout the long distance he travelled he never lost touch with the concrete. His favorite pastime, apart from the correction of proof-sheets, was genealogy. In the common-room of Exeter College a question was once asked him at random about the value of a mark in a particular reign, and he delighted the dons by giving the whole history of the coin, with side references to Germany. He amazed a fellow-traveller by reciting the biography of John Cattryck, Bishop of Exeter, when stumbling upon the name 'Catryk" in the floor of Santa Croce. Nor were his technical acquirements less remarkable in the eyes of Freeman and Liebermann. This fact has a distinct bearing upon what we have said regarding the freedom with which he expressed himself in his letters and minor writings. Two things, indeed, stand out from any minute study of Stubbs's works. Despite a marked fondness for antiquarian detail, his largeness of spirit kept him from becoming a pedant; despite the strength of his prepossessions, his reverence for fact prevented him from becoming a pamphleteer.

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC.

Contemporary France. By Gabriel Hanotaux. Translated from the French. With Portraits. Vol. II. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

This new volume of M. Hanotaux's carries on for just one year the story of that singular provisional period which lasted from the fall of the Second Empire till the establishment of the Third Republic—a year full of events so interesting in themselves and so important in their consequences that the fulness with which the period is described seems in no wise excessive. This year exactly covers the Ministry of the Duke de Broglie, formed after the fall of Thiers in May, 1873, and overthrown by a hostile vote of the legislative Chamber in May, 1874. It was a year of ceaseless negotiation and intrigue—negotiation to effect a fusion between the Legitimist and Orleanist parties; intrigue to keep the three or four monarchical parties together against the Republicans. The Assembly, elected to make peace and elected also under the impulse of a reaction against Bonapartism, was monarchist, though there was in it a very strong Republican minority. The majority, besides the broad division which cut it into three groups, Legitimists, Orleanists, and Bonapartists, was further weakened by the division of the large Legitimist group into several sections, some more, some less extreme. To keep these groups and sections united against the common Republican enemy was no easy task. But a still harder one was to make the only possible monarch consent to receive the crown of France upon the only conditions which could enable the majority of the Assembly to tender it to him.

These persistent efforts, first to persuade enough members of the Assembly to choose the Count de Chambord, "Henry the Fifth," as his partisans called him, to be King, and, secondly, to persuade the Count de Chambord to consent to reign with a constitution, *i. e.*, under a parliamentary system of two Chambers, one of which at least should be elective, fill the greater part of the present volume. The story is intensely interesting, and deserves to be perused even by those within whose personal recollection the events of 1873 lie. It is true that no one of the actors is a man of firstrate intellectual power. It is also true that the central figure, "Henry the Fifth" himself, is in a certain sense a fool, a man of narrow, fixed ideas, unable to see the world around him as it is, and ready to throw away not only his own chances of the throne, but all the results which the devoted loyalty of his adherents had secured, rather than relax the rigid attitude of vindictive antagonism to everything connected with the Revolution. Still, the conflict of moral principles, the triumph of a sense of duty, however perverted and unreasonable, over the strongest promptings of personal ambition, always produces a dramatic situation. Henry the Fifth making the great renunciation has a poetical value. He might, indeed, have been made the hero of a semi-tragic poem,

based (like the "Philoctetes" of Sophocles) on a moral struggle, had he been the least bit more of a heroic figure.

Alas, he was not a hero! He had not even that superficially chivalric air which made Charles Edward Stuart seem for some few months a sort of hero to his followers. After superhuman exertions, the monarchists of all shades had been brought to unite. The representative of the Orleanist line had made his submission to the legitimate head of the elder branch of the Bourbons. Thiers had been defeated, and Marshal MacMahon, a convinced and loyal Legitimist, installed as provisional head of the executive power. Envoys were dispatched to Frohsdorf, where the Count de Chambord mostly lived, to ascertain how far he would go to adapt himself to modern ideas and something that might be called constitutional government. At last, since his utterances were so vague and guarded that further enlightenment became necessary, an eminently respectable member of the Legitimist party, a bourgeois who had gained some reputation as a fluent speaker and more as a pious and honorable man, M. Chesnelong, proceeded, at the bidding of the Monarchist Committee of Nine, to visit the Count at Salzburg. "Henry the Fifth" consented to accept some kind of constitution, condescendingly declaring that he had never considered pure despotism to be the only alternative to a revolutionary republic. But he would not accept the tricolor flag. To him it was the symbol of the Revolution, associated with anarchy, impiety, and bloodshed, the flag that had waved round the scaffold on which Louis the Sixteenth perished. The most that M. Chesnelong could obtain from the Count was an ambiguous undertaking that he would settle the question of the flag with the Assembly when he returned to France as King. The perplexed and anxious envoy persuaded himself that this utterance left a door of escape, and gave the Committee and his other friends in France, when he returned, a somewhat more favorable version of the Count's declarations than the facts warranted. Then the Monarchists prepared their great *coup*. With infinite difficulty they secured, or believed themselves to have secured, a majority, small, indeed, but sufficient, for inviting "Henry the Fifth" to return to the throne of his ancestors. Then, just before the vote was to be taken, there appeared a letter from Henry the Fifth himself, addressed and sent to M. Chesnelong, but published simultaneously in the *Union* newspaper, the organ of the extreme Legitimists. It was drawn from him by the reports which, assiduously circulated in France by his friends, and sarcastically commented on by his enemies, represented him as having abandoned the lofty principles to which he had hitherto clung. To remove once for all these misconceptions, he declared in this letter that he would not accept any flag but the white flag of Henry the Fourth, "the flag of Arques and Ivry." The letter proceeded:

"My person is nothing, my principle is everything. When France is willing to understand this, she will see the end of her tribulations. I am the necessary pilot, the only one capable of bringing the ship into harbor, because I hold a mission and authority for that purpose. . . . France cannot perish, for Christ still loves His Franks, and when God has determined to save a people, He sees to it that the sceptre of justice may be entrusted only to those hands which are strong enough to bear it" (p. 257).

This letter was a bombshell. It scattered and routed the Legitimist party. As events have proved, it destroyed, possibly for ever, the chances of a monarchical restoration in France. All the monarchical groups, except the extreme high-Catholic Legitimists, refused to part with the tricolor. The army would have refused, Marshal MacMahon did refuse. Henry the Fourth won Paris by abjuring his Protestantism. Henry the Fifth lost a throne by insisting that a piece of cotton should have a certain color. Pius the Ninth was reported to have said, "And all this for a napkin."

However, Henry the Fifth did not fully know that he was, to use a phrase current at the time, "throwing a crown out of the window." He seems to have believed that the magic of his name, supported perhaps by the direct interposition of Providence, would still enable him to save France by becoming her King. Shortly after the fatal blow he had given his party, he went secretly to Versailles, where the Chamber was sitting, endeavored to see MacMahon, who would not grant an interview, tried to induce a few of his most devoted friends to make one more effort in his behalf. Recognizing that any such effort was foredoomed to failure, they refused. The chance never recurred; but if it had recurred, there is little reason to think that this obstinate will, supported by a mixture of duty and vanity, would have shown itself any more accommodating.

All this is told with unflagging spirit by M. Hanotaux. He has taken great pains to get at contemporary memoirs, letters, reminiscences, many of them still unpublished. He presents a vivid picture, a narrative full of life, of movement, of color. Especial diligence has been bestowed on the portraits of the leading figures, and some of these are executed with great skill and with a minutely elaborate care in which art has not been always sufficiently careful to conceal itself. Here is a character of the Duke de Broglie, who played so fateful a part in the evolution of the Republic, creating, *malgré lui*, after the attempt to reëstablish monarchy had failed, a system which he disliked and had sought to avert:

"Inheriting as he did the blood of the Neckars and of Madame de Staël, he was a born publicist, a Christian publicist. The practical direction of minds, the politics of religion, education, the moral tendencies and aspirations of peoples in themselves or between one another—such were the subjects that attracted him; he was neither a psychologist nor a philosopher, nor a sower of ideas; he was an inquirer into the inner forces of collectivities, a calculator of the emotions which shake the masses and determine the movements of souls. There was in him much conscientious correctness and knowledge, along with a sober imagination, limited and cool, which could neither give itself a free rein nor become gracious. . . . This dread of geniality rendered the demeanor of this 'honest man' icy" (p. 37).

Not less elaborately studied, down to the smallest refinements of phrase, are the portraits of Marshal MacMahon, of the Count de Chambord, of Léon Gambetta, the most interesting of all the prominent actors of that generation, and the one who came nearest to becoming a figure in European history:

"He was a powerful, broad, abounding personality, such as overflows spontaneously, and fertilizes by overflowing. He possessed in the highest degree the social and political aptitudes which come from the heart, the indescribable human sympathy to which nothing human is ever a stranger, the insinuating grace which means to please, convince, and dominate, in the end, by that sense of conscious authority which in itself is imposing and compels obedience. . . . Always in love with words, he recited [at the Café Procope] the Olynthiacs in Greek, the Catilinarians in Latin, or passages of Rabelais. His inexhaustible memory, his bottomless fund of spirits, his bewildering eloquence, might fatigue his audience, but never himself. . . . His real religion was the cult of the Fatherland, of the city" (p. 58).

M. Hanotaux, like a man of his time, like a reader and admirer of H. Taine, desires to connect political history with the history of letters, of art, of thought. He devotes the last two hundred pages of this volume to a survey of the economic condition of France after the war of 1870-71, and of the causes which enabled her to recover from that terrible blow. He then proceeds to describe the literature of the years 1870-1880, touching briefly on the more eminent names. He traces the movements of thought, not without reference to art and to science. To accomplish such a task adequately needs great philosophic penetration and a wide outlook over the contemporary world of all Europe, as well as a skilful and vivacious pen. M. Hanotaux, however, shines more by his pen than by his philosophy. We do not feel that he has got to the bottom of the questions he discusses. Even his characterizations of the writers of the time have more glitter of phrase than grasp of essentials. Sometimes he seems to be the victim of his own phrases, which are so ingeniously contrived to express *nuances* of view, or epigrammatic summarizations of opposite qualities, as to become almost meaningless. Not to every one is it given to be Tacitean, or to combine the terse force of the ancients with the decadent over-subtlety of the modern. Nevertheless, the book is most interesting—as interesting a piece of contemporary history as has appeared for many a year. It well deserves to find readers on this side of the water.

The Jews of South Carolina. By Barnett A. Elzass, M.D., LL.D., etc., Rabbi of K. K. Beth Elohim, Charleston. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1905. 8vo, pp. 352.

The author has since 1894 been the minister of the Beth Elohim, the oldest and only important Jewish congregation in Charleston. He was born in 1867 at Eydtkuhnen in East Prussia, pursued his rabbinical studies at London, and came to America in 1888. He availed himself of the public records at Charleston and Columbia, such as the Deed Books (or, as they call them there, "Records of Mesne Conveyances"); he has for colonial times scanned the news items and advertisements of the Charleston *Gazette*, and other newspaper files for later times, whichever of them contained names of Jewish sound; also, the Charleston directories away back to their earliest publication; and last, not least, the minute and account books of his congregation. His book is of the same order

as hundreds of local and genealogical histories written about "towns" and old families of New England, but appeals perhaps to a larger public, namely, to all the Jews of the United States, as Charleston, next to New York, has the most interesting Jewish antiquity.

The author has, in the columns of the *American Hebrew* of New York, had some sharp disputes with his townsman, Dr. Hühner, mainly as to ages and dates of arrival of some of his eighteenth-century heroes. South Carolina was the first colony in which the Jews were not only tolerated (in that respect Maryland, New York, and Rhode Island preceded), but in which, under the charter, they were, under the general head of "Protestants," *i. e.*, non-Papists, from the very beginning admitted to full citizenship; indeed, they were chosen, out of all proportion to their small number, to offices of trust and honor, both in the colony and in the State. The earliest mention of a Jew (unnamed) is for the year 1695; he was employed to translate a Spanish letter. The Jews then in America were all of the Sephardic or Spanish-Portuguese branch, coming over from Amsterdam, London, or the West Indies. In a footnote to page 27, the author, referring to Isaac de Paz, a "Charles Town" merchant in 1738, says: "There are many [of his] descendants in South Carolina. They are no longer identified with the Jewish faith." The same may be said of many of the other old families, not only in Charleston, but also in New York, Philadelphia, and Richmond. In short, his sons or grandsons, daughters or granddaughters, married Christian wives and husbands; thus the later descendants were swallowed up in the Gentile population. The causes are not far to seek. The Sephardic Jews were too few to find fit spouses among themselves; being in manners, education, and wealth equal to their Christian neighbors, they met among these no repugnance to intermarriage. Again, while, after 1750, many German and Polish families came into the colony, who willingly adopted the Sephardic ritual, the Spanish Jews treated them as equals only in the synagogue, not in social intercourse, because of their lower level of culture; when entering into wedlock, they would rather step out of their race and faith than down from their social level.

In 1800, our author says, Charleston, with one hundred families and five hundred souls, held the largest Jewish community in the United States, the whole Jewish population of the country hardly exceeding 2,500. Among the arrivals during the eighteenth century, perhaps the most interesting is Francis Salvador, a rich young man, whose grandfather had already obtained his armorial bearings from the two kings-at-arms of England, and who came over in 1773, bought a plantation in District Ninety-six, was in 1774 and again in 1775 chosen a deputy to the Revolutionary Provincial Congress, took part in the latter in framing a State Constitution, and on the second of August was killed at Oconee Creek in a battle between the South Carolina militia in which he bore command, and a force of Tories and Indians. Among later names of prominence we find that of Major M. M. Noah, who, when still a young man, removed to New York, where he became a well-known journalist, conspicuous for his plan to found a Jewish farming colony near Niagara Falls; Solomon Heydenfeldt, who went off to California and reached great prominence on the bench of its Supreme Court; and Uriah Levy, whose kinship to the well-known naval officer Uriah P. Levy is not set forth. Philip Phillips, for many years the busiest man at the Supreme Court bar; Lewis C. Levin, the Philadelphia Congressman at the head of the "Native American" party, and Dr. David C. De Leon, first Surgeon-General of the Confederate army, were also born and bred as Jews in Charleston.

The Jews of Charleston were the first in America, and, after Hamburg and Berlin, the first anywhere, to introduce striking reforms in public worship. In 1824, a part of the Beth Elohim congregation, being outvoted on a proposition to modernize the services, set themselves up as a body of "Reformed Israelites." For a while the body grew in numbers, but it collapsed in 1832, partly because they took the radical step of worshipping with bare heads, but mainly because they had no preacher, without whom a modern service is dead. They returned to the old synagogue, but in 1836 a new minister, Gustav Poznanski from Storchnest, Province of Posen, caused another split by insisting on organ music. This time the reformers prevailed; the conservatives formed a new congregation, Shearith Israel, which later on received new accessions, when Poznanski proposed and carried the abolition of the "second days of festival of the exile," which custom has added to the Scriptural days. The seceders unwisely sued for possession of the church property, taking the ground that the party in possession was violating the charter which bound the congregation Beth Elohim down to the "Sephardic ritual." The Supreme Court held that doctrines and rituals naturally change in the course of ages, and that courts of justice cannot step in to stop this development. The two congregations were at war for many years—a war which embittered all social relations between reformers and conservatives, and lasted till 1866, when the common poverty of both parties compelled peace, and all returned into the old "Beth Elohim" synagogue on a common platform. What this platform was, and how far the ritual was then or has since been reformed, the author fails to tell his readers.

The author touches briefly on the smaller communities at Georgetown, Camden, and Columbia, the first-named quite an early offshoot of Charleston; while the congregation at the State capital is rather modern. In referring to old customs, he is somewhat shamefaced. Thus, he refers to an item of outlay in an old account book for painting a Mikwah, and of wages paid to a Goy; but he only defines the former as something now almost obsolete, and the latter as something almost unintelligible to the present generation.

Falckner's Accurate Narrative of Pennsylvania. Translation and Introduction by Julius Friedrich Sachse, Litt.D. Philadelphia. 1905.

This volume, originally issued for the Pennsylvania German Society, is a reprint of a set of questions propounded in 1702 to Daniel Falckner by Pastor Augustus Hermann Francke, the head of the Pietist movement in Germany. Falckner had but recently returned from a stay of three years in Pennsylvania, and Francke desired to make use of the young man's intimate knowledge of the new land to assist in bringing about a general Pietist movement toward Penn's colony. In themselves, and considered apart from their historical surroundings, neither questions nor answers are of great social or historical interest. Falckner saw and reported nothing concerning the new land that others had not seen or reported before him. He is sufficiently enthusiastic to be sure of awakening interest in the scheme; sufficiently plain and direct to commend himself to the reason of people of very moderate culture; and sufficiently truthful to arouse no false hopes of easy golden gain. He indicates means of transport, dangers of transit from war, from thieves, and from drunken sailors; lists the necessary baggage, enumerates varieties of supplies; suggests schemes of investment and methods of development for those investments, and carefully pictures the natural and social features of the new colony. These details undoubtedly formed a trustworthy guide for some thousands of early Palatines, but they can lay claim to reveal little if anything that we have not learned from other sources.

And yet the volume has a potentiality out of all proportion to its matter. In a certain sense it made Pennsylvania, for its influence really began the German movement of the eighteenth century that in twenty years added 40,000 to the population of the colony. Of all the colonies Pennsylvania was, without doubt, the most widely advertised. From its inception, Penn and Furly had made diligent use of printer's ink. In 1681 the 'Account of the Province of Pennsylvania' was translated into German and Dutch by Furly, and this was soon followed by other and similar tracts, all of which were generously distributed throughout the Rhine valley, while Penn was making his first voyage in the *Welcome*. Six months before the settlement at Philadelphia, Jacob Telner and Dirck Sipman of Crefeld in Lower Palatinate had made a purchase of 15,000 acres covering the site of Germantown, and, a year after Penn's coming, the first band of Germans, from Krisheim and Crefeld, arrived under the guidance of Francis Daniel Prætorius. For nearly twenty years from this date, however, the tide of immigration was slow. There was needed a compelling influence on the other Continent.

That impulse came from the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685. Thousands of fugitives from France crowded over into the Rhine country, and economic conditions, hardly yet recovered from the stunting effect of the Thirty Years' War, rapidly became unbearable. The growth of the Pietist movement, too, was making deep lines of demarcation within the State Church, and intolerance was no less accentuated between factions than it had been in the days of the great church struggle between Catholic and Protestant. To this let us add the miseries brought on by the slow progress of the war that attempted to determine what grandson should sit on the throne of Spain, and we have gathered together at least three of the forces un-

der whose impulse the famous migration commenced.

In the meantime a few Germans were drifting into the colony. Of these, one group that accompanied Magister Kelpius to settle on the Wissahickon, in 1694, contained a young man, Daniel Falckner, then twenty-eight years of age. Three years later he returned to the Fatherland to report the condition of the Pietist movement in America, and on this occasion it was that Francke propounded his 73 questions. These, amplified to 103 in a second edition, were diligently circulated among the German principalities, and almost immediately the new *Völkerauswanderung* was begun. To Francke this migration meant the development of a Pietist colony in America. In the outcome it became a veritable stampede of people of all sorts. Pietism in the New World found itself as intolerant and as quarrelsome as it had been in Europe, and lines of separation were sharply drawn. Dunkard, Mennonite, Seventh Day Baptist, broke away from each other to found exclusive communities. But meanwhile the steady influx of those whose sole hope lay in finding a new home, surrounded all these exclusive communities with an inchoate multitude whose increasing inertia rapidly made the growth of the Pietist movement a mere notion. Many of the early Germans had been cultured men, and most of them had been inspired by ideals that would undoubtedly, if it had been possible to realize them, have made Pennsylvania one of the most progressive of all the colonies. But the great mass of the later comers were ignorant of everything save the willingness to do the hardest kind of work in solitude. They had no ideals, and they desired to know no community. To escape social organism, they attempted to bury themselves in the solitude of widely separated farms in the wilderness. They grew up to look out for themselves as though there were no community of interest beyond the farm and the village. Beneath this flood, that which Pietism might have done for the colony was submerged; and yet to-day we wonder how Pennsylvania can suffer so quietly under the tyranny of bossism. From the time of Franklin to that of Quay, the State has never known, or perhaps never wanted to know, anything but the lash.

The volume is handsomely made up, and it contains valuable reprints and portraits that must prove useful and necessary to the historian. Much praise cannot be given to the work of the translator, whose version is at times rugged and literal to the point of comicality. It is labors of love such as this, however, that blaze the way for the historian.

Courts and Procedure in England and in New Jersey. By Charles H. Hartshorne. Newark, N. J.: Soney & Sage. 1905.

As a rule, we look upon "New Jersey law" as good. Its judges have a secure tenure, its bar is well-trained, and its reported decisions have a high standing. Notwithstanding all this, it is the object of this little volume of Mr. Hartshorne's to show that its procedure is antiquated, cumbrous and expensive, and that by comparison with the reformed procedure of England under the Judicature Act of 1873, it does not conform to the demands of a civilized State. A great deal of what he says would apply to New York and many other American States, the inhabitants of which live in blissful ignorance that, since the code reforms of fifty years ago, American communities have fallen more and more behindhand in developing the true principles of a simple and inexpensive "adjective" law.

The principles of the English procedure of to-day are, first, the unification of jurisdiction, so that (excepting county and local courts) every judge and every division has the full powers of all the others; second, the unification of procedure (a single form of action); third, judicial control over procedure, as distinguished from statutory control; fourth, the complete settlement of the whole controversy in one proceeding; fifth, the right to bring in parties whenever necessary; sixth, the right to join, or disjoin, causes of action, as occasion may require. Of these the one which lies at the root of all the others is that of judicial control; the unification of procedure and of jurisdiction has been attempted in this country, but the ultimate control of the whole business has always been left with the Legislature. The consequence is that a code of procedure, like that of New York, once adopted, the Legislature is occupied year after year in adding to and changing it—many of the changes being little procedure "jobs" got up to serve the ends of particular litigants —till at the end of fifty years the litigation over procedure has swollen to such proportions as to threaten to swamp the whole administration of justice. The constant cry is now, "Give us more judges—the present courts cannot keep up with their business"—the fact being that the business is being steadily inflated by the multiplication of statutes, every word of which requires, or gives the opportunity for, litigation to determine its meaning. In New Jersey, where this evil is probably far less than in New York, there are 937 sections of acts dealing with procedure.

In New Jersey there are no less than nine courts having different jurisdictions, so that a mistake made by a suitor in selecting the court in which to sue may be, and often is, fatal (Mr. Hartshorne estimates at about 5 per cent. the number of failures or delays of justice from this or connected causes in chancery); there are many different kinds of action, and for the suitor who cannot discriminate correctly between them there is usually no salvation; there is a very limited judicial control over procedure, the whole system being at the mercy of the Legislature. Now this cumbrous system works, no doubt, better than from this statement would seem likely; but there are statistics as to the judicial machinery of New Jersey as compared with England which give startling point to Mr. Hartshorne's criticism. Assuming that the work is equally well done in the two jurisdictions—system for system—it takes forty-nine judges (local courts being excluded) to administer justice to 1,833,669 people in New Jersey, while in England justice is administered (local courts being again excluded) to 32,091,907 people by ninety-two judges. Under one system a single judge answers for 348,828 persons, under the other for 40,949. These facts might not be conclusive in themselves, but they certainly reinforce the argument derived from natural reason. We certainly speak within bounds when we say that much the same condition of things will be found, on examination, to exist within most other American States.

Mr. Hartshorne's volume is exceedingly valuable because it is an unsparing exposition of the essential difference between what is really our antiquated and still unreformed American procedure and a thoroughly good system, perfectly adapted to our courts and legal habits, and now in operation for a generation. We hear a great deal of the "Law's Delay," and for good reason. What any one can see from Mr. Hartshorne's pages is that the cure lies not in the multiplication of courts and judges, but in the adoption of the fundamental principles which have guided the English reform.

The History of Concord, Massachusetts. Vol. I.: Colonial Concord. By Alfred Sereno Hudson. Concord: The Erudite Press.

This work has been put forth in good faith by a man of simple parts who is immersed in his subject, and desirous of taking his readers into full confidence. The stout volume contains over five hundred pages, including a facsimile of a map of eastern Massachusetts, dated 1634, an intelligently contrived but not elaborate index, a synoptical list of chapters, and numerous and agreeable illustrations which relate in no way whatsoever to the immediate text, but are almost wholly concerned with the portraiture and topography of literary Concord of the past eighty years. There are many illiteracies and misspellings, the blame for which should fall less upon the author than upon his printing-office, which, by some unexplained irony, is called the "Erudite Press."

Faithful to the promise of the title-page, the text is closely confined to the colonial period; but the mode of presentation is extraordinary indeed to those accustomed to the prosaic methods of town and village historians. Mr. Hudson has tried to transport his readers and himself back two hundred years or more, as in a vision. In imagination we sit before the humble firesides of the first settlers; hear and join in their gossip, superstitions, and communings, social and religious; inspect their farm lands and homesteads, and mark well and remember their boundaries and their family histories. At the same moment we are supposed to be living in the present, and viewing these days through the customary haze of retrospect. It is asking a good deal of any one to fancy himself in two centuries at the same time, but Mr. Hudson's humor is insistent on this point, and he keeps up the illusion, which is, unfortunately, no illusion whatever, through half the volume, and then finds himself on the safe road of steady and progressive narrative.

Mr. Lowell, in his famous essay on "Witchcraft," pays a tribute to Mr. Upham's attempt to revivify the life of ancient Salem: "We are made partners in parish and village feuds, we share in the chimney-corner gossip. . . . To know the kind of life these people led, the kind of place they dwelt in, and the tenor of their thought, makes much real to us that was conjectural before." Something of this

sort Mr. Hudson, with an almost pathetic earnestness, has attempted; but the poor reader, not so familiar as the author with riding on Fancy's steed, is jolted from past to present, and back again, until he is fain to slip from the saddle. Not everybody can listen to quotations from Whittier, Lowell, and Wordsworth, cited in the first half of the seventeenth century in Concord village, without getting what in boyish slang is called a "jar." If Nature makes no jump, Mr. Hudson certainly does when he breaks his narrative short off on page 63, and, without a word of explanation, takes it up again on page 79.

Notwithstanding these violent requisitions on the imaginative faculty, there are gradually disclosed throughout this disordered pattern of phantasy many curious old customs and phrases, used with such entire familiarity that, were it not for the suspicions excited by various typographical inaccuracies, we might be persuaded of their fidelity to facts. Our learning does not permit us to challenge such words as "nokake," "quidonies," "typocias," "losets," "twifflers," and "Luthern" windows; but we cannot think that even the earliest of settlers advisedly said "one pence," or that "grooming cake" was used at the festivities following a childbirth, when the rest of the English-speaking world was eating groaning-cake. It is not the actual errors which prove most disturbing, but the sense of uncertainty created by such assertions as that "William Evarts" was Secretary of State in Grant's Cabinet. If incidents that have occurred within thirty years are wrongly stated, how shall we feel secure concerning the happenings of more than two centuries ago?

It would have been well for Mr. Hudson had he placed his store of information—and it is a large one—in the hands of some one competent in the joinery of books, who might have brought orderliness out of the inchoate, and fashioned a work more to the comprehension of ordinary men.

The Life of John Wesley. By Prof. C. T. Winchester. Macmillan Co. 1906.

So fair, calm, and lucid a biography as this can be read with full sympathy. It is the story of the founder of Methodism by a loyal disciple, and no less a portrayal of the man in his lights and shadows, his largeness and his limitations—all within 300 pages. "He was not a perfect man, and his followers then and since have perhaps often idealized him." He made mistakes, notably as to the American war. "On historical and scientific questions he was liable to be the prey of the last plausibly reasoned book he had read," "his deduction was much better than his induction." His credulity is here enlarged upon (pp. 279-281). He "had very little gift of humor," and that little was extremely dry and mostly satiric. He shared the sentimentalism of his age (pp. 284-5). "He was not raised up to write books," and most of his "are doubtless destined to oblivion," though the Journal "is immortal"; he "had not that union of imagination and passion and that special gift of phrase which make writing literature." (Mr. Winchester makes less than others of Wesley's poetic talent, and calls his translations "sometimes bald"; the word "Hymns" is not a caption in the index). "Something of his early asceticism survived all his days." At Oxford and in Savannah, though "certainly a Christian, and of a noble sort" (pp. 33, 53), he was an "uneasy, self-questioning mystic," his dominant motive the desire for assurance of his own salvation; but this ceased in 1738 with his "conversion," which is here (p. 58) regarded, with Professor James, as a "shifting of character to higher levels." In strange contrast with his usual knowledge (and command) of human nature were his ill-judged and ill-starred relations with Sophy Hopkey, 1737, and Grace Murray, 1748-9, and later his purely prudential marriage. Earlier accounts differ somewhat from Mr. Winchester's as to the two heart-affairs, and say much more about their painful effect on the lover's feelings and reputation.

Thus, in one of his finest hymns, indited on the voyage back to England:

"Is there a thing beneath the sun
That strives with Thee my heart to share?
Ah, tear it thence, and reign alone,
The Lord of every motion there."

The "thing," it is believed, was the girl in Georgia. The entanglement with Mrs. Murray not only drove him likewise to the muse for solace, but caused a scandal which threatened his influence, though soon forgotten and not mentioned in this volume.

Wesley's love of letters and logic, his "exaggerated passion for reasoning," his refinement and courtesy—above all, his conservative temper, "by native disposition the friend of order rather than of freedom"—seem doubtful tools for his peculiar task; but most of his traits marked him for it. "He was the most self-possessed of men. He had no moods, no unregulated impulses. He never let himself go. He was not the man to fling his inkstand at the devil. He never hurried, never worried; his life was a pattern of order and precision." Once he realized his mission, his iron will, his mastery of men, and his splendid organizing and executive ability, backed by his fearlessness and his immense power of labor and endurance, became the servants of an altruistic devotion that was an efficient substitute for fanaticism; for fanatic he was not. "Ambition, in any bad sense, he had none. It was not power he wanted, but influence and opportunity"; and to this end he sacrificed his tastes and inclinations as a gentleman, a scholar, and a churchman. A great work had to be done; nobody else could do it; so he became "Pope John," "absolute commander of the army." To push and maintain the cause, he used, not such means as he preferred, but such as facts permitted or required. He did things which his brother and chief helper abhorred: deploring separatism, he started the greatest schism of his time. Yet the lengths to which the reformer went are hardly more notable than the moderation of the man. He did not respect "the amorous style of praying and the luscious style of preaching" (p. 121). He little valued controversy, and left it mainly to his friends. Probably his sharpest reply to his foes is from his preface to the 'Arminian Magazine' (not cited by this biographer): "They have defended their dear Decrees with logic worthy of Bedlam and language worthy of Billingsgate"—which was quite true. The mild Charles Wesley, in his hymns, dealt the fiercest blows at hypercalvinism. John was in his way a liberal (for this see pp. 209-212). "The distinguishing marks of a Methodist," he wrote in 1742, "are not his opinions of any sort." If he put vital religion, as he understood it, above everything else, the secular mind may honor his visible and practical results, and the qualities in him which made these possible. Matthew Arnold's academic disregard for him as a second-class man will hardly stand: inferior men do not reform the morals of a nation. Professor Winchester finely says: "It is not the Wesleyan system, but Wesley, that calls for our admiration." When he asks, of all the great men of that age, "Whose motives were so pure, whose life was so unselfish, whose character was so spotless?" one may be content merely to substitute the comparative for the superlative. This writer has given us, in brief space, probably the clearest view of his hero.

Poetry and the Individual: An Analysis of the Imaginative Life in Relation to the Creative Spirit in Man and Nature. By Hartley Burr Alexander. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1906.

We have in Mr. Alexander's volume the courageous attempt of an idealist not merely to refute those matter-of-fact critics who cannot see that poetry has anything of importance to offer to an age which wants realities rather than the unsubstantial fictions of the imagination, but to carry the war right into the camp of the enemy, and show that it is the poet after all, and not the scientist, who holds the key to the fundamental realities of life. It would hardly take the "Ph.D. (Columbia)" of the title-page to identify in much of the author's thought the fruitage of the idealistic seed which Professor Woodberry has been scattering at Columbia during recent years. Indeed, Mr. Alexander hardly retains a sufficient degree of self-control when occasion comes to use the *ipsissima verba* of his oracle. "To quote from the 'New Defence of Poetry' partakes somewhat of the desecrative boldness that transplants a rare exotic or plucks the wild rose from its native prairie." But we must not do him an injustice. He writes as no slavish follower of any master, and the thoughts that have influenced him, from whatever source, have been fused in the crucible of his own intellectual processes.

The "psychical matrix" of poetry is *mood*, a mental attitude neither strictly intellectual nor emotional, but partaking of both, and adding to the combination a subtle tone and quality having its origin in the predispositions of the individual soul. This peculiar mood is a kind of *insight*, leading the poet not along the straight and well-paved paths of colorless intellectual truth, nor yet into the mire of mere personal bias, born of the emotions, but conducting him rather to a point of view from which are revealed the deep-lying secrets of character. It follows, then, that the expression of this mood, true poetry, represents an insight into our spiritual diatheses, into the nature of that which is most native and enduring in us, into reality more fundamental and inevitable than any other. Of course, the world at large will not drop the market reports for the anthologies on the strength of Mr. Alexander's argument for

this position. "After I've sent you to Hades for your trickery," cried Hegio to Tyndarus, in "The Captives," "I don't care what people call it. Just so you do actually die, they may say you're *alive*, for all I care." And if the man of mercantile mind gets the dollars, it does not worry him to be told that they are mere empty baubles, and that his poetic neighbor, with no bank account, has the only enduring fortune, after all.

The poetic insight in its most clarified state, our author holds, is essentially optimistic. The pessimistic poets, like Poe, are men of restricted creation, uttering but a partial message, however true it may be so far as it goes. And yet the widespread questioning of the worth of life cannot be disregarded. We must seek an explanation of it, and we find this in the reflection of an advanced state of culture upon the continually thwarted struggle, not for existence, but for an *ideal* existence. It is on Fifth Avenue, not on the lower East Side, that the worth of life is denied because it will not yield the things that are desired. And Nature, by injecting a suicidal element into this hypersensitive, pessimistic mood, eliminates it as it is evolved, and thus protects the race against the menace of its contagion. The massses do regard existence as worth while, and the man of culture, too, must be persuaded that it is worth while.

The conclusion is inevitable: the soul must occupy itself in this life with the quest for some ideal good, and this good must be attainable in sufficient degree to convince the seeker that his search has not been in vain. This good cannot be mere knowledge. All human experience testifies to the bitterness of the dregs beneath the deceitful surface of that cup. There remain three other types of possible good, the emotional, the religious, and the æsthetic, somewhat interwoven but essentially separable, none the less. The first is evanescent, without the objective orientation which alone could give it worth, forcing the searcher ever to fix his attention upon agencies which of themselves defeat the desired fruition, and thus ending in restlessness and dissatisfaction. As to religious good, the value of it, our author thinks, must lie in what it has to offer in the life here given. "It must be a terrestrially attainable worth; even religious faith itself, if that is supreme, must be valued for what it now is, not for what it promises." As for the more idealistic side of the moral and religious life, that can be separated and carried over into the third type, the *æsthetic* good, giving us in the apprehension of beauty, and especially through the poetic insight, a conception which is comprehensive enough to "supplement all insufficiencies, and gather into itself what elements of final adequacy have been attained" from any and all sources. But, after all, man's divining power has its limits. He feels his way out into the vast like some solitary sun trying to pierce a boundless gloom which no reach of its rays can ever fully sound; and if his mind surrenders to the conception of its comparative powerlessness, a hopeless pessimism is the result. The true attitude of the poetic soul, however, is that of unquenchable aspiration, not of cowardly surrender, It may be necessary to pass to spiritual beauty over a path of pain, but the eye must be kept upon the goal, not upon the infelicities of the route.

Such, in substance, are some of the conclusions to which Mr. Alexander's argument leads. Doubtless many will question the validity of his logical process at various points, and a still larger number will find it extremely difficult to read his pages with confident grasp of his meaning, for it is not the habit of the day to carry such discussions quite as far beneath the surface as he has presumed to go. We agree with him, however, in the conviction that "criticism, whether of art or of life, suffers less from the rigor of metaphysical searchings than from need of them." His book is plainly not for the multitude, but thoughtful students of the higher forms of literature and art in their relation to the inner life will do well to give it serious attention.

Historic Styles in Furniture. By Virginia Robie. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone; New York: Fox, Duffield & Co. 1905.

This small, square book, bound in boards, contains 190 pages of text, and nearly every page has an illustration, generally a half-tone. These are selected with considerable judgment, as representing the different styles discussed, and are drawn from very many sources, not commonly mentioned. The text undertakes to traverse a long historical sequence. It is divided into fourteen chapters, and the record begins with the earlier Middle Ages and ends with "Colonial Furniture," viz., of the colonies of America. It is evident that such a book, unless disfigured by very great misstatements, must be of use to persons beginning to interest themselves in this branch of decorative art. Mistakes, however, are discoverable, and some of them seem as if caused by a lack of knowledge of the actual pieces—by the drawing of all information about them from printed authorities which were, perhaps, not perfectly understood. The most surprising of these misstatements is in connection with that same Boulle work concerning which the author of the big and costly Windsor Castle book was found to have been so careful. The new treatise explains the patterns of tortoise-shell and metal as if the brass were pinned on, outside of the shell, or the shell outside of the brass—one or the other. The fact of its being an inlay with one uniform and perfectly polished surface does not seem to have occurred to the writer. A somewhat less serious mistake is that made in connection with the supposed origin of Vernis-Martin. It is explained that "panels of Chinese woodwork were inserted in French furniture," and that this combination could not long be tolerated—hence the origin of "a preparation which had the properties of lacquer" invented by a Dutch cabinet-maker named Huygens. But nothing is more striking in the furniture of the seventeenth and the first half of the eighteenth centuries than the eagerness of the Dutch artists to imitate, not so much Chinese as Japanese lacquer-work. Whenever they could get a panel of the real Oriental thing, they used it; and that it was used with eager satisfaction is shown by the splendid mounts in which both French and Dutch set up the pieces of Eastern dec oration. But such pieces were not com mon—they had to be brought by slow-sail ing ships of small burden; when they gav out, the Dutch and the Flemish and eve the French artist enjoyed very much mak ing the quasi-Oriental designs of whic he found himself capable, and the decorat ed cabinets and clock cases, with varnish painted designs upon them, which we use to mistake fifty years ago for the rea Oriental thing. Even vases of Delft war were taken in hand, and their cool blue and-white picked out and thrown into re lief by partial surface-adornment in lac quer. Under the name of *Vernis de Chin* and the like, brilliant and translucent var nishes were imported from eastern Asi and when the four brothers Martin bega to be famous as cabinet-makers, about th year 1750, it was chiefly because of the mag nificent lustre of their varnished piece which were assumed to be Chinese Fash ion, or Japanese Fashion, even when the had that which the Oriental pieces seldo had, a brilliant gold ground, and the paint ings on it in something very like relie so strong and bold were they.

But we have no right to ask a sma handbook to go into these minutiæ, and again, it is with great difficulty that a com pilation of this sort can be saved fro very serious error.

Seashore Life: The Invertebrates of th New York Coast and the Adjacent Coas Region. By Alfred Goldsborough Maye (New York Aquarium Series, No. 1.) A S. Barnes & Co. 1906. 8vo, pp. 181. Il lustrated.

This book is the first of a proposed serie designed to illustrate the common animal of the coast for the purposes of natur study, and in a general way to serve as guide to persons visiting the seashore or th exhibit of the New York Aquarium. The form treated of are very largely those whic may be seen alive at the Aquarium fro time to time, and many of the illustration are from photographs taken by the autho from living specimens in the tanks of tha institution. Dr. Mayer is well known as student of invertebrates, lately the Direc tor of the Museum of the Brooklyn Insti tute, and now of the marine laboratory o the Carnegie Institution at the Dry Tor tugas. His reputation is a sufficient guar antee of the accuracy of the work from scientific standpoint, though it is intende to be of a thoroughly popular character He has made a gift of the book to the Ne York Zoölogical Society, which is responsi ble for the conduct of the Aquarium, an the proceeds of its sale will be devoted t the improvement of that establishment.

The book attempts to present in untech nical language a description, with illustra tions, of the larger and more conspicuou marine invertebrates of the coast of Ne York; but in order to increase its genera usefulness, there have been included ref erences to the habits of a few creature from other regions. It is not intended t be a textbook of systematic zoölogy, bu rather to increase the popular interest i the life and habits of our marine animal and to illustrate their characteristics. I is hoped that the book will serve to rende the collections in the Aquarium and mu

seums of New York more intelligible to the visitor, and to aid in the educational work which is their most important function. The different groups are briefly but sufficiently described, and are illustrated by a series of 119 half-tones of exceptionally good quality, nearly all of which are from photographs taken from the animals themselves. Half-tones are so frequently obscure and unsatisfactory that we feel disposed to emphasize the success attained in this instance. A perusal of the text leads to the conclusion that it combines interest with accuracy in an exemplary degree, and is well qualified to meet the requirements of the intelligent reader who may yet be without technical training in zoölogy. The author and the Society alike seem entitled to congratulations on the success with which their purpose has been carried out. If the series is continued by works of a similar quality, it will be very sure to meet with popular appreciation and be widely useful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Bangs, John Kendrick. R. Holmes & Co. Harpers. $1.25.
Barry, Richard. Sandy from the Sierras. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50.
Bayard, Chevalier, The Right Joyous and Pleasant History of. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Beare, John I. Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition. Henry Frowde. 12s. 6d. net.
Beaumont and Fletcher. Vol. II. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press.
Benn, Alfred William. The History of English Rationalism in the Nineteenth Century. 2 vols. Longmans. $5 net.
Brown, Alice. The Court of Love. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
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Bruce, George A. The Twentieth Regiment of Massachusetts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50 net.
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Churchill, Winston. Coniston. Macmillan Co.
Clay, Albert T. Documents from the Temple Archives of Nippur. Vols. XIV. and XV.: Babylonian Expedition. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.
Commercial Handbook of Canada. Edited by Ernest Heaton. Toronto: Heaton's Agency. 60 cents.
Cooke, Jane Grosvenor. The Ancient Miracle. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Davenport, Frances Gardiner. The Economic Development of a Norfolk Manor, 1086-1565. London: Cambridge University Press.
Devereux, Margaret. Plantation Sketches. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Dowd, Alice M. Our Common Wild Flowers. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Dubois, Abbé J. A. Hindu Manners, Customs and Ceremonies. Translated by Henry K. Beauchamp. Henry Frowde.
Egerton, H. E. The Claims of the Study of Colonial History upon the Attention of the University of Oxford. Henry Frowde.
Eight Dramas of Calderon. Translated by Edward FitzGerald, Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Fairweather, Mary. The Passion Stroke: A Tale of Ancient Masonry. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Freneau, Philip. The American Village. Providence, R. I.
George Douglas. Eighth Duke of Argyll. Edited by the Dowager Duchess of Argyll. 2 vols. Dutton.
Gibbon, Edward. The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. The World's Classics: Vols. VI. and VII. Henry Frowde.
Hallock, William, and Herbert T. Wade. The Evolution of Weights and Measures and the Metric System. Macmillan Co. $2.25.
Hayve, O. B. Foolish Etiquette. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
Hobson, Florence Edgar. Shifting Scenes. London: Arthur C. Fifield. 75 cents.
Houghton, Louise Seymour. Hebrew Life and Thought. The University of Chicago Press. $1.50 net.
Hutton, William Holden. Burford Papers. Dutton.
Kauffman, Reginald Wright. Miss Frances Bair, Detective. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Lee, J. Fitzgerald. The Greater Exodus. London: Elliot Stock.
Leonard, Mary Hall. My Lady of the Search-Light. The Grafton Press. 75 cents.
Minutes of the Common Council of the City of New York, 1675-1776. 8 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Molesworth, Mrs. The Wrong Envelope, and Other Stories. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Montgomery, Helen Barrett. Christus Redemptor. Macmillan Co. 50 cents net.
Morley, John. Literary Essays. London: Arthur L. Humphreys.
My Log Book. Dutton. $1.25
Nelson's Encyclopædia. Edited by Frank M. Colby and George Sandeman. Vol. I. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Nesbitt, Frances E. Algeria and Tunis. Macmillan Co. $6.
Ostertag, Robert. Handbook of Meat Inspection. Translated by Early Vernon Wilcox. William R. Jenkins.
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Pollock, Frank L. The Treasure Trail. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
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Robertson, A. T. Keywords in the Teaching of Jesus. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
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Santa Anna, Antonio López de. Mi Historia Militar y Politica. Mexico: Ch. Bouret.
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Shortland, Julia Eliza. Restdale. Burre Publishing Co. $1.50.
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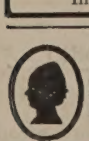

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